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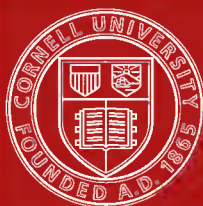
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REPRINT EDITION.

STRIKES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

1830-1880.

[FROM THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS
OF LABOR, FOR 1880.]

BY

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

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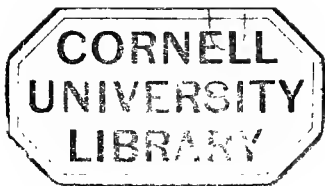
CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

REPRINTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE PROVISIONS OF CHAP. 7,

With compliments of
Horace G. Madlin,

Chief of Bureau of Statistics of Labor.



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STRIKES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

1830-1880.

STRIKES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The industrial progress of Massachusetts, like that of every other manufacturing community, has been marked by occasional conflicts between capital and labor. With the view of presenting an accurate summary of these conflicts, and, if possible, throwing some light upon their causes, results, and general effect upon the wage classes, this chapter has been prepared.

It was not until the third decade of the present century that the vexed questions which unfortunately at times separate the employer and employed culminated in actual outbreaks here. As early as 1825 the subject of adopting ten hours as the length of a day's work began to be agitated among the journeymen engaged in the building trades. In 1830 there were several strikes of brief duration in Boston, to secure shorter days. From 50 to 150 men — carpenters and masons — engaged in these movements, which were generally unsuccessful, the places of the strikers being easily filled. Some of the employers looked upon the ten-hour plan with favor, and expressed their willingness to pay their workmen by the hour, and to allow them to make ten hours the limit of a day's work. **1830.**

During the following year, other strikes occurred similar to those of 1830, and with like results. In October, 1831, about 60 machinists in Taunton struck to secure permission to quit work at sundown, their employers requiring them to remain until 7.30 P.M. **1831.**

Early in 1832 there was a strike of carpenters in Boston in behalf of the ten-hour system; the masons, painters, and slaters also joined to some extent. About 150 men took part in this strike, more than half of whom returned to work at the end of ten days. The places of the **1832.**

others were filled with new men. A meeting of master-mechanics was called in May to consider the expediency of adopting the ten-hour system; but it was deemed inadvisable to do so.

In 1833 about 75 Boston carpenters again struck for its adoption, but without success. Their places were immediately filled, and some of them were out of work for more than six months.

During the latter part of the year 1833, the female shoe-binders of Lynn began to agitate for an increase of wages.

1834. In those days the women engaged in this industry took their work to their homes, returning it to the shops when completed. The manufacturers being unwilling to increase the prices paid, a meeting for consultation was held by more than 1,000 binders Jan. 1, 1834. At this meeting it was resolved to take out no more work, unless the desired increase was granted. A shoe-binders' society was formed, which had several meetings and street parades. The employers steadily refused to accede to its demands; and, as it became evident that they were finding no difficulty in getting their work done in neighboring towns at such prices as they were willing to pay, the organization finally dwindled away, and the strike came to an unsuccessful end in three or four weeks.

In February of the same year a brief disturbance occurred at Lowell among the female factory operatives on account of a reduction in wages.

Several hundred laborers employed upon the construction of the Providence Railroad in Mansfield struck during April, 1834, for higher wages. The strike resulted in a riot, which was at once suppressed by the sheriff of the county, assisted by a company of the militia. Several arrests were made.

In July, 1835, the workmen of the various building trades in Boston once more struck for the ten-hour system. They had several parades through the streets of the city, 1835. held meetings, and resolved not to return to work until their demands were complied with by the employers. About 500 mechanics were concerned in this strike; but at the end of two weeks it came to an end without accomplishing any thing for the workmen, some of whom lost

their places, and were unable to find other employment for several months.

Several hundred of the female operatives employed in the Lowell mills left their work during October, 1836, on account of a reduction in wages of twelve and one-half per cent. It was also urged as a grievance that one of the corporations had increased the price of board twenty-five cents per week. The strike was of brief duration, and no record remains concerning it beyond the bare fact of its occurrence. 1836.

In June, 1837, there was a strike among the sailors in Boston for an advance from fourteen to sixteen dollars per month. The ship-owners refused to grant the advance, as, owing to the existing commercial depression, but few vessels were fitting out, and plenty of men could be obtained at the lower rate. The strike continued nearly a week, during which considerable rioting occurred in the vicinity of the wharves. The usual street processions were indulged in; but the movement was entirely without success. 1837.

A strike of laborers on the Eastern Railroad, near Salem, in September, 1839, for shorter days, caused a brief suspension of the work in which they were engaged; and, the following May, a dispute in regard to the hours of labor brought about a riot among the railroad laborers in Rowley. Deductions were made from the pay of certain workmen who failed to begin work at the required hour. Incensed at this, they attacked the overseer, and gave him a severe beating. They prevented those who desired to work from doing so, and proceeded to destroy the property of their employer. The rioters were finally dispersed by the arrival of a sheriff with a detachment of militia. One of the ringleaders was arrested. Order being restored, the work was resumed as usual. 1839. 1840.

During the year 1840, the factory operatives in Lowell made demands for shorter days, but without avail.

May, 1843, the female operatives in the mills at Chicopee struck on account of increase of work without corresponding advance in pay. They marched to the neighboring city of Springfield with music and banners, and 1843.

endeavored to obtain additions to their ranks from other mills, but without success. They soon after returned to their work. In September of the same year nearly all the journeymen tailors employed in Boston joined in a strike for higher wages. They remained away from work but a day or two, the required advance being in some cases granted, and in others refused.

The market for textile fabrics being greatly depressed, the manufacturers in Fall River gave notice that a reduction in wages would be made Feb. 1, 1848, of from fifteen to seventeen per cent from prices then paid. This created considerable ill feeling among the operatives; and the weavers employed by the Metacomet, Anawan, Troy, and Quequechan Corporations, struck work, and endeavored, but without success, to persuade those in the remaining mills to leave. The strike continued about three weeks, during which the mills above mentioned were closed. About 800 operatives were idle, their combined loss in wages amounting to upwards of \$11,000. The weavers then returned to work at the reduced rates. While the strike was in progress, there was considerable rioting among the strikers, some of whom were arrested, and afterwards imprisoned, for disturbing the peace.

An unsuccessful strike for increase of wages took place in 1849 among the operatives of the Millbury Cotton Mill at Millbury. After a day or two, the strikers resumed work upon their employers' terms.

Business still continued very dull throughout the country, and large numbers were out of employment in all manufacturing districts. In the year 1850, it is stated, out of 2,485,700 spindles in New England, over 800,000 were stopped. The high price of cotton, and the limited demand for cloth, rendered it impossible to run the mills at wages then paid without loss.

Accordingly, on Wednesday, Nov. 20, notice of intended reduction was given by all the Fall River corporations save one. The Watuppa¹ alone took no action towards reduc-

¹ The Watuppa Mill is now abandoned; the White Mill is called the Fall River Manufactory; the Quequechan is merged in the Pocasset; while the Massasoit was burned some years ago.

tion. The spinners in the other mills — the Metacomet, Anawan, White, Quequechan, Troy, Pocasset, and Massasoit — struck without notice, which at once prevented these mills from running. In justifying their course, they claimed that numerous petty tyrannies and unjust actions on the part of the overseers — actions which they felt were in many cases unknown to the superintendents — led them to fear, that, should notice of a strike be given, their treatment would be like that of the spinners of New Bedford under similar circumstances. In that city, the spinners informed their employers that they would leave work on a certain day, rather than continue at the amount offered. The overseer sent immediately to other towns for men to take their places; and, as fast as he could obtain them, old spinners were discharged without regard to the legal notice they had given of intention to leave. Fearing the same treatment, the Fall River operatives decided to leave without notice.

A union for mutual support and assistance was formed. Meetings were held by the weavers also, and resolutions passed setting forth that the reduction was unnecessary, as the manufacturers were receiving a fair rate of interest on their capital. The strikers also complained that the reduction was made in the fall, when no other employment could be obtained, and when, having purchased their winter's provisions, coal, etc., it would be impossible for them to return to England, of which country most of the spinners were natives. It was also said that alterations recently made in their work had increased their labor, and at the same time lessened their wages; and that, in one mill, men were compelled to clean the mules on Sunday.

On the other hand, in behalf of the manufacturers, it was held that wages, even after reduction, would remain as high as they would average in the principal cotton factories of New England, and that reduction was rendered imperative by the condition of business. It was asserted, that, within a few years previous to the strike, many improvements had been introduced, such as furnishing the mule-room with spare hands to doff and clean the mules, and with sweepers to do the sweeping which had formerly been done by the back-boys. These improvements, it was claimed, enabled

the spinner to run more time, and to earn about as much as usual, notwithstanding reduction in wages. New machinery had been introduced by which more yarn could be spun in a given time; and, of the great expense so incurred, no part was borne by the spinner, although he reaped a share of the benefit accruing.

The condition of affairs provoked much discussion, and, as in later times, many letters, both in favor of and against the course pursued by the operatives, were written to the local papers. The strike, from its magnitude, seems to have attracted considerable attention outside the immediate vicinity of Fall River, and the questions involved were freely commented upon by the press of New York and Boston.

The winter was a severe one for those out of employment. Much distress was felt by them. Delegations from the Spinners' Union visited other cities for the purpose of securing subscriptions for their assistance and relief. They are said to have secured about \$20,000. This amount was disbursed by a board of directors, who would in no case pay out money to those in needy circumstances. The relief consisted of orders for necessaries only, to which the strikers had resolved to confine themselves. It was understood, also, that none were to apply for assistance, except in the last extremity. Meanwhile the relative positions of employers and operatives did not change.

In March, 1851, the strikers started a small paper, called "The Trades Union and Fall River Weavers' Journal," to be published weekly at one dollar per year.

After the strike had lasted four months, a citizen — a workingman, but not connected with the mills — wrote a letter suggesting that the dispute be settled by referees chosen jointly by the parties concerned. This letter was sent to the spinners' organ; but it was thought that such a proposition, if emanating from the operatives, would imply a concession on their part. It was therefore refused publication. It afterwards appeared in "The Fall River Monitor;" but nothing came of it.

The fact that the Watuppa Corporation had continued to carry on their mill and pay the old prices had been used in many quarters as evidence that the other companies might

do the same. Wages in this mill, however, were reduced May 1, 1851. By that time, the White, Quequechan, and Metacomet Mills were partly running, and the others began gradually to fill up. Few of the former employés had returned, many of the best operatives had left town, and the corporations were engaging new-comers. After June 1, the strike ended. The reduced rates were everywhere adopted. Altogether the struggle had lasted nearly six months, although it was perhaps seven or eight months from its beginning before the mills were in full operation. During nearly six months, 1,300 persons were idle, losing upwards of \$140,000 in wages. The feeling was everywhere expressed that such a dispute was disastrous in its effects upon all concerned, and a severe blow to the prosperity of the city.

The ten-hour plan had gradually gained ground in the building trades. In 1840 President Van Buren directed its adoption in all public establishments. By 1844 it was in operation in the ship-building trades. Carpenters and masons, as a rule, worked but ten hours per day after 1851.

By that time demands for the new system were generally acceded to by the master-builders, without producing actual strikes. Certain contractors held out against it, however; and in September, 1851, a strike of carpenters and masons occurred in Lowell in its support. In January of the same year a disagreement as to wages had caused a general strike of weavers employed in the mills at Three Rivers, Palmer, which, like the more serious one of the previous year in Fall River, terminated unsuccessfully; but the laborers upon the common sewers in New Bedford struck in May, 1852, for increase of pay, and succeeded in obtaining a portion of the advance demanded, the strike being thus settled by compromise. The hod-carriers in Lowell, also, secured an increase in wages after a short strike in the following month.

One of the most remarkable strikes that has ever occurred in Massachusetts — remarkable from its apparently slight cause, the class of operatives engaged in it, and its results upon the village in which it took place — was that at the mills of the Salisbury Corporation in June, 1852.

The employés at these mills were Americans, members of

the oldest families in the town. The rules governing their hours of labor had never been very strict. Nominally, the mills opened at 5 o'clock A.M., and closed at 7 P.M., with intermissions of half an hour for breakfast and one hour for dinner. It was customary, also, to give the operatives fifteen minutes, during each half day, for luncheon. This privilege they had enjoyed for thirty years. They considered themselves as much entitled to it as to the noon hour. But it is stated that it had often been abused. Men would frequently go out during the forenoon to do their marketing, or to work in their gardens, sometimes remaining away from the mills an hour.

In April, the agent, who had been in charge for many years, resigned. His successor, after consultation with the agent of the Amesbury Flannel Company, whose mills were in the same village, determined, in consequence of the abuses above mentioned, to abolish the privilege. Notices were therefore posted in the mills on the last day of May, stating that on and after the next day (June 1) the employés would be required to observe the regular hours of labor; that the luncheon recess was to be abolished; and that no persons were to leave the mills without permission of the overseers of their respective rooms. Violation of these orders was to be held sufficient cause for discharge.

On the following day, notwithstanding this notice, nearly 100 men left the mills at the usual luncheon hour, and on their return were all discharged. Many of these men had never before availed themselves of the recess, but, regarding the rights of their brethren as about to be taken from them, took this course to uphold and sustain them.

The mill village, a quiet country hamlet, was thrown into the greatest excitement by this event. The operatives had grown up with the industries of the place, and had been identified with them until they felt themselves joint proprietors in the mills. The townspeople generally, many of whom were connected with the operatives by relationship, supported their action. The sudden deprivation of what they believed their right, without previous consultation with them, they considered an indignity to which they could not tamely submit. Public meetings were held, at which

speeches were made by the most influential citizens denouncing the injustice of the act. Flags were suspended about the town, bearing mottoes referring to the strike. Processions, with bands of music, passed through the streets.

A committee was appointed to confer with the directors of the corporation, and to see if the luncheon privilege might not be restored. The directors decided to support the agent, convinced that he would do what was right, and that the men had left the mills without just cause. The agent, being afterwards visited, stated that he had only performed his duty; had treated the operatives politely, showing no partiality; and that the new rule was as binding upon the overseers as upon the operatives.

The female weavers, sympathizing with those who had been discharged, struck work, and held a meeting, resolving that the agent's course was an "act of gross injustice, not to be sustained by any fair and satisfactory reasons." They likewise chose a committee to visit the agent, who, though he received them politely, informed them that he could make no concession after what had happened, nor receive back those who had been discharged. He admitted the error of not giving earlier notice of the proposed change of rules, but considered himself insulted by the demonstrations that had taken place. After this visit, the girls, about 125 in number, signed the following:—

“Resolved, That we cannot consistently return to our work, and leave our fathers, brothers, and friends outside, to suffer the injustice heaped upon them by a heartless monetary power; and trusting in God, the friend of the oppressed, we bid our looms farewell.”

The general feeling in the community at the time may be gathered from the following resolutions passed unanimously at a subsequent mass meeting of the villagers. They were drawn up by the poet Whittier, who, at that time, resided near the mills, and who strongly sympathized with the operatives.

“Resolved, That the withdrawal of privileges enjoyed for a quarter of a century, and which we looked upon as the settled and common law of our manufacturing establishments, giving the workmen no opportunity for calm reflection as to the best course to be pursued, and discharging them at once for the first disobedience, has produced a profound feeling

of surprise, regret, and disapproval, not on the part of the operatives alone, but of the entire population of our village.

“Resolved, That whatever necessity may have been supposed to exist in some of other manufacturing establishments for such rules as have disturbed the peace and jeopardized the interests of our community, the character and conduct of our operatives make certain that no such necessity here existed. Individuals may have abused their privileges, and *they*, of course, were liable to censure and expulsion; but, as it is, the innocent may suffer because of the delinquent few.

“Resolved, That the operatives in this village have duly appreciated this privilege, and have been faithful and punctual in the discharge of their duties; and it is not too much to say, that, as a class, in point of morality, industry and efficiency, they would bear a favorable comparison with any establishment in the Union. They are mostly permanent residents under the wholesome influence of home; they have something at stake in the common prosperity; are good citizens in all the relations of life: and nowhere has law and order been better observed, and property more secure, than in this village.

“Resolved, That such a state of things, so beneficial and honorable to both employers and employed, should not be lightly changed. It cannot be good policy to lose all the moral and social advantages which these establishments unquestionably have enjoyed over many others in New England. It cannot be well to array the interests of our village and those of the corporation against each other, or to fling new elements of discord and hatred into social and political life.

“Resolved, That the citizens of this village, hitherto justly proud of the reputation of its manufacturing establishments, showing as they did that humanity and liberality towards the operative is the best economy for the capitalist, have rejoiced in the high character of the men and women employed; and it would be a matter of serious regret on the part of all classes of our citizens if the present policy is persisted in, and a proportion of those whose industry and good conduct have enlarged the dividends, and established the honorable reputation of the Salisbury Company, are driven elsewhere for labor, and their places supplied by a vagrant and unsettled class.”

On the other hand, the following concludes a statement of facts issued and signed by twenty-one overseers in the mills: —

“In justice to those who have left the employ of the company, we cannot believe that a very large proportion of them do countenance the outrages against common decency that have been perpetrated in our quiet village for the last few days. And we have no doubt but that every man who has been guilty of aiding or abetting the outrageous proceedings that have disgraced Amesbury and Salisbury Mills Village, during this excitement, will on reflection exceedingly regret it. And it is with much pleasure that we are permitted to say, that, during the

trying scenes which the agent has been called to pass, he has conducted himself with the most perfect decorum; and we have yet to learn, notwithstanding the many provocations that he has received, that any expression or any deportment of his towards those who have spoken with him has been other than that which becomes a gentleman."

A conciliatory letter was sent to the agent by the female operatives, proposing a compromise. To this the agent replied, —

"I cannot consistently accept the proposition . . . for a settlement of the difficulties now existing. . . . The company in whose behalf I act cannot allow any dictation in regard to the rules and regulations by which they will be governed in the management of their mills; and deprecating, as they do, all combinations by the operatives to resist their authority, more especially when forcible measures and threats are made the basis of operations, and knowing, as they do, that the present excited state of feeling has been brought about in a great measure by the steps that a portion of the citizens have seen fit to take, they have come to the conclusion that when their machinery is started, be it now or at any future time, it must be by men who have had no participation in the late movements to resist their authority."

The luncheon privilege had also been abolished at the Amesbury Flannel Mills, and, in consequence, the employés had joined the strike during the month of June. It being apparent that the existing trouble was not likely to be immediately overcome, town meetings of the citizens of Amesbury and Salisbury were legally called "to take into consideration the evils affecting a large portion of our citizens, growing out of the late coercive measures of the Salisbury Manufacturing Company." At these meetings resolves were passed regarding the contest, and active efforts inaugurated in behalf of a ten-hour law.

Meanwhile the breach between the villagers and the corporations continued to widen. The dispute which had so slight a beginning, and which, it would seem, might have been at once amicably settled, had now grown into open war. One of the former employés was tried for participation in certain riotous demonstrations near the mills; but the case was finally abandoned. Many being out of employment in the village, a levee was held to secure funds for their relief, at which letters of sympathy were read from John G. Whittier, T. W. Higginson, and others. The circumstances

attending the strike were widely commented upon, and the opinions expressed were generally unfavorable to the agent.

As time went on, many of the former operatives drifted into other employment elsewhere. The mills were at length started, mainly with Irish help. The opposition encountered interfered seriously with the prosperity of the corporations and they labored for many years under financial difficulties. The village suffered from the crippling of its chief industry and real estate depreciated.

A complete change of industrial population was at last effected; the result deplored in Whittier's resolutions was reached; and none of the old operatives remained connected with the mills. The pecuniary loss occasioned by the strike it is impossible to estimate, as no data can be found to determine how long the workpeople remained idle before finding other employment.

A strike at the Charlestown Navy Yard, Dec. 16, 1852, was caused by an order from the Navy Department adding one hour to each day's work. After a few days the order was revoked, and the men, over 300 in number, returned to work.

March 1, 1853, a strike occurred at the Mechanics' Planing Mills, Lowell. There were about 200 men and boys at work in these mills under different employers, about **1853.** one-half of whom struck for decrease in the hours of labor. At the end of a week the ten-hour plan was generally adopted. March 8, about one-third of the employés at the Lowell Machine Shop struck for the same object, but were unsuccessful. March 17, the calkers in East Boston struck for higher wages. For the same purpose, small strikes occurred within the following month at a shoe manufactory in Boston and at Winchester's soap factory in Cambridge; but whether either of the three succeeded or not is now unknown. The operatives at Arnold & Co.'s factory in Adams, however, secured an increase of pay after a strike of two days in the latter part of April; while the riggers in New Bedford, after a brief contest, abandoned their position, and returned to work upon their employer's terms about July 1. In April, also, the waiters in the Boston hotels struck for better wages, but without avail, their

places being rapidly filled by others, and thus closed to them permanently. During 1853, about 500 cordage makers in Boston resorted to a strike to secure more pay and shorter days. In less than a week they were successful in a measure; the general adoption of the ten-hour system in many trades having by this time brought employers to concede it in others.

The strikes of 1853, so far alluded to, were small affairs, and the loss thereby was proportionately light; but of a quite different character was that of the operatives employed by the Blackstone Manufacturing Company, occurring before the close of the year. At that time about 700 persons were employed at the mills of this company in Blackstone, who were earning on the average a dollar per day. They demanded an increase of ten per cent; this was refused, and they all stopped work. The strike having taken place, it was determined to improve the opportunity to put in new machinery; and for six months the mills remained closed. Before they were re-opened, many of the strikers had left the town. Those who remained very gladly returned to work at the old rates.

March, 1854, the laborers on the railroad in Dorchester struck for higher wages. Nearly 200 of these workmen marched over the line of work, and drove away **1854.** all who were satisfied with the old prices. The strike was finally suppressed.

April 14, the coal shovellers in Boston left their work, and demanded more pay. They held a mass meeting on Lewis Wharf and voted to stand firm. No record remains of the final result.

In August a general strike of tack-makers occurred in Taunton against a reduction in wages. The movement finally extended to Bridgewater, Abington, and Boston. After three weeks, the strike was ended by the adoption of a uniform scale of prices, by which wages were reduced about ten per cent. The loss in wages during the three weeks is estimated at over \$4,000.

Aug. 3, the ship-carpenters at the Charlestown Navy Yard demanded an increase from \$2.50 to \$3 per day, — the established price outside the yard. Several of the leaders

were discharged, and a compromise effected with the other workmen, who returned to work at \$2.76 per day.

At the same time the calkers also struck for higher wages, but failed to gain their object, abandoning the strike in three weeks.

In the following April, the calkers, not disheartened by their previous failure, again demanded higher pay. **1855.** This time they succeeded, as, after a brief delay, their wages were raised to three dollars per day. During March, 1856, the Irish laborers upon the wharves in Boston, **1856.** opposing the inevitable, struck against the introduction of the steam hoisting-machine. They were speedily made aware of their mistake, and, of course, accomplished nothing.

The season of 1857 was marked by a commercial depression, the influence of which was felt in all departments of industry. Work was scarce, and laborers plenty. **1858.** Many factories were entirely closed. The mills at Chicopee were run on half time during the winter, but on Monday, April 5, 1858, resumed full time, with a reduction of twenty per cent in wages. It was proposed to try the new arrangement as an experiment, until its results could be ascertained. The female weavers were dissatisfied with the plan and immediately struck against its continuance. Their example was at once followed by others, and, as a consequence, the mills were closed for one week. Then a portion of the machinery started; but it was a fortnight before the strike was overcome. There were many persons out of employment at the time, and some new help was engaged. Considerable excitement prevailed in the village. The strikers paraded in the streets, and large crowds gathered near the mills. More or less rioting was indulged in, to suppress which extra police were appointed. The course pursued by the operatives was deprecated by the village priest, who advised them to return to their work; and his influence was an important element in bringing the trouble to an end.

The terms of the corporation were at length accepted, the loss in wages by the contest being estimated at \$8,000.

The manufacturers of textiles throughout New England had found it necessary to reduce rates during the dull season.

As business now began to mend, the operatives, in various mills, impatient to reap part of the benefit which they felt this revival was bringing to the employers, struck for a return to prices previously paid. For the most part, these demands were premature, and therefore failed; for, although goods were selling more rapidly than during the winter, the outlook was not yet sufficiently promising to warrant higher wages. Of this class were brief strikes at Salem, Newburyport, and West Springfield. The operatives at the Blackinton Mills, Adams, were more fortunate: there, the desired increase was almost immediately granted. In Blackstone, too, the factory operatives declined to work longer at the reduced rates, and in this they were supported by the operatives in the neighboring town of Uxbridge. Altogether about 1,000 persons remained out of the mills until their combined loss in wages reached the sum of \$12,000. By that time business had so far improved that their demands were complied with, and the strike ended.

In August, 1858, a short strike of small account took place at Randolph, under the auspices of Division No. 20 of the Shoemakers' Union. The following year strikes in the shoe trade first rose into prominence, the largest occurring in Natick. It began among the lasters in one shop, who struck for a slight advance in pay. All the shops in the town were soon involved in the dispute, about 800 workmen remaining idle nearly fourteen weeks. They finally, after losing \$160,000 in wages, succeeded in gaining the advance. In Marlborough, during a similar strike, 100 men were out three weeks, losing \$4,625. A compromise was then made, and the contest ended.

Very little trouble has arisen among the hatters in Massachusetts. The utmost harmony has usually prevailed between the Hatters' Union and the manufacturers; but in 1859 a leading dealer in Boston refused to observe its regulations, and violated certain rules in regard to the employment of apprentices and non-union men. The association at once struck against him, and no union men would work in his shop. For three years this manufacturer maintained his position, having what is termed a "foul" shop. He at length found it to his advantage to come into accord with the requirements of the union.

Reduction of wages in the shoe trade, during the fall of 1859, produced a general feeling of discontent among the workmen. The shoemakers of Lynn had no organization at that time; but meetings were held to consider the situation. Having concluded that the employers would not willingly increase wages, they resolved to strike on Feb. 22, 1860. This resolution was duly carried into effect, and on the day named, a large crowd of excited men assembled, and a procession of 1,000 workmen, accompanied by a band, passed through the principal streets. These proceedings created no little apprehension in the city, and a request was sent to neighboring towns for detachments of police. This aid, however, was refused.

For a few days, more or less rioting prevailed. The strikers sought to prevent the express companies from transporting stock and goods. The authorities, aroused to the need of instant action, after consulting the Attorney-General appointed a hundred special policemen; and the commander of the Lynn Light Infantry received orders to hold his company in readiness for service. A detachment of policemen from Boston came to Lynn.

These preparations greatly incensed the strikers, who disclaimed all intention of violence. They declared that Boston policemen had no business in Lynn and tendered them an escort from the city. The disorderly conduct still continued. Some of the police, with others, were stoned, but no one seriously injured. Next day the Boston detachment left Lynn amid the jeers of a crowd of women who assembled at the depot. At a meeting, Feb. 27, in which sympathizers from Marblehead took part, the speakers, while commending the strike, strongly advised the preservation of the peace.

The excitement still prevailed throughout the city. The strike had become general through most of the shoe towns of Eastern Massachusetts; and a grand labor demonstration was projected to take place March 7th, in Lynn.

Two days prior to this celebration, the female stitchers, binders, and machine-operators joined the strike, and held a spirited meeting at Liberty Hall. On the 7th, delegations visited the city from Beverly, Salem, Danvers, Woburn,

Marblehead, and other towns; over 5,000 men and 1,000 women appearing in line, with five full bands of music. They carried over a hundred banners and twenty-six American flags, and were accompanied by several military and fire companies. This parade is considered the largest labor demonstration ever made in Massachusetts.

But the enthusiasm aroused by such means soon flagged. It was found that more serious business was in hand than holding fiery meetings or costly parades. The vacant places in the shops were being filled by men from Maine and New Hampshire, who were not slow to profit by the course the strikers had taken. Soon one shop's crew after another returned to work. The attendance at the workmen's meetings grew smaller as the days went on. By the first of April the strike was over, having utterly failed.

In every town where its influence extended, many workmen had lost their old situations permanently; while some could find no other places during the entire summer. The contest cost its participants \$200,000 in wages lost through idleness.

The following year a small strike occurred among the morocco-finishers in Lynn for an advance in wages. At the end of two weeks, after a loss in wages amounting to \$500, the matter was compromised. The same year the mills at Great Barrington, owned by the Berkshire Woollen Company, who were engaged upon a government contract, were run twelve to thirteen hours daily. The operatives struck for reduction of the running time to eleven hours per day and their demand was complied with. 1861.

In 1862 there was a strike of hand-loom weavers at the Pontoosuc Mills, Pittsfield; about 50 demanding higher wages. The strike lasted but a few days, the desired increase being granted by the employers. Exactly similar in motive, duration, and result was the strike of the 'longshore coopers in Boston during the same year. The next year these coopers struck again for still higher pay, and obtained it without much trouble, as prices were good and business brisk. 1862.
1863.

Certain plasterers in East Boston, during 1863, who were receiving two dollars per day, demanded an increase of one

dollar. The strike soon became general throughout the city, 175 men being idle for thirteen weeks. Some of the employers were willing to pay the wages demanded; but the men were firmly united and refused to work unless all the master plasterers would accede to their terms.

A compromise was at last agreed upon, the wages being made \$2.50 per day. The amount of wages lost by the men before this result was reached was about \$27,000.

This year, also, the morocco-finishers of Lynn and Charlestown indulged in strikes, which produced losses in wages amounting to \$60,000 and \$36,000 respectively. Both of these were peculiar in that they were caused by no question of wages or working-hours. In Lynn the journeymen had a rule, enacted by the union, that a man accustomed to work on one sort of skins should not be allowed to work on another. This regulation the employers considered arbitrary. Some of the non-union men were put at work on calf or goat skins as they were needed. Upon this the union men struck throughout the city. They were out sixteen weeks, and then abandoned their point and returned.

In Charlestown the strike originated on account of the employment of apprentices contrary to the rules of the Workmen's Association. Like that in Lynn, it was entirely unsuccessful, although the contest lasted four months. The strikers received aid from New York, Lynn, and elsewhere; but there was much suffering among them. Some of the strikers enlisted in the army; and the Journeymen's Union was finally broken up.

Near the close of the year the Hatters' Association declared the shop of Messrs. Bent & Bush of Boston "foul," on account of the refusal of that firm to pay the established rates. For several weeks the shop was carried on by non-union men.

During 1863, likewise, changes made in the hours of labor at the Charlestown Navy Yard caused a general strike of the mechanics employed there. Two years previous, Congress had superseded President Van Buren's ten-hour order by enacting that the working time should correspond with that in private ship-yards in the vicinity. Under this law the commandant decided that the men must begin work at

sunrise in the winter. Many of the workmen would have found it impossible to comply with this rule, as they lived out of the city, and no trains ran early enough to enable them to reach the yard at that hour. The employés appealed to Congress for a change in the law; but the matter was soon satisfactorily adjusted and the strike ended within one week. Some twenty-five of the leaders in the affair were discharged, but were restored to their places in a short time by a new commandant.

Thirty men employed by the Putnam Nail Company at Neponset (now Ward 24, Boston) struck for more pay in January, 1864. They endeavored by force to keep others from occupying the places they had left, and the aid of fifty policemen was needed to preserve the peace. When it was found that the company was not likely to yield, the men returned to work. Two of the most turbulent workmen were discharged. The loss in wages was \$1,300 the strike having lasted three weeks. **1864.**

At the mines of the Hudson Iron Company, West Stockbridge, during the same year, over 100 men resorted to a strike, but accepted the old rates after an unsuccessful struggle of two weeks.

There was a general strike of nail-makers in Wareham and vicinity, beginning Nov. 12, 1864, and ending March 1, 1865. The movement was for an increase of twenty-five per cent in wages, and failed; the nailers going to work at the old rates after seventeen weeks. **1865.**

The general reduction in hours of labor for mechanics had caused efforts in the same direction among the factory workers; and bills shortening the working-day had been brought before the Legislature several times, but, so far, without success. In 1865 the mills at Southbridge were running thirteen hours daily, and the operatives struck for eleven hours. The manufacturers, except at the Globe Mills, immediately yielded, and the matter was amicably settled. At the Globe Mills the strike continued two days, when the desired arrangement was adopted, and work resumed. Other mills in Eastern Massachusetts had shortened their days, and this occasioned a discussion of the subject in the western counties. In Pittsfield a general movement was made by the employés

in behalf of the new plan. It was finally agreed that the spinners in some of the mills should remain out until its adoption was guaranteed. This caused a stoppage of a day or two. Some of the strikers were discharged; but the change of hours was finally made.

Dissatisfaction with the rate of wages caused a very brief mule-spinners' strike in Chicopee, in 1865, but it failed to accomplish the object sought.

In the fall of 1866, a small strike of weavers took place at a factory in Adams, for increase of wages. It lasted but a day or two, and was settled by compromise. During 1866. the following winter the second shoemakers' strike occurred in Marlborough. The workmen, who had formed an association, struck at the largest factory in the town for higher pay. The employes in other shops soon followed their example. The manufacturers then united to break up the association. There was considerable ill-feeling between the men and their employers. Offers to pay the advance demanded were made, coupled with the condition that the association be abandoned. These offers were persistently refused, and the manufacturers seemed determined not to concede more. But prices were now advancing, and there was a demand for goods. A leading firm is said to have stolen a march on the other manufacturers by calling its men together and entering into a compromise. The other employers were much incensed at this, and regarded it as a violation of an express understanding that the strike should be resisted to the end. After this action on the part of the firm above referred to, the other manufacturers made as favorable terms as possible with their men, in every case paying some advance. Thus, in six weeks, all trouble was over.

On the 15th of January, 1867, the operatives at the woollen mills of the Assabet Manufacturing Company, Maynard, about 450 in number, struck in resistance to a 1867. reduction of ten per cent from their wages. During the war, this company had three times added ten per cent to the pay of its employes unasked. The strike lasted seven days, when the help decided to submit to the reduction. The loss in wages was about \$4,500.

The agitation in favor of shorter working-days in factories continued, and was now shown in demands for a ten-hour law. The public sentiment respecting the ten-hour system had taken such a form in the winter of 1866-67, that the agent of the Wamsutta Mills, New Bedford, anticipating its general adoption by the leading manufacturers, without solicitation gave notice that, after the opening of the new year, ten hours would constitute a day's work at his mills. Events proving that his previous anticipations were not well founded, a subsequent notice was given that the ten-hour system would be abandoned until other competing mills should adopt it, when the Wamsutta Mills would be run on corresponding time. To this the employés objected; and, after conference with a committee representing them, it was agreed to run the mills ten hours per day during February, on trial, the operatives submitting to a reduction of one-eleventh from their wages.

After Feb. 1, however, the day hands objected to this arrangement, denying that the committee had possessed any authority to bind them to a reduction. Soon after a strike occurred, the employés refusing to work until the ten-hour system was pledged.

On the 22d of February, the agent gave public notice that all operatives in the employ of the corporation at the time of the strike were discharged, and that the mills would start March 1, and run eleven hours per day on the average, — this plan to be continued until the mills at Lawrence and Lowell should adopt the ten-hour system, or a law regulating the hours of labor be passed. Further, that the corporation was ready to hire as many of the old operatives as were inclined to work at the rate of wages paid in 1866.

The mills started March 1, in accordance with the above notice, having a partial force numbering somewhat over one hundred. Crowds collected about the premises, and by riotous conduct sought to prevent those who desired to work from doing so. Some of the rioters were arrested and fined. Soon after the strike practically ceased, the former employés continuing to go in from day to day until the mills were full. The loss in wages during the strike was \$120,000.

April 1, 1867, the mule-spinners employed at one or two

factories in Lawrence struck for a decrease in the hours of labor. This demonstration, like the one just spoken of, was part of a general movement among the factory workers of the country in behalf of the ten-hour plan. No accurate record exists of the number engaged in this strike, but it is thought that they did not exceed one hundred and fifty. Their places were in many cases filled by new hands, and the strike resulted disastrously to all concerned in it. The inconvenience to the corporations was slight, and the trouble was of brief duration, lasting only a few weeks. During the first part of the time, the strikers indulged in the usual street parades, with music and banners. The various mills were visited, and frequent cheers given for the ten-hour system.

While this strike was in progress, the mule-spinners employed at the Hamilton, Boott, and Lawrence mills in Lowell, numbering about 100 men, left their work on account of the refusal of the corporations to reduce the time from eleven to ten hours per day. Here the demand was made in accordance with a resolution previously passed by the Mule-spinners' Association of the United States. During the progress of the strike, the spinners were ignored by the corporations, which continued to run the mills with such help as they could obtain; and, after three weeks, the strikers, having lost about \$3,500 in wages, returned to work on the usual time.

In July, 100 boot and shoe bottomers at Brookfield remained idle three weeks in the vain endeavor to secure more pay. Had they continued at work, their wages would have amounted to \$3,600 in that time.

Jan. 1, 1868, a reduction of eighteen per cent was made in the wages of the factory operatives in Fall River. This caused some ill-feeling, and a strike was threatened. **1868.** Though the market still continued dull, the manufacturers desired to avert a strike, if possible, and so gave notice that, on the first day of March, one-half of the amount of the reduction would be restored. The operatives declined to accept any compromise, and demanded a full return to old rates. To this the manufacturers felt they could not agree, and a general strike of spinners and weavers took place

March 1st. They remained out two weeks, and resumed work without further advance in most cases, — there being, it is asserted, a few exceptions to this result. The wages lost by those affected by the strike may be estimated at \$50,000.

A small strike occurred at the Huguenot Mills, North Oxford, in April, 1868. Owing to the condition of business, a reduction in wages had been made to which the employés objected. A few of the discontented operatives at length induced the broad-loom weavers, about 40 in number, to quit the mills. The strikers were immediately warned to leave the tenements owned by the manufacturers within fourteen days. This produced a reaction among the disaffected weavers, and some of them soon came to the agent and asked to be allowed to return to work. The leaders were not taken back, but by the end of ten days the others were at work as usual.

The same year the spinners at the Merchants Woollen Mills, Dedham, refused to work if self-operating jacks were introduced as proposed. On the arrival of the new machinery, nearly 50 left the mills. Their places were mainly filled by new hands.

In 1868 the Crispin organization began to enforce its regulations among the shoe manufacturers. A manufacturer in Ashland was notified by a committee from the local lodge, of which most of his employés were members, that he must discharge certain men in his employ, the charge against them being that they were not members of the order. This he refused to do, and was therefore informed that he would be compelled to close his factory. Soon after, while he was absent from the town, his workmen struck, and took out the work-benches and piled them in the yard. Upon his return, he was notified that a bitter feeling existed against him on the part of the Crispins, and that he had better submit to their demands. This he was firmly resolved not to do, considering them arbitrary and unjust. He hired a few new men, but they were driven away by the strikers. His cattle were poisoned and his life threatened. Committees of Crispins boarded the trains at stations outside the town, and so intercepted the workmen whom he had engaged. At length, with the assistance of an agent, one hundred men were hired

in Maine, quietly brought to Ashland, and the factory started. After a few days, the new-comers stated that they were afraid to remain on account of the excitement existing in the town. Protection was promised them, however, and a force of State police secured to preserve the peace. By proper authority, also, the workmen were armed with muskets and kept in constant readiness to repel assaults.

In the face of these preparations, a grand convention of Crispins from other towns that had been called to meet in Ashland, was given up; and after a struggle of five weeks the strike itself was abandoned. It had brought only disaster to the men who took part in it. In May of this year, a Crispin strike took place at the factory of C. T. Sampson, North Adams, against the employment of a workman who did not belong to the order. The strikers left the factory, and afterwards, under orders from their former employer, took out their tools and benches. Their places were filled with new men, who were required to sign agreements monthly not to join the Crispin order. Very soon it was found that, in spite of this precaution, most of the new-comers had become members of the organization. Some of the former employés were afterwards taken back upon their renouncing the order. No further trouble occurred until early in 1870, when a strike took place under circumstances which will be hereinafter recounted.

June, 1869, the lasters in a Brockton shoe factory struck to resist a reduction of ten per cent. The movement **1869.** failed after continuing three weeks and producing a loss of about \$5,000 in wages.

The Crispins organized in Worcester in the fall of 1867, but there was no collision between the society and the manufacturers until late in 1869. In August, a few bottomers influenced their associates to take action which resulted in the employers advancing wages to prevent a strike. In October, a treer in a leading factory, who was irregular in his habits, absented himself from his work for several days. He was at last notified that if he wished to retain his job he must return at once. He promised to do so, but failing to appear, another workman, not a Crispin, was engaged in his place. Afterwards he came back and asked to be restored

to his old position. This request was refused, but another similar place was offered him. He insisted upon having his old position and would take no other. The other treers took up his cause, partially stopped their work, and made a demand to have the new workman discharged and the other reinstated. This demand was not complied with, and the men were told that they must return to work by a certain hour or leave the factory. All but two left, though the strike did not become general till December. By that time the questions growing out of the controversy had drawn the workmen throughout the city and surrounding towns into the contest. The matter of wages was not involved. The struggle was to secure the enforcement of the requirements of the Crispin order.

About the 1st of January, 1870, the manufacturers in Worcester issued the following form of contract : —

“In consideration of one dollar, to us paid by — —, the 1870. receipt of which we do hereby acknowledge, we agree to work for them on boots from this day until the first day of December, 1870, for the prices indicated by the schedule hereto annexed, payments to be made on the second and fourth Tuesdays of each month for all work done and returned up to and including the tenth day previous ; provided our rights to belong to an organization known as the Knights of St. Crispin are not interfered with by their discharging any workman for belonging to the above named organization, advocating its principles, or refusing to teach apprentices. It is further understood and agreed, that when we do not *begin and complete* the work mentioned in any of the departments of boot-making mentioned in the aforesaid schedule, we agree to receive as full compensation for the part done, the proportion of the prices mentioned that custom has established as our due.

“Witness our hand and seal, this,” etc.

To this the workmen strenuously objected, and it remained in force but a short time. January 27th, the following notice was issued by the employers : — .

BOOT MANUFACTURERS TO THE PUBLIC.

In consequence of the extraordinary measures taken to intimidate men from working for us, by the members of an organization known as “Knights of St. Crispin,” and their declarations that they are extended and powerful enough to drive all who refuse to join them from all work on boots and shoes, not only in this city, but in the “United States or Provinces,” and that they shall exercise that power unless they obey

their commands and desist from work, we feel it a duty to the public, and especially to all who desire to work for us, to make the following declarations :—

1st. That the manufacturers whose names are hereto annexed, will, under no circumstances, permit any man, or body of men, to sit in judgment upon any action of theirs in hiring or dismissing any one who is or may be in their employ.

2d. All persons who continue to work for us, whether Crispins or not, during the present disagreement between us and the workmen, or commence work while it continues, or continue to work during any future strike, shall never be displaced for the purpose of restoring to their places any persons who are "out."

3d. That it is now, and ever will be, the rule in our factories, to give persons who continue to work during any "strike," or "turnout," the preference.

4th. Crispins or others who have left our employ from choice or intimidation, can return to work, provided their places are not previously filled.

After thirteen weeks, however, during which the loss in wages through the idleness of the workmen is said to have amounted to \$175,000, and the loss to the manufacturers to have reached \$20,000, the contest terminated in a mutual agreement, as follows :—

"Both manufacturers and workmen withdraw all rules and schedules, and we (the employers) pay for bottoming the prices we paid last year, and for hand-siding, crimping, and treeing, the same prices as we offer, which are as high as are paid for the same work in any of the towns around us.

"Then the manufacturers will agree to put on their old help as fast as they need them, in preference to any new ones, unless it may be some persons that do not want to work for them. But none shall be refused employment on account of being a Crispin, or on account of any thing that has transpired since the difficulty commenced."

There was a great deal of violence threatened while the strike lasted, and some of those who continued at work were assaulted; but, on the whole, the strikers were remarkably temperate in their conduct. There was no unusual disorder or drunkenness in the city while the men were out of work. On returning to the factories, the workmen in some cases signed the following agreement, which is still in force in the larger shops :—

"The persons whose names appear in this book have agreed to work for — in accordance with the following regulations :—

“1st. That they will do an average week’s work after giving notice of their intention to leave the employ of said —, and, in case they fail to do so, will leave back one week’s pay, and will never demand the payment of the same.

“2d. That in case they are at any time discharged, they shall, at the option of said —, receive either one week’s notice or one average week’s pay, except in case their work is not done to the satisfaction of said —, when they shall be entitled to neither the one week’s notice nor the one week’s pay.”

A dispute in regard to wages culminated in another strike at the shoe factory of C. T. Sampson, North Adams, January, 1870. The rules of the Crispins had now become so obnoxious to this manufacturer that he again sought to displace some of his workmen and engage others who did not belong to the order. Finding that the influence of the organization was exerted so as to prevent this, he determined to introduce foreign labor of a kind that would not be likely to yield to this influence. Acting upon this resolve, Chinamen were brought from California to take the place of his former employés.

A reduction in wages during the following spring produced a strike at the woollen mill of B. F. Phillips & Co., South Adams. About 40 workmen were concerned in this affair, it being confined to the weavers, who demanded the restoration of their wages to former rates. At the same time, and for the same cause, a turn-out of weavers occurred at P. Blackinton’s woollen mills, South Adams. Both strikes brought defeat to the operatives, who in eight days returned to work at the rates offered.

In June, North Brookfield was the scene of a Crispin strike. Certain members of the order becoming dissatisfied, determined to pay no more money into its treasury, and refused to pay their regular dues. The employment of these men at the factory of Messrs. E. & A. H. Batcheller, after they had ceased to fulfil their obligations to the order, caused a strike on the part of some 300 other workmen, who remained out four days. The uselessness of a strike to remedy the matter being apparent, they then returned to work, having caused a loss in wages to themselves, and others forced into idleness by the strike, amounting to about \$2,000.

Meanwhile, the arbitrary course pursued by the Crispins induced several manufacturers in Lynn to enter into open resistance to the order. They soon began to hire non-union men and to reduce rates without regard to lodge rules. Committees from the workmen waited upon them and remonstrated, but with no avail. In consequence, strikes were ordered at five or six shops. The manufacturers now determined to stand together in opposition to the organization; but while a crisis was thus approaching, one of the leading employers proposed that the matter should be settled by mutual concessions in a friendly manner. In accordance with his advice, committees representing the employers and the workmen met in conference, and, after protracted meetings, fixed upon a schedule of prices to remain in force for one year. This united action brought the strikes to an end. It would have been well for all parties if the method of arbitration thus inaugurated could have been permanent; but, as will appear in subsequent pages, this was not the case.

Marlborough also had its share of labor troubles during the summer of 1870. A strike, begun in one shop to resist a reduction in wages, was afterwards carried on by the Crispins to prevent non-union men from working. Other factories were soon involved; but, with one exception, the contest terminated within two weeks. A single manufacturer made a determined stand against Crispin dictation for four months, and at last started his factory chiefly with new men.

This year also witnessed another severe struggle in Fall River. The manufacturers in that city considered the business prospects, and decided that the mills could not be carried on with sufficient profit at wages then paid, cotton being 20 cents per pound, and cloth but $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents per yard. A reduction of from six to ten per cent was ordered, to take effect July 6th. This brought on a general strike, beginning July 21st, the spinners turning out. The manufacturers, while being willing to treat with their own employés, refused to recognize in any way the Spinners' Union. Disorderly conduct on the part of the strikers or their sympathizers, and the fear of still more serious disturbances, induced the employers to have a detachment of State police brought to

the city. The operatives claimed then, and indeed still assert, that this precaution was entirely unnecessary, and calculated to increase the trouble rather than to diminish it. On Tuesday, Sept. 7th, committees of the spinners had interviews with their respective employers; but the latter would only agree to employ them at the reduced rates, which the spinners declined to receive. Some of the mills started early in September, however, and the strike terminated by the twentieth of that month. It was a complete failure; the reduced rates were everywhere accepted. But the bitter feeling born of it still remained, and afterwards had its effect in the disagreements between the manufacturers and their operatives.

The nail-makers employed by the Weymouth Iron Company, at Weymouth and Wareham, struck July 1st, on account of a ten per cent reduction. The manufacturers claimed to have lost money at the rates formerly paid, and that they could not compete with other makers if such prices were continued. The reduction affected nailers and puddlers only, and it was a cause of dissatisfaction to these workmen that others were exempt from it. The strike continued until Feb. 1, 1871, and ended in the defeat of the workmen. In this, as in the nailers' strike of 1864, the loss in wages was heavy, but the exact amount cannot be estimated, as the nail mills concerned usually shut down during the summer for a time, and probably would have done so this year had no strike occurred.

October, 1870, 40 weavers left their work at the Germania Mills, Holyoke. Their object was to obtain an increase of pay, but this they failed to accomplish. They were told that they might consider the matter, and if they desired to return within three days at the prices they were receiving prior to the strike, they might do so; otherwise, their places would be filled with new men. They decided to return. No inconvenience was caused to their employers.

During the same month, the laborers in one department of the Quinsigamond Wire Works, Worcester, struck on account of the removal of the scales used for weighing their work to another part of the building. They distrusted the weigher, and feared that their work was not fairly weighed.

About 100 men participated in the strike, which, although quite brief, was attended with violence. Other workmen, engaged in the place of the strikers, were stoned and otherwise assaulted.

The men had a union, but it was broken up by the failure of the strike. Most of the former employés were allowed to come back under an agreement never again to engage in a similar movement.

The knitters in a hosiery factory at Needham stopped work in October under the following circumstances. The employers had determined to suspend operations in the fall for their own purposes. Meantime, other manufacturers decided upon a reduction and asked them to join in carrying it out. They consented, chiefly because they were about to close their factory. No previous communication was had with the workmen, who, disliking the course taken, went out. When business was resumed, satisfactory terms were made with the men.

A shoemakers' strike at Randolph this year was for increase of wages, and was brought about through the influence of the Crispin lodge. It failed after four weeks.¹

Of the strikes in 1871, one at Lynn was caused by an obnoxious rule of the employers, against which the female stitchers rebelled. The girls called a meeting and voted not to comply with this rule; and it was soon revoked.

At Stoneham 300 Daughters of St. Crispin, employed as machine-operators, asked for an increase in the prices paid for certain work. This increase was at first granted, but afterwards withheld. Upon this the operatives immediately left the factories, remaining out two weeks. Two of the leaders were unable to obtain work again in the town. The others accepted the rates offered.

In May the weavers at the Danvers Carpet Factory, Danvers, demanded more pay and a strike was contemplated. The employers closed the mill one week, and then resumed work; but the weavers remained out thirteen weeks, after

¹ The details of the strikes at Randolph, Fall River, Lynn, North Adams, Worcester, Marlborough, Weymouth, and Needham, during 1870, are more fully presented in the Report of this Bureau for 1871, pp. 274-277.

which the old prices were accepted. The loss in wages was about \$3,000.¹

It had been customary at a New Bedford tannery for the men to stop work on Saturdays at five P.M., thus causing a loss to the employers of sixty minutes per week. To make up for this loss, the employés were directed to begin work ten minutes earlier than usual each afternoon. Against this arrangement they struck; but in less than a week the matter was settled in favor of the employers, the men having lost over \$300 by idleness.

During August some of the boot-bottomers in Worcester and the neighboring town of West Boylston, struck for an advance in wages of fifty cents per case. Some of the manufacturers granted their demands; others suspended business for a time.

The chief strike of the year occurred in the fall among the plasterers in Boston. This was for an increase of wages, and continued seventeen weeks, during which 150 men were idle, losing about \$45,000 in wages. The contest was at last ended by a compromise, the employers granting part of the increase demanded.

The gingham weavers employed by the Renfrew Manufacturing Company, South Adams, struck in 1872. The trouble was caused by a reduction in the wages of the fine weavers, who turned out in resistance Tuesday, Jan. 1872. 9. The looms were then re-distributed, giving the coarse weavers both coarse and fine work. To this the coarse weavers objected and also left. The number thus out—being all employed in the weaving-room of the mills—was about 175. The strike continued about two weeks. The weavers then returned upon the terms offered by the company. Their loss in wages for the fortnight amounted to about \$2,600.

The comparative harmony brought about by arbitration in the shoe trade at Lynn was broken this year by a recurrence of the old troubles. Bitter feelings between the workmen and the manufacturers still existed, although repressed; and new disputes now occurred which the parties could not

¹ These strikes at Lynn, Stoneham, and Danvers are reviewed at greater length in the Report of this Bureau for 1872, pp. 9-12.

peaceably settle. Crispinism had lost something of its hold over its members, and the unity of action necessary for the continuance of the plan of arbitration did not exist on either side. The trouble grew more serious as the season progressed, and resulted in open outbreak during June, the hands in thirty-five shops stopping work.

Although the nominal cause of this strike was the rate of wages paid, it now became evident that the underlying question to be decided by its success or failure concerned the very existence of the Crispin organization. The manufacturers immediately united, and the struggle soon became one that could only end in absolute defeat to one side or the other, — compromise was now out of the question.

The details of this contest are fully given in a previous report of this Bureau,¹ and will not be repeated here. The manufacturers in some instances transferred their business to other places. Others secured new help, or succeeded in re-engaging their former workmen in spite of the influence of the Crispin order. Under these circumstances the strike at last ended, Aug. 24th, in favor of the employers; and soon after the Crispin organization in Lynn was entirely abandoned.

The employment of non-union men, against which Crispinism had set its face from the very first, produced a short but decisive struggle in Brockton ere the close of the summer; and this, like that in Lynn, resulted in the defeat of the workmen, and the complete destruction of the local organization.

In 1873, 400 coopers in Boston engaged in a strike for three weeks. It is asserted that a certain firm in the city, which desired to control one branch of the business, secretly made trouble in the other shops. The Coopers' Union was finally broken up, and the strike failed after causing a loss of about \$15,000 in wages. A similar result attended a strike of horse-shoers in the same city this year, although the movement was at first successful. It began with the men in three shops belonging to the Metropolitan Horse Railroad, but afterwards became more or less general throughout the city. At that time a strong union existed

¹ For the year 1887, pp. 31-40.

among these workmen, and, after being idle three weeks, an advance in wages of about ten per cent was allowed them. Within two months thereafter the Metropolitan Company discharged 18 men who had taken part in the strike, and decided to employ no more members of the union. Other employers took the same stand, and the union was forced to dissolve. It has never been renewed.

Late in the year, the employés at the cigar manufactory of Waterman & Beckman, Westfield, left their work and remained out about two months. This action is said to have resulted from the employment of some Bohemians by the firm mentioned. After the strike, the employers attempted to engage new men in New York, but the influence of the union prevented. At length most of the old hands returned to work. A few found employment elsewhere. The loss in wages during the strike is estimated at \$2,100.

In the fall of 1873 came the memorable financial panic, followed by the extreme business depression which has continued until the present year, 1879. A general decline in wages at once took place. This decline was accepted in the hope that it would be temporary only; but, after the opening of the year 1874, no prospect appearing of a voluntary increase on the part of the employers, strikes occurred in several factories to force a return to prices previously paid. As might have been predicted, these were generally failures. Trade was constantly decreasing in volume, and the outlook was not encouraging. In spite of this, however, the operatives at various woollen mills in North Adams, after contesting the matter three days, early in January, succeeded in obtaining a slight advance in wages. We have no other such instance to record. In February, the **1874.** female weavers in one department of the Lyman Mills, Holyoke, demanded an increase of pay, and to obtain it struck work. Next day some of the spinners joined them. No great inconvenience was caused to the manufacturers and the strike finally died out: some of the former operatives returning to work, others finding employment elsewhere. March 16th, 625 employés of the Assabet Manufacturing Company, Maynard, comprising all classes of woollen factory operatives, struck against the reduction of wages, remaining

out twelve days. Then, having lost \$9,000 in wages, they submitted to the reduction and resumed work. The mule-spinners at the mills of the Blackstone Manufacturing Company, Blackstone, struck for an advance before the close of the year. On account of this, 800 employés were idle two weeks, losing wages amounting to about \$10,000. The spinners then gave up the contest.

In Chicopee about 35 mule-spinners left their work to secure an increase, but returned, after two weeks, at the old rates. No suspension of work in other departments was caused by the strike.

Other industries besides the textile trades suffered from strikes during the year. The workmen in a morocco manufactory at Lynn, being refused more pay, immediately stopped work. Their example was quickly followed by others of their craft until the strike was general throughout the city and neighboring towns. In many cases the men went off leaving the skins in the tanks, although they knew that unless speedily cared for they would spoil. One manufacturer had several thousand dollars' worth abandoned in this way, and, like others similarly situated, only saved himself from heavy loss by his personal exertions and the aid of green hands whom he obtained. The strike resulted in the defeat of the workmen, who returned to work in about three weeks. The loss in wages was about \$20,000. There were several small strikes in the Lynn shoe factories also, continuing from three days to two weeks each. None of these were successful.

A strike, under somewhat peculiar circumstances, occurred at the Waltham Bleachery, Waltham, in 1874. Previously, the discipline there had been very lax. The latitude allowed was injurious in its effect upon the employés, and interfered with the success of the establishment. Upon the appointment of a new agent, it was determined to improve the condition of things in this respect; but the employés opposed the new regulations and left in a body, including many of the overseers and the operatives in a hosiery factory under the same management. Riotous and disorderly conduct accompanied the strike. Efforts were made to induce the employés in the cotton mills at Waltham, owned by the

same corporation, to join in resistance to the new agent. The strikers were firmly met by the manufacturers who were not unwilling to make a complete change of help and thereby put the establishment upon a better footing. The former employés were ordered out of the tenements owned by the company, and in three days the trouble was over. All who were in any way instrumental in causing it were refused employment, and not one-third of the hands in the works at that time are now in the service of the company.

As a result of the regulations to which the employés objected, the condition of the works has been much improved. Much has been done to discountenance intemperance. No one is retained who is addicted to intoxication, after fair opportunity has been given him to improve his habits. The workmen are given to understand that every agreement made with them will be kept, and in return good conduct is required on their part. The yard has been fenced, and tastefully laid out with grass-plots and walks. The tenements of the operatives, also, have been improved. By their action in resisting rules intended for the mutual benefit of employers and employed, most of the strikers lost their situations, and the improved condition of things is now enjoyed by others.

The depression in business became so serious in the fall of 1874 that many textile manufacturers materially shortened their production. Prior to Jan. 1, 1875, the Fall River mills were running on three-quarters time only. It was proposed to reduce wages ten per cent, and resume full time at the beginning of the year. The operatives held meetings and considered the means to be employed to resist the reduction. Saturday evening, Dec. 26, 1874, the spinners adopted resolutions pledging themselves to strike, provided 1,000 operatives would join them, and appointed a committee to confer with the employers. The committee performed the duty assigned to them; but the manufacturers claimed that the condition of business demanded a reduction; that it was impossible to run the mills at prices then paid for labor, and that they must either be stopped altogether or wages reduced. The weavers also held meetings to consider the matter.

At an adjourned meeting of the spinners it was voted to accept the wages offered, under protest, it being thought inadvisable to strike until spring. The weavers were not satisfied with the position in which they were placed; but their organization being imperfect, it was decided, at a mass meeting held Jan. 9th, to take measures toward strengthening it. On the 15th the Weavers' Union held a meeting; one by the female weavers followed on the evening of the 16th. The outcome of these meetings was a decision to strike at the Merchants', Granite and Crescent mills, after two weeks' notice. The spinners, also the card and picker operatives, agreed to stand by the weavers.

Just before the expiration of the two weeks, the weavers asked for a conference with the manufacturers, to see if some arrangement could not be made whereby the strike might be averted. A proposition was made to the operatives to restore one-third of the ten per cent reduction; but this was not accepted, and the strike began at the mills above mentioned on the first of February. During the continuance of the contest, slight disturbances occurred at other mills. At one, the employment of an operative from one of the struck mills caused a temporary turn-out of weavers. At others, turn-outs took place because some of the employés refused to pay the tax levied for the support of the strikers. The situation remaining unchanged for the better, a strike was ordered at three more mills — the Sagamore, Stafford and Chace. These closed about March 1st.

The manufacturers in the city had combined, and agreed to pay to the corporations affected by the strike a portion of the loss incurred by them, and to jointly resist the strikers. Business now began to show signs of reviving, and most of the mills soon had full orders, with prospects of good trade ahead. The weavers, at a meeting held about March 12, voted that if the employers would agree to pay twenty-seven cents per cut — the old price — by April 1, they would return to work until that time at the rates offered. Similar action was taken by the spinners, and the strike terminated on that basis with apparently good feelings on both sides. The loss in wages caused by the strike is placed at about \$90,000. It was understood by the operatives, be-

fore going to work, that no discrimination would be made against any one on account of participation in the strike; and this understanding was observed by the employers in good faith, except in the case of one man — a weaver, especially prominent in the cause of the workingmen — who was never able to get employment afterwards. The union would have ordered a strike at the mill in which this weaver formerly worked; but, as he objected, this action was not taken.

Wages were advanced, as agreed, April 1, and for a while business continued brisk. The revival was temporary, however, and the market soon became unusually dull. The question of reduction was again broached. It was found that the depression existed throughout New England, and that everywhere wages were lower than in Fall River. It was at length decided to reduce to the rates contemplated prior to the strike of February; and, as a protective measure, the manufacturers determined that the reduction should be general, and, if a partial strike occurred, to follow it by a lock-out at every other mill.

The employés were now well organized. The union had a large membership, supporting a paid secretary, his salary being fifteen dollars per week, and two collectors, each paid eleven dollars per week. The result of the previous contest they considered in their favor, and were in no wise disposed to submit to a reduction. They held that a reduction of wages would not overcome the depression in business. They believed the dull market to be caused by over-production, and advocated entire cessation from work as the remedy to be applied. They preferred to stay out four weeks rather than submit to a reduction, arguing that the decrease of production thus caused would deplete the market and strengthen prices.

It was pointed out to them that one month's idleness would cause them greater loss than would ensue in a year from the reduced rates; and at least one of their leading advisers urged acceptance of the situation; but it was finally decided to take a four weeks' "vacation." This caused entire suspension of work at the mills throughout the city for one month.

At the end of that time most of the operatives wished to return to work. Some among them, however, were in favor of remaining out still longer. Their voluntary vacation had not produced the desired effect. The market was still dull. Prices had not advanced. The manufacturers did not care to start their machinery, and while among the workpeople the advisability of returning to work was being discussed, they said to their employes: "You took four weeks' vacation for your purposes; we will now take four more for our own." And, except at the King Philip Mills, nothing was done for another month.

Early in October, the operatives having been idle eight weeks, during which their earnings would have amounted to \$700,000, the employers gave notice that work would be resumed at the reduced rates, and the mills were started on that basis. The operatives were required to sign an agreement binding themselves to join no association in which individual members were to be governed by the will of the majority in regard to wages or hours of labor.

During February, 1875, the union tailors employed by Messrs. J. R. & A. T. Burditt, Boston, left their work, in obedience to the order of the union, on account of objection to the scale of prices. The strike failed to accomplish any thing for the workmen, others being engaged in their places.

In March, a miners' strike occurred at the Lanesborough Iron Works, Lanesborough, among men employed in the ore-bed. About 20 men were concerned in the movement. By direction of the agent, the ore-bed was temporarily closed and the strikers discharged. The leaders were never again employed, but the others were given work, when it was resumed, at old rates. A few weavers at the Millbury Cotton Mills, Millbury, engaged in a short and unsuccessful strike during the same month.

In March, also, a combined strike and lock-out took place at the Merchants Woollen Mills, Dedham. This trouble was caused by the attempt of the company to run more than ten hours per day. In October, 1874, the ten-hour plan had been adopted, and, on account of this, it was claimed, no profits were made. In March, therefore, notice was given that the mills would be run sixty hours per week for women

and children, but that men would be required to work sixty-five and one-half. The operatives refused to consent to this, and the employers as firmly declined to run the mills until their terms were acceded to. They claimed that they did not intend to take any unfair advantage of their operatives, being willing that women and children should leave early on Saturdays. They could not run the mills at a profit under the ten-hour system, but were willing to pay in proportion to the increased time. The operatives distrusted their motives, and influences outside the mills were brought to bear upon them to induce them to hold out against their employers. After two weeks, the hands nearly all returned and consented to work upon the company's terms. Their loss in wages for the fortnight was about \$6,000.

As we have seen, the result of the strike at Fall River in the spring was considered a victory by the operatives; and the advance in wages there on the 1st of April was immediately followed by strikes at Newburyport and Lowell. Each of these seems to have been incited by Fall River influences. Delegates from that city had assisted in the formation of a union in Newburyport, and a request was made by the weavers for more pay. Certain corporations consented to increase wages somewhat, but others refused. It was arranged to strike at the Ocean Mills, unless the required advance should be granted. The support of the operatives in the other mills was pledged to the strikers, and liberal aid guaranteed from abroad. Wednesday, April 7, some of the spinners and weavers at the Ocean Mills left their work. The leaders in the affair were of English birth. About 350 operatives were employed at these mills. The strikers were immediately discharged by the corporation, and some of the other operatives left. On Friday, April 9, about thirty-five per cent of the full number came in when the mill started. On the following Monday about one-third of the spinners and weavers were at work.

A meeting of the strikers was held April 23d. A report of this meeting, given in "The Newburyport Herald," states that the secretary announced the receipt of aid from Fall River to the amount of one hundred and fifty dollars, and that a resolve was passed taxing the weavers in the other

mills of the city twenty-five cents a loom per month and other operatives five per cent of their earnings for the support of the strike.

The condition of the labor market was such, however, that the vacant places were rapidly filled; so that, on Monday, May 17, out of five hundred and seventy-three looms, four hundred and fifty were running, and not long after the strike terminated. It had continued about six weeks, the operatives affected by it losing \$8,000 in wages. At its close, all whose places had not been filled by new hands, returned to work on their employers' terms. The others left town.

A letter to the Lowell "Vox Populi" from a resident of Newburyport, contains the following:—

"The help were told that they should receive as much while out as they would at work, if they would strike; but a division of funds was made on Thursday, and, after deducting the expenses of the treasurer and president, whose charges amounted to two hundred and fifty dollars, allowed the rest of them four dollars apiece, or sixty-seven cents per week. . . . There are several instances where persons have lost four, five, or six weeks' board by boarding strikers, one woman in particular losing forty dollars."

In Lowell, the order for a strike came from the Mule-Spinners' Association of the United States, and after receiving notice in regard to it, the manufacturers, finding that it was proposed to follow the plan observed at Fall River, and strike at a few mills only, caused the following notice to be posted in every mill:—

"The mule-spinners of Lowell having combined together with a foreign association to coerce their employers to raise their wages, and having made a peremptory demand therefor, and to carry out their purposes, having voted to 'bring out the Lawrence and Massachusetts companies on a strike,' and those of them employed by these companies having given notice that they should quit work on the 12th instant, notice is hereby given that if said spinners shall execute their threat by quitting work accordingly, the services of mule-spinners in the employment of this company will not be required on and after the 14th instant."

The foregoing notice brought out resolutions from the spinners, who, like the leaders in the Newburyport strike, were mostly English, offering free passage to England to all who might be thus discharged; and stating that they were

not forced to strike by the national association, but that it simply endorsed their action.

The strike began Monday, April 13, — the lock-out of spinners at the mills not affected by it following the next day, — and continued six weeks. During this time the manufacturers carried on the mills with the assistance of new hands, and by the use of ring-spinning. Production, it is estimated, was diminished nearly one-half; and this would cause a loss in wages to employés of about \$200,000. The spinners at last abandoned their position, and returned voluntarily. The employers declined to receive the leaders, and some of the others also lost their places permanently, no new hand being removed to make room for a returning striker. Here, as in Fall River, the operatives signed an agreement renouncing the union.

A small strike for higher wages at the Leigh Mills, Roxbury, during April, resulted in defeat to the workmen. It was largely due to Fall River influences.

The weavers at the Scantic Mills, Wilbraham, left without notice April 12, a reduction having been ordered by the employers. The strike ended in a compromise April 21st. A brief strike in one department of the Potomska Mills, New Bedford, in April, was for higher wages, and resulted successfully to the operatives concerned. Later in the year some of the speeder-tenders at this mill left their work on being refused an increase of pay.

Before the close of the month, the laborers employed upon the small railway tunnel at North Adams demanded higher wages, and were at once discharged. A new force of men was engaged. The strikers assailed the new comers with stones, and sought to drive them away, but without success. While the Hoosac Tunnel was in process of construction, numerous similar strikes occurred; but of these no record remains. They were usually accompanied with rioting and considerable destruction of property, but generally resulted in the defeat of the workmen.

A small strike of plasterers in Boston is recorded this year. The contest continued three weeks, and was partially successful.

In December, 1875, the Crispin organization was once

more revived in Lynn, and during the following year a board of arbitration acting in its behalf amicably settled several disputes between the manufacturers and workmen. One strike occurred nevertheless, on account of the refusal of a leading manufacturer to confer with the Crispins. After vainly trying to settle the point at issue, the board ordered the men to finish the work they had in hand, and then to leave the shop. This strike caused much ill feeling. Mobs surrounded the shop each evening, hissing and hooting, and indulging in disorderly conduct. This state of things continued about two weeks, when a compromise ended the trouble.

Shoemakers' strikes took place in Hudson during the summer. The lasters in the employ of Messrs. Stowe, Bills & Whitney, 30 in number, being refused increase of pay, at once left the factory. The firm immediately advertised for lasters to fill the places of the strikers; but new men were prevented from going to work by the arguments and threats of the old hands, who placed themselves in front of the store of their former employers in Boston, and near the factory in Hudson, so as to intercept applicants and induce them to retire. Finding it impossible to secure new lasters in the face of such opposition, the manufacturers determined on another course. Two men were secured to act as instructors, and others were advertised for to learn the business. A shower of applications was received. Those desiring to enter the factory were informed of the state of affairs, and given to understand that only determined men, who were neither afraid of threats nor covert sympathizers with the strikers, were wanted. Of such the required number was selected, and thus the factory was opened, and the strike overcome.

While this strike was pending, 28 lasters at the shop of L. T. Jefts struck for higher wages. This factory was closed for a few weeks, and then started with new men. The strikers attempted to drive the new hands away. Stones were thrown, and windows broken, for which some arrests were made, and one offender afterwards sent to the House of Correction. The strikers, finding themselves defeated, gave up the contest. The loss in wages by these strikes is estimated at \$14,000.

A disagreement as to hours of labor caused a strike at the Blackinton Mills, Williamstown, and the Glen, and North Adams Woollen Mills, North Adams, this same year. The operatives claimed that, while they were paid for three-quarters of a day, the mills were actually running forty-five minutes longer than legitimate three-quarters time. They asked to have either full time or exact three-quarters time adopted.

In answer, the manufacturers maintained that no higher wages could be given, and that it was chiefly for the benefit of the employés that a change had been made from the still shorter time previously run. To offset this benefit, they desired to run the extra three-quarters of an hour, as it could be done without materially increasing the cost of fuel, oil, etc.

The operatives at Blackinton Village left first, and, after a few days, induced those at the other mills to follow their example. They were now informed that unless they were willing to work under the existing arrangement, the mills would be closed entirely; and they finally decided to return to work. They incurred a loss of \$10,000 in wages.

On the 12th of February, 1877, the engineers and firemen in the employ of the Boston and Maine Railroad stopped work, leaving their engines wherever they happened to be. This course was taken by them after two hours' notice to the officers of the company, and in consequence of the refusal of a demand for increase of pay. Necessarily great inconvenience was caused to the public through the disarrangement of trains. Freight trains were entirely withdrawn for several days, and great confusion existed in the operation of the road.

It being evident that public interests were involved, the State Board of Railroad Commissioners investigated the trouble, and made their conclusions the subject of a special report to the Legislature, — 1877, House Doc., No. 102, — which may be consulted for a detailed account of the affair. A brief summary only will be given here. The facts, as brought out by the investigations, were these: As a measure of economy, the railroad reduced the pay of its officials and employés ten per cent, from and after Jan. 15, 1876. On account of dissatisfaction caused by this reduction, the engi-

neers consulted the chief official of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers — a union of which they were members — as to the proper course to be pursued; but nothing further was done until February, 1877. It was supposed by the officers of the company that the matter was settled, as everything seemed quiet. The discontent among the men still continued however, and in February a formal demand was made for increase of wages. After a friendly interview between the parties, the request was not complied with. At length the grand chief of the brotherhood came to Boston and solicited an interview with the president of the company. This was refused, on the ground that the officers were unwilling to recognize a third party in the controversy. After further unsuccessful parley, the men concluded to resort to a strike, which took place as above related. The pay of the engineers on this road, up to the time of the reduction, had steadily increased for fifteen years, and, after reduction, remained fully up to the average paid throughout the country. The strike seemed entirely unjustifiable, and was regarded by the commissioners as “little better than a wanton exhibition of power.” It resulted in the final discharge of all the men concerned in it, some of whom had been in the employ of the company for many years. For a few days the strikers made desperate efforts to induce the new men who were engaged, to leave. Violence was resorted to in but few cases, chief reliance being placed on threats, bribes and persuasions. By February 16th the running of freight trains was resumed, and the defeat of the strikers assured.

During the month, a strike at one of the shoe factories in Lynn resulted in failure, after a struggle of ten days and a loss of \$3,000 in wages. The workmen concerned in it were given work at former prices.

February 15th, the Wamsutta Corporation, New Bedford, closed its mills to prevent a contemplated strike. A reduction had been ordered of ten per cent from wages previously paid. This was made necessary by the condition of business. After notice of the reduction had been given, the price of print cloth at Fall River advanced slightly, and the operatives there began to move for increase of pay. This tended

to make the employés at the Wamsutta Mills distrust the necessity for the proposed reduction. Fall River influences stimulated them to resist, and a strike was threatened. The advance in print cloth above noted did not help matters in New Bedford, of course, where a different class of goods is made; indeed, the market in Fall River soon changed, and prices declined.

Knowing that a strike was likely to occur, and preferring not to run the mills rather than continue at prices then paid, the directors determined on a lock-out, and the mills were closed. Ten weeks afterwards they were re-opened, and the machinery started. Large numbers gathered with the intent of preventing those of the operatives who wished to return to work from doing so. Several arrests were made. In about three days the mills were in full operation. During the ten weeks the operatives lost \$140,000 in wages.

In February, also, a turn-out of spinners occurred at the Glasgow Mills, South Hadley, brought about by changes in the management of the spinning department. The operatives remained out about a week, and then, with a few exceptions, submitted to the change introduced.

In August, 51 employés at the Uxbridge Woollen Mills, Uxbridge, dissatisfied with their wages, went out on a strike. The contest lasted three weeks, producing a probable loss to all affected by it of \$2,000 in wages.

In December a strike began among the cigar makers employed by the Huck Manufacturing Company, Springfield. The influence of the New York Union was the underlying cause. It was intended to follow it by similar movements in other factories, had it been successful. The workmen demanded an increase of pay per thousand, and the strike continued about three months. At its close, as many men as the company desired went to work at the old rates. The wages of the strikers varied, but are thought to have averaged \$9 per week; and, at this rate, the loss in wages would amount to about \$5,850.

During the latter part of December, 1877, a reduction was made in the wages of the lasters at three shoe factories in Lynn. The board of arbitration representing the Crispins objected, but without avail, and by its

advice the men stopped work, causing entire suspension of business at these establishments. The manufacturers throughout the city now conferred together, and determined to take some action to resist the future interference of the Crispins in their business. Their decision was met by a remonstrance from the order, condemning the "unwise, unnatural, unbusiness-like competition between the manufacturers," and reproaching them for not recognizing the board of arbitration.

The workmen in other shops now joined the strike, and the employers adopted what was termed an "iron-clad" resolution, giving notice that, after Monday, Jan. 14th, "no person subject to or under the control of any organization claiming the power to interfere with any contract between employer and employé" would be employed by them. This had the effect of a lock-out at the other factories, and the trouble became general. The strike thus assumed the form of the contest of 1872; the life of the organization was the real question involved, and neither party seemed disposed to make any concession.

As in the former strike, the manufacturers immediately began to hire new men, while some removed their business to other towns where they could be free from outside interference. The Crispins were equally energetic in striving to keep other workmen away from the city and in otherwise hampering the efforts of their former employers.

Early in February one manufacturer compromised with his men, and they went to work. His course was condemned by his associates, who apparently were resolved to yield nothing. Some of the new workmen were assaulted by the strikers, and, although these acts were denounced by the Crispin order, fifty extra policemen were appointed to prevent their recurrence.

On the 12th of February the employers modified the iron-clad resolutions as follows:—

"On and after this date, all bargains or contracts for prices of work shall be made and kept between employer and employés, without interference from any organization or third party. Any person taking work in this shop thereby consents to the conditions of the above."

This manifesto was at first distrusted by the workmen; but they were at last convinced that it contained nothing inimical to the organization. The meaning of the manufacturers was explained to be this: The right of the workmen to combine for mutual protection was recognized. The employés were to have perfect liberty to consult with the board of arbitration, and to fix upon a standard of prices; and the employers would conform to such standard as far as possible. But, after the prices were agreed upon, "the workmen were to live up to their agreement, and allow no outside or third party, no obligation to society or board, to make them break the contract." This explanation was, upon the whole, satisfactory to the men, and the strike terminated. The loss in wages during the struggle is estimated at \$250,000. At its close, though both parties claimed a partial victory, it is nevertheless true that the power and influence of the Crispin organization was broken. Very soon afterward reductions were made in several shops, to which the hands felt it best to submit; and once more Crispinism practically ceased to exist in Lynn.

Dull business at the Beaver Cotton Mill, North Adams, induced the owners to contemplate a reduction of ten per cent in wages during the spring of 1878. The necessity for it was explained to the operatives, and it was proposed to them to carry on the mill at these rates two months, or until May 1st, as an experiment, trusting that by that time business would improve.

While many of the operatives were willing to consent to this arrangement, and wished to remain at work, about one-half of those employed refused to go on. This caused entire suspension of work for eight weeks, during which the loss in wages was about \$4,000. As long as the strike continued, the help were sustained by contributions from the employés at other mills in the vicinity. Some left town in search of employment. By May 1st, those who remained desired to go to work, and the mill was started on reduced rates.

A brief strike of weavers, caused by a misunderstanding as to the price of certain work, occurred at the Chace Mills, Fall River, in April; and a strike of females employed in

making warp for ingrain carpets by the Lowell Manufacturing Company, Lowell, during the same month. Each of these troubles was of small account, and quickly settled. In the first case the cause of the strike was removed; in the last, which was brought about by resistance to a reduction of wages, the operatives concerned were at once discharged.

In the summer, the granite cutters in Quincy struck for higher wages. They had previously given three months' notice of their intention, and finished all the work on hand, so that the employers might make contracts on the new basis. The latter however refused to accede to their terms, and, consequently, about 400 workmen left their work. The strike lasted eleven weeks and ended in a compromise. The loss in wages was about \$40,000.

A brief strike under Crispin influences at Natick ended in failure, about 100 men being idle for a week. Much more serious was the Crispin strike at Marlborough this year. This trouble began in five of the leading factories in consequence of a reduction in wages. While it still continued, the Crispin organization ordered the bottomers in the shop of Abel Howe to stop work. Mr. Howe had in his employ several non-union men, and this seems to have been the reason for this order. New bottomers were at once engaged. The stitchers now left the factory. In this emergency, a number of married women, who had formerly worked for this manufacturer, offered their services as stitchers, and were employed by him.

If the new workmen appeared on the street they were followed by a mob of men and boys. Insulting epithets were openly applied to them. After dark they were subject to assault. Pistols, stones, and clubs were freely used; and the protection of the police was required to ensure their safety.

The Crispins held meetings and denounced the rioting and violence. They declared that such demonstrations did not proceed from them, and called upon all members of the order to preserve the peace.

Concerning the contest, one manufacturer says, —

“At the end of the previous season, I had made up my mind that I would never again be dictated to by the Crispins as I had been when in a tight place with my orders. When this season opened my lasters

wanted the same price as that of last year. It was thirty-three per cent more than I was willing to pay. I pointed out to them, that by the introduction of skiving, moulding, and other machines, the work had been changed. They, however, refused to continue. I then started for the north. I engaged new men in Farmington, Wolfborough, and other New Hampshire towns."

His course was followed by others. The strike ended in a complete breaking up of the Crispin organization. Manufacturers would hire no one who belonged to it. The struggle had lasted nearly three months, and the wages forfeited through idleness are estimated at \$200,000.

It is the opinion of leading employers that the end would have come much sooner had they been more united, and inspired with greater confidence in each other. The strike was accompanied by an unusual amount of disorderly conduct, and not even the smallest advantage was secured by it for the workmen.

This year, also, a strike at the Putnam Nail Mills, Neponset, resulted from a change in the method of payment of employés. Concerning this, it is said that an arrangement was proposed under which the men should work by the piece instead of by the day. That to this the poorest workmen objected, and, by influencing the others, produced a strike. Work at the mills was suspended nearly five weeks. Twenty-five new hands were engaged, and of the 40 who went out on the strike, fully one-half were idle for three or four months. Most of them were at last taken back.

In August, 1878, the cigar makers in the employ of a firm in Westfield, demanded higher wages, but, after contesting the point eight weeks and losing \$2,100 by idleness, they returned to work at the old rates.

In March of the present year, 30 workmen at one of the tack factories in Taunton refused to work at reduced rates. The works were closed three weeks, after which the hands accepted the terms offered, and business **1879.** was resumed. At another factory, under similar circumstances, the old employés were discharged and new men engaged.

In May, 20 weavers at the Potomska Mills, New Bedford, struck on account of dissatisfaction with the price paid for a

certain class of work. New men were at once put in their places.

Later in the year, a reduction in wages was proposed at the Williston Mills, Easthampton, amounting to about five per cent. This would have brought them down to the rates ruling in other mills in the vicinity. The spinners objected, and threatened to strike. To avoid this, the agent offered to compromise, naming a price about three and a half per cent less than he was then paying. This was not satisfactory, and the spinners left the mills, causing a stoppage of machinery for five weeks, and a loss in wages to all idle of about \$7,500. The agent remaining firm, the spinners then returned and accepted his terms: three and a half per cent reduction from former rates, or \$1.40 per day.

A few small strikes occurred at some of the shoe factories in Lynn, Natick, and other shoe towns, during the summer, part being successful and others failing. They were all of minor importance and require no extended notice. The boot makers in North Brookfield, and about 100 lasters in Hopkinton, also engaged in brief contests for higher wages, but nothing was accomplished in either case. In the latter town, new workmen gradually filled the places of the strikers.

The bottomers at three boot shops in Worcester demanded higher pay June 15th. Their employers would not accede to this demand, and the men remained out two weeks, causing a loss in wages of \$10,000, most of which fell on other workmen. In August, some 60 French Canadians, employed as grinders at the works of the Douglas Axe Company, Douglas, struck for an advance of ten per cent. The strike failed after two weeks, no concession being made by the employers, who, from the first, had promised to grant such an advance as soon as the price of goods would permit.

At the Hudson Iron Company's mines, West Stockbridge, the men, 125 in number, stopped work August 1st, demanding an advance of twelve and one-half cents per day. The prices previously paid ranged from \$1 to \$1.87 per day, and at these rates the entire force had been kept at work through the dull season at actual loss to the company. The men are furnished a tenement, with garden attached, the rental

being \$1.80 per month. Opportunity is given to keep a cow and poultry, and fuel is supplied at cost. The company had intended to raise the wages of their men to the desired point, on the 15th of the month; but the strike having occurred, it was thought best to allow it on the 8th, and the employés then returned to work.

It was understood as part of the compromise entered into in settlement of the Quincy granite-cutters' strike in 1878, that when any non-union man employed at under pay left the yard in which he then worked, he was not to be engaged elsewhere. This year one employer violated this agreement, and his men stopped work. The majority of the other employers united and refused to longer hire members of the union. The workmen are firmly united, and resolved to maintain their position. The state of things thus brought about continues at the present writing (October 20), with no prospect of concessions on either side. The last report of the Quincy Granite-Cutters' Union, issued October 1, says, —

“ The situation here remains about the same as in last report. Many of the men have left town, some of them never to return, having procured better jobs elsewhere. We have a grocery store started, and in good running order; and supply the families of those of our members locked out who need it. Our outside trade has far exceeded our expectations. Trade increases every day; and our best thanks are due to our outside friends for the assistance thus rendered. And, with but a few drawing aid, we can hold the fort for a long time. The men are solid and determined; and we have no doubt we shall come out all right.”

October 18th, the workmen in a morocco factory at Lynn struck against the introduction of new machinery, but without success. Not more than 20 men left their work, and their places were filled with green hands. During the same month, the journeymen tailors in the employ of William Taylor & Co., Boston, struck work to force their employers to comply with the demands of the union, involving an advance in the prices of certain work. It is claimed by the firm that prices have always ruled as high in its shop as elsewhere, and that the question of wages was not the cause of the strike. It was brought about simply by its refusal to submit to the dictation of the union. The Tailors' Union has from time to time submitted a schedule of prices which

the employers have been required to sign. Their demands have usually been complied with, but occasionally trifling strikes have occurred in certain shops on account of variations from the standard. These have been small affairs and have not been made matters of record. Ten or twelve years ago—the date could not be exactly fixed—the leading tailors contemplated resisting the union, whose requirements they considered arbitrary; but they finally agreed to its terms, except the firm above named, which refused to sign the schedule. Its workmen left the shop, remaining out some three months. At length, finding that their employers had no difficulty in getting their work done, the workmen gradually returned. This year they resorted to the plan of advertising a statement of their case in the newspapers to force compliance with their demands. According to this statement, other employers agreed to their standard without demur. It appears, however, that the demand was made in comparatively few shops.

We have left until the last an account of the strike of this year at Fall River. It is asserted by the operatives, that at the time of the last reduction in wages, they were promised a corresponding increase as soon as reviving business would warrant it. Some manufacturers deny that any such promise was made or implied. Whether this be so or not, the indications of reviving trade in the spring of the present year caused the operatives to ask for a return to former prices; and the simple question at issue seems to have been this: Had business so improved that the increased profits of the manufacturers would allow them to pay better wages? The operatives held that it had, and on this they based their demand. The position of the manufacturers may be seen from the statement of one of their number, which is substantially as follows:—

The first document sent us by the spinners stated that cotton had advanced seven-eighths of a cent per pound, while the advance in the price of cloth was relatively greater; so that they felt the enlarged profit thus accruing entitled them to an advance in wages. They had taken the quotations for a grade of cotton that no print cloth manufacturer ever uses. One agent sent to various cotton dealers, asking the rates at

which certain purchases of cotton made in April, 1878, could be duplicated. Reliable quotations were returned, showing an actual increase in rates of two and three-fourths to three cents per pound, instead of seven-eighths of a cent, as the spinners had claimed.

These quotations were put before the committee of spinners, and the error into which they had fallen as to the relative advance in cotton and cloth explained to them. They seemed satisfied, and requested copies to present at their headquarters. Copies were furnished them; but their leaders and advisers told them that the figures were false, and did not truly represent the matter. Other agents in good faith exhibited their books to their spinners; but, as a result, the employer who was most frank in this respect was deemed by them to have told the most lies.

As to wages also, the prices paid in other places were obtained for comparison with Fall River rates. The result is seen in the following table:—

Prices paid for Mule Spinning in Eight Manufacturing Towns of New England, as compared with Fall River Prices.

Town.		Per hundred Skeins.
No. 1,	65 cents per hundred pounds for No. 35 yarn, equal,	\$1 86
2,	2 00
3,	2 00
4,	75 cents per hundred pounds for No. 37 yarn, equal,	2 03
5,	2 00
6,	\$1.90 to \$2.30 per hundred skeins. Average, . . .	2 10
7,	76 cents per hundred pounds for No. 36 yarn, equal,	2 16
8,	2 03
		8) \$16 18
	Average,	\$2 02+

Fall River pays 2.875 cents per hundred skeins, less back boy, .400 to .500 cents; leaving net price, Fall River, 2.475 to 2.375. Or, Fall River pays 35-100 to 45-100 cents per hundred skeins more than average of mills, or 17½ to 22 per cent more than they do.

These figures were distrusted by the spinners however.

The arguments of the employers, sufficiently indicated in the foregoing, did not convince the operatives; but, before

proceeding to a strike, the spinners proposed to submit the matters in dispute to a board of arbitration. This proposition was summarily rejected by the manufacturers, who accompanied their refusal with the following:—

“We are as keenly sensible as yourselves of the effects of the great depression in business which has so long prevailed, resulting in the practical annihilation of profits in manufacturing for several years and the reduction of wages to the present standard. In the case of the laborer, this change in circumstances has not been without its compensations; for along with the reduction in the price of labor, there has been a corresponding reduction in the price of every thing produced by labor: consequently the purchasing power of your wages has increased in like proportion.

“Your memorial has induced us to compare the prices paid for labor in this city with those that prevail elsewhere in print cloth mills, and we find that we are now paying from ten to fifteen per cent more than is paid in a large number of competing mills, while we find none that pay in excess; and, inasmuch as it appears by the comparisons that we are now laboring under a decided disadvantage in the cost of producing cloth, to which may be added the less number of working hours, we can see no good reason for increasing the discrepancy that now exists.

“Neither has there been any such improvement in our business as would warrant a compliance with the request you make; and we can have no assurance that the moderately remunerative business of to-day can be so far depended on as to justify us in anticipating the time wages may be increased with due regard to our own interests.

“We are therefore constrained to say that we must decline to accede to your request.”

The spinners now decided that no other course lay open to them but to strike. The requisite two weeks' notice was at once given, and on the 26th of June the contest began. The mule-spinners throughout the city, except at the King Philip Mills, and a few non-union men elsewhere, turned out. Some of the corporations employ ring-spinning to a greater or less extent, and were thus able to continue to run a portion of their machinery. But the larger part of the Fall River mills depend entirely on the mules; and the immediate result of the strike was to oblige them to stop altogether. This stoppage was temporary only, spinners being brought from other cities to fill the vacant places. Energetic efforts were begun by the strikers to prevent this. Committees from the union were placed on duty at the railway stations, in the vicinity of the mills, and wherever they would be

likely to meet with so-called "knobsticks;" and it is asserted that when argument failed to produce the desired effect, threats of violence, and even positive abuse, were indulged in to cause outside spinners to retire. Letters containing threats were sent to knobsticks; and it was found necessary to quarter them in the mill yards to protect them from assault, and to prevent them from being induced to leave.

The mills gradually increased their production, and, as it became apparent that imported help was occupying the places they had left, the bitter feelings of the strikers were thoroughly aroused. Their families were forced to leave the tenements owned by the corporations; and, in some instances, their relatives at work in the mills were discharged. These things added to the enmity they already felt towards their former employers.

Every evening large crowds gathered near the mills, and several times riotous conduct ensued. The most flagrant outrage was committed on the 17th of September, when a party of French Canadians, most of whom were women and children brought to Fall River to work in the mills, was assailed by a mob and stoned. The authorities were asked to increase the police force; but a majority of the aldermen refused to authorize this, notwithstanding the protest of the mayor against such inaction. The Spinners' Union deprecated all disorderly conduct, and asserted that no necessity existed for additional police; if desired, however, the strikers stood ready to serve as constables.

The various trades unions in other cities endorsed the strike, and contributed to its support. The spinners were firmly united and resolved to continue the contest until their demands were recognized. After several weeks, the situation remaining unchanged, offers of arbitration were again made; but, as before, the manufacturers declined to receive them.

Meanwhile, new help continued to come in, and by the first of October the strike had practically failed; for, though the attitude of the spinners remained unaltered, the mills were running nearly up to their full capacity. It is said by the employers that plenty of help might have been obtained sooner, had it been free to come to the city and guaranteed

security against abuse. It was asserted by the strikers that the new workmen were less skilled than themselves, and they were paid somewhat higher wages. The statements of both parties are probably true. It was necessary to pay higher wages, no doubt, on account of the opposition encountered in securing new help.

It is remarkable that one mill, the King Philip, was not affected by the strike. Fifteen mule-spinners are employed there, the remainder of the spinning being done on ring frames. Various reasons are given by the agents of other mills for this sole exception to the general rule, the prevailing impression being that the class of goods made there — fine goods and jaconets, instead of print cloth — enabled the spinner to earn better wages than elsewhere. It was also hinted that other causes peculiar to this mill prevented a strike there. Inquiry at the mill, however, showed that the earnings of the spinners employed were not above the average throughout the city, and, so far as known, the operatives there were treated exactly as in the other mills. No satisfactory reason could be assigned for exempting it from the strike.

Early in October the spinners, finding themselves defeated, began to return to the mills wherever opportunity remained to them. They were received without conditions by the manufacturers. During the continuance of the strike, the union collected and disbursed not far from \$20,000. The strikers lost in wages about \$100,000. Their absence from the mills considerably diminished the production of print cloth, causing partial idleness, and consequently a heavy additional loss to other operatives; but we have not the requisite data at hand for estimating its amount. The operatives feel that the effect of the struggle upon the manufacturers will lead them to agree to arbitration in case another dispute arises. Whether this is so or not, the future will determine.

Fall River, it will be seen, occupies an unenviable prominence in these pages. The largest and most frequent strikes in the textile trade have occurred there, especially in recent years; and their influence has caused similar contests in localities which otherwise would have escaped them. For

these reasons, and because the incidents of the last strike are still fresh in the public mind, it is proper to refer to its industrial condition at somewhat greater length.

The whole growth of the city since 1865 has been so phenomenal, that a brief summary of it is essential to a proper understanding of the relative positions of manufacturers and employes. During the speculative era following the war, the industries of the city were expanded with utter disregard of the legitimate principles of commercial economy. Between 1870 and 1872 the number of spindles was increased from 544,606 to 1,094,702, or more than doubled; while, within the same period, the number of print cloth manufactories rose from sixteen to thirty-one. Instead of these corporations resting upon independent foundations, many of them were so connected that ruin to one could not well avoid bringing disaster to others. These immense factories, having a productive capacity of 378,000,000 yards of print cloth annually—more than five-eighths of the entire annual production in the United States—were managed by comparatively few men, who also controlled the banks through which the finances of this large business were to be conducted. The endeavor to make credit perform the function of money was never more seriously entered upon than here. Accommodation notes were freely given, and apparently without limit. In every corporation the power of the treasurer was practically absolute: the purchase of supplies, the management of the mill, and the disposal of the product was largely in his hands. No check upon his operations was in existence which might not easily be overcome.

The evils likely to follow from such a system as this, even should the highest standard of morality prevail among its promoters, cannot be lightly estimated. The losses, unavoidable in the best conducted business and which spring from unforeseen causes, could not fail to seriously affect a city whose leading interests were so interwoven. Fall River also had its real estate bubble; and, before its collapse, the purchase of land at inflated prices had placed an added burden upon many corporations, though supposed at the time to be an investment that would strengthen their resources.

The limit of the forced growth upon this insecure basis was soon reached, and the inevitable reaction ensued. Irregular and fraudulent transactions in certain quarters hastened the result. The aggregate losses accruing to eight of the leading corporations has been placed at four and one-half millions, of which the larger part falls upon residents of the city. In other corporations, also, the losses from depreciation of stocks and real estate have been large. The extent to which credit had been pushed is now plainly seen in the excessive liabilities of certain estates as compared with their assets; and the tendency of Fall River financiers to confine their investments to a limited area, is shown by the following extract from a circular issued Oct. 1, 1879, by the Fall River Savings Bank to its depositors. We have italicised a significant passage:—

“April 1, 1878, the amount due the depositors of the Fall River Savings Bank was \$6,234,320 92, invested in notes and securities considered at that time good. The bank then had large surplus earnings, and could more than pay depositors in full. Since that date, disasters to the financial interests of this city have occurred, seriously affecting corporations and individuals then considered to be sound and solvent, and unsettling values generally. *The above-named sum constituted nearly one-half of the banking capital of this city, and was, for the very reason of its large amount, invested generally in various interests of Fall River,* and has therefore been affected by losses in all directions, both by individual failure of parties to whom money was loaned, and by the shrinkage of securities which, at the time the loans were made, were ample to secure payment of the same.”

Of the resources of this institution, *nearly thirty-four per cent are loans on personal security.*

A natural outgrowth of the extension of the manufacturing interests was a rapid increase of foreign population. The population of the city in 1865 was 17,481, of whom 5,445 were foreign born, and 1,816 English. In 1875, only ten years later, the entire population had risen to 45,340,—23,866 being foreign born, of whom 8,705 were English.

The English workman is usually the most skilled operative in the mill, and among the highest paid. At the same time, the natural qualities of his mind, and the conditions to which he has been subjected in his native country, render him peculiarly difficult to deal with. If a spinner, this diffi-

culty is increased by the monotony of his labor which fosters discontent and dissatisfaction with his lot. Many of these men came hither from the Preston and Blackburn districts of England, bringing their inherited distrust of the employer, and accompanied by their old leaders, who were not long in establishing here the customs and regulations of their craft.

It is now an established fact, that by the combined efforts of English manufacturers and English trades unions, or by their separate efforts, troublesome strikers and industrial malcontents are shipped to this country. The presence of such malcontents in the mills has tended to promote strife. These men do not desire to work, and often find their reward in inciting their associates to disagreements which end in strikes.

Thus we find, on the one hand, employers oppressed by financial burdens, harassed by long continued business depression, attempting to pay dividends on the inflated cost of their plant, and too often with but little real consideration for their operatives; and, on the other, a large body of foreign workpeople, — many of whom are fresh from those districts of England in which the sharpest trade disputes have arisen, — filled with bitter prejudices and confirmed distrust of the “masters,” often stubborn, self-willed, and hot-headed. And there is a third class which cannot be overlooked: the agitators, who are the accepted advisors of the workingmen in Fall River, and who are present at every preliminary meeting to consider the question of a strike. Although the best informed labor reformers deprecate strikes, others are too apt, while deprecating them, to talk in a grandiloquent way of the abridgment of their “liberties,” etc., and thus really encourage the movements. The advice of such men — denounced by the employers, but often accepted without question by the operatives — has had no small influence in the disputes which have occurred.

This condition of affairs was not fully brought about until the present year, but the opposing forces have been at work since 1868. They were arranging themselves while speculation was rife, as well as after the crisis came, and their influence has been felt in every labor trouble in Fall River since the war.

Whenever these troubles have occurred, the union, through its officers, has claimed the right to confer with the employers touching the question at issue. This right the employers have from the first denied, declining to recognize any trade organization in which the majority was permitted to control the minority in regard to wages or hours of labor. They have among themselves an organization however, but this, it is asserted, is an advisory body simply, without power to control its members in the administration of their business. While at all times professing willingness to confer with their own workmen, they have persistently ignored the claims of the union, and refused to entertain its propositions.

In the labor troubles in England strikes have often been avoided by arbitration. It would seem well to have tried this plan here, if only as an experiment. But prior to the last strike, although the operatives desired to do this, the manufacturers refused, replying,—

“Such means of settling disputes between employers and employed are not in consonance with the methods of doing business in this country, and we do not propose to inaugurate the plan.” It may well be asked, if it would not have been better, considering all the circumstances, to have submitted the simple question at issue to an unprejudiced board of reference, if the strike with its pecuniary loss to all concerned, and the bitter feeling engendered, might thereby have been prevented?

It is apparent to a superficial observer that, throughout the later history of Fall River, the conciliatory spirit has been sadly wanting in the intercourse between manufacturers and operatives. In thus sketching the situation there we have sought to treat each side fairly; our only object being to set forth some of the causes which have made that city the chief seat of labor contests in Massachusetts. Upon whom the responsibility rests for the state of things existing there, we leave the reader to determine, but we believe it to be mutual.

To see how entirely alone Fall River stands in many respects, it is only necessary to compare its record with that of Lawrence and Lowell, our other cotton centres.

These latter cities have been of comparatively slow growth, and the various corporations have extended their business

only as fast as the demands of trade seemed to warrant. The operatives, although now for the most part foreign, have never been imported in large numbers, but have come in small bodies during a period of many years, and have thus become gradually accustomed to their places and to the management of the mills. The proportion of English help, as compared with that of Fall River, is relatively less. These points may be clearly seen in the following tables:—

Number of Cotton Spindles.

CITIES.	1865.	1875.
Fall River	241,218	1,251,102
Lowell	385,412	739,259
Lawrence	237,476	284,776

Population and Nativity.

CITIES.	TOTAL.	FOREIGN BORN.	ENGLISH.
1865.			
Fall River	17,481	5,445	1,816
Lowell	30,990	9,422	1,353
Lawrence	21,698	9,217	1,892
1870.			
Fall River	26,766	11,478	4,042
Lowell	40,928	14,435	1,697
Lawrence	28,921	12,717	2,456
1875.			
Fall River	45,340	23,866	8,705
Lowell	49,688	17,778	2,331
Lawrence	34,916	15,546	3,353

The administration of the mills at Lowell and Lawrence is vested by the directors in a treasurer, agent, and selling agent. The treasurer controls the finances, the agent has immediate charge of the factory, and the selling agent disposes of the product. By this sub-division of duties strict responsibility is secured in every department, while the accounts of each act as checks upon the others. Great care

has been taken, in the selection of overseers, to have men who would command the respect of the employés, and give them no cause for ill-feeling. Most of these overseers, as well as the agents themselves, are men who have acquired their positions by thorough knowledge of the business, and many of them have been for years in the employ of the corporations. Wages have been kept full up to the market rates. In one city a library for the operatives has been established, and other evidences of consideration for the workpeople exist. The best commentary upon all this is the infrequency of labor troubles in these cities, only two strikes having occurred in Lowell for many years,—one of these was a small affair, and both were due to outside influence. Lawrence has been even less disturbed.

A citizen of Fall River remarked to the writer that that city had seen its best days. But this need not be so. Its best days may be even now beginning. The days which men called best were really the worst in its history. The so-called prosperity of the past decade was largely fictitious, and it is well for all that its hollowness is now apparent. Many of the manufacturers admit the mistakes of the past, and, if the lesson has been well learned, a repetition of them may be avoided in the future.

In every important strike, both in Fall River and elsewhere, intimidation, frequently culminating in violence, has been resorted to, for the purpose of preventing men who desired to work from doing so. Whatever may have caused the strike, this, at least, cannot be justified. Such conduct only brings discredit on the movement, and turns sympathy from the strikers. It ought not to be necessary, in any city of our enlightened Commonwealth, to quarter men in barracks to protect them from injury; or that the freedom to labor, and to pass upon the public street to and from the workshop or mill, is denied any man. The right which the strikers claim for themselves—work at satisfactory wages—they ought not to refuse to others; and, having left the mills, they certainly should not complain if free labor, seeking employment at rates better than it can obtain elsewhere, finds its advantage in occupying the places they have voluntarily left. The fact that these places are so easily filled, or

that it is needful to resort to force to keep them open, may well be taken as indicating that the economic laws which, more than the will of the employer, govern the whole question of wages, have been misinterpreted by the strikers, and are at variance with their action.

SUMMARY.

The total number of strikes and lock-outs included in this record is 159. No notice has been taken of mere demands made by workmen not resulting in actual strikes, or of trivial disputes. The classification by industries is as follows:—

Occupations of Strikers.

Building trades, employés in	10	Miners	3
Bleachery, "	1	Navy yard, employés in	5
Cigar makers	3	Nail and tack makers	6
Coopers	3	Riggers	1
Calkers	1	Shoe factory operatives	34
Coal-heavers	1	Textile factory operatives	59
Cordage makers	1	Tanners	1
Grinders	1	Tailors	4
Hatters	2	Stone cutters	2
Horse-shoers	1	Sailors	1
Laborers	7	Soap makers	1
Locomotive engineers	1	Wood workers	1
Morocco dressers and finishers,	5	Wire makers	1
Machinists	2	Waiters	1

These strikes have been located as follows:—

Location of Strikes.

Boston (city proper)	23	North Adams	9
" (East Boston)	2	New Bedford	6
" (Charlestown)	6	Marlborough	4
" (Neponset)	2	Chicopee	4
" (Dorchester)	1	Worcester	4
" (Roxbury)	1	Natick	3
Lynn	14	Taunton	3
Lowell	10	Blackstone	3
Fall River	8		

Salem, Adams (South), Millbury, Newburyport, Randolph, West Stockbridge, Quincy, Pittsfield, Maynard, Dedham, North Brookfield, Brockton, Holyoke, and Westfield,—2 each. South Hadley, Mansfield, Rowley, Palmer, Salisbury, Cambridge, Great Barrington, West Spring-

field, Wareham, Southbridge, Lawrence, Brookfield, Oxford, Ashland, Weymouth, Needham, Stoneham, Danvers, Waltham, Lanesborough, Wilbraham, Hudson, Uxbridge, Douglas, Springfield, Easthampton, Hopkinton, and Boston and Maine Railroad,—1 each.

Some of these have affected other towns than the ones named; but, in making this classification, the town in which the dispute originated has been considered the location of the strike. The nativity of the workmen engaging in these contests may be seen from the following:—

Nativity of Strikers.

Foreign born 76	Native and foreign 38
Native born 32	Unknown 13

It is not pretended that this classification is absolutely correct. It is, however, nearly so. Very few strikes have been confined wholly to either native or foreign born workers. In each case the preponderating nativity has been taken.

The following table gives the causes of strikes. In some few instances strikes begun for one cause have been used to settle other grievances; but in this presentation we give the original cause only:—

Causes of Strikes.

To secure better wages 118	Resistance to employers' rules, 5
“ shorter days 24	Against introduction of machinery 3
To enforce trade union rules 9	

We summarize the results of these contests as follows:—

Results of Strikes.

Unsuccessful 109	Partly successful 6
Successful 18	Result unknown 9
Compromised 16	Contest still pending* 1

In the estimates of wages lost, contained in the foregoing pages, we have in each instance, with two exceptions, included the amount lost by all workmen affected by the strike, and not merely the loss of the strikers themselves.

CONCLUSIONS.

We have now completed the history of strikes in Massachusetts from the earliest years in which these contests find record. What conclusions are to be drawn from it? The first and most obvious is plainly this: *Strikes generally prove powerless to benefit the condition of the wage classes.*

It will appear from a glance at the summary, that by far the larger part of these struggles have been unsuccessful. The result, in cases of sufficient number to become typical, left the strikers in exactly the same position, so far as concerned the point at issue, that they occupied at the beginning. Not only where the employés were comparatively unorganized and isolated from others of their craft has this been true, but also where the closest union existed and large numbers were engaged in the movement, as in the numerous Fall River contests. In this important respect, the record is not unlike that of similar demonstrations in Great Britain, where, during the year 1878 alone, according to the Report of the British Iron Trades Association, 277 strikes occurred, classified as follows: coal miners, 58; iron ship builders, 6; boiler makers, 4; builders, 77; miscellaneous, 112. Out of all these only *four* were successful, while seventeen were settled by compromise. The workmen concerned in the others returned to work on their employers' terms.

Mr. G. Phillips Bevan, also, has published a list of strikes in the same country — including Ireland — during the year 1877. He presents a total of 191, classified as follows: coal miners, 21; workers in iron trades, 23; ship builders, 8; builders, 70; wood and stone workers, 22; textile workers, 18; makers of clothing, 8; miscellaneous, 21. Nearly all were failures.

In those in our own State which have been successful, the advantage gained has often proved temporary rather than permanent, or has been chiefly due to influences other than the strike itself. Of the latter class, the strikes for

shorter days are an instance. A few of these were finally successful it is true; but not until other causes had ripened the time for fewer hours and rendered their general adoption possible.

In England, during the years 1871-72, strikes usually succeeded; but trade was then active there, labor in demand, and wages would have risen had no strikes taken place. So, too, in Massachusetts, a few have owed their favorable termination entirely to the state of trade existing when they were undertaken — making it politic for employers to submit for a time — and not to any inherent force in the movements themselves.

When goods are in demand, labor scarce and capital competing for it, wages must advance. Impatient workmen have sometimes anticipated this advance by striking, and have attributed their success to such action; but when other conditions exist, strikes fail to increase rates. Again, *strikes tend to deprive the strikers of work*. That they have frequently had this result is readily apparent. All those which have caused a change of industrial population — the original employés being forced to seek other employment or emigrate to other localities — are of this class. The difficulties in the shoe trade growing out of the Crispin organization caused some manufacturers to remove their business to other towns where they might be free from troubles of this kind, and to other States even, thus *robbing* Massachusetts of her industries. The shoemakers' strike at North Adams in 1871, it will be remembered, was the direct cause of the introduction of Chinese labor to the permanent displacement of workmen already engaged in that trade. Another, though less obvious, instance is found in the gradual substitution of other methods for mule-spinning in cotton factories. The mule-spinner, to a certain extent, now holds the key to the situation. If successful, he often has it in his power to stop the mill. And it is noticeable that the chief strikes in the textile trades have arisen among the spinners. But he mule is gradually disappearing, the number in use in one of our largest factories being forty-three per cent less than in 1864. The advantage a mill equipped with ring-frames has, in a spinners' strike, over one confined to the mule, was shown

in the strike of 1879 at Fall River, where the Pocasset Mills, employing ring-spinning chiefly, were able to run five-sixths of their machinery, notwithstanding the strike. Such lessons are not lost upon the manufacturers, many of whom do not hesitate to say that, were it possible to abandon the mule at once without too great pecuniary loss, it would be done. Various causes are leading to its supersession, but it will inevitably be hastened by an unwise use of his present power by the mule-spinner.

Lastly, *strikes lead to improvidence, and are demoralizing in their effect upon the workingman.* In the various Fall River strikes, to which we again refer as the most important movements of this kind in the State, the enormous sum of \$1,400,000 in wages was voluntarily forfeited by the idleness of the operatives. And, besides this sum, large amounts of which no record can be obtained — the savings of months of toil — were contributed by sympathizers in other cities, and deliberately thrown away in fruitless struggles. The whole was wasted, for in no instance was a permanent advantage secured. What happened there is true of the majority of cases in our record. In more than sixty-eight per cent of them, loss in wages, varying with the extent and duration of the strike, has been submitted to without any material benefit accruing to offset it. Had the workmen been willing to undergo the same self-denial, and apply these amounts to well directed projects of self-help, how much might have been accomplished! In the Fall River strike of 1879 the spinners alone, by their idleness, deprived themselves of a sum sufficient to have created a mutual benefit fund, paying at four and a half per cent an annual income of \$4,800; or to have established four co-operative provision stores, each with an invested capital of \$25,000. Indeed, co-operation is frequently urged as a remedy for existing labor troubles. The amount of wages lost by the operatives in Fall River during 1870 would have erected a mill of twenty-five thousand spindles, equipped it with the necessary machinery, and given it a sufficient working capital. The theory of co-operation might thus have been tested; and yet this sum was voluntarily renounced in a struggle promising small hope of success, and which actually resulted in defeat.

Or, look at it in another light. Dr. Watt, according to Leone Levi in his little book "Work and Pay," has made a calculation showing how long a striker, if successful, must work at the advanced wages to recover the sums lost while idle. Suppose he strikes for five per cent increase. Assuming the weekly wage to be two per cent of that of a working year, it will take him $1\frac{3}{5}$ years to make up for one month's wages lost; $3\frac{1}{5}$ years for two months' lost; $4\frac{4}{5}$ years for three months' lost; and so on. Let us apply such a calculation to the Fall River "vacation" of 1875. This was against ten per cent reduction, and the operatives lost eight weeks' wages. Had the result been in their favor it would have taken each employé $1\frac{6}{10}$ years, at the desired rate, to recover this loss. The long strike of 1879 was for an increase of fifteen per cent. Had it been successful at the end of fifteen weeks, every spinner would have been obliged to labor two full years at the increase before recovering the amount he had lost by his idleness. Can any one discover, that, under the most favorable circumstances, this waste is compensated for by any advantage gained? This is an aspect of the strike question that may well afford food for thought to the workingman who really wishes to better his condition. Here figures are facts that cannot be blotted out.

Of the demoralizing tendency of these contests, we have had, fortunately, no such conspicuous instances as appeared in the railroad riots of the West during the summer of 1877; but every large strike in this State has increased the criminal lists of the city or town where it has occurred, while the bad blood excited, coupled with the idleness and consequent poverty of large bodies of men and women, cannot fail to be demoralizing in the extreme. During the first twelve weeks of the last Fall River strike, one hundred and four spinners were arrested for various offences, of whom about seventy-one were actual strikers. One has only to turn to the assaults committed by the mob during this and previous strikes, or to the injury to persons and property in the Crispin strikes at Hudson, Marlborough, and Ashland, to see how disorder is fostered by these disputes; and the fact that violence of this sort is discountenanced by the trades unions,

or committed without their authority, does not remedy the matter.

It simply shows that these organizations are not strong enough to overcome the evil passions aroused by the strike.

We have so far considered the effect of strikes upon the wage classes. Their effect upon the manufacturer varies with the state of trade. It is sometimes a positive advantage to be able to close the workshop or mill; and if the stoppage is not prolonged so as to cause damage to machinery, etc., from disuse, a strike would not then be deemed an injury to the owner. But these cases are the exceptions, not the rule; and the intelligent workingman will reflect, that any course he may pursue which tends to impair the resources of the employer must react upon himself. The rate of wages is sometimes beyond the employer's control. To increase them would practically result in suspension of business. An illustration of this is so apt, that we reproduce it from a former report:—

“During six months ending June, 1870, a certain cotton mill in Massachusetts manufactured its goods at a total cost, including raw material, labor, repairs, etc., of $40\frac{5}{10}$ cents per pound, and received on sales of its goods $41\frac{9}{10}$ cents per pound, showing a profit of $1\frac{4}{10}$ cents per pound. These figures worked out, gave a profit on its total capital of $2\frac{8}{10}$ per cent. Now any advance on the wages of its operatives would have been manifestly impossible, except at a loss to stockholders in even this discouraging percentage.”

Mr. Edward Atkinson has recently shown, drawing his conclusions from the statistics of Massachusetts in the census of 1875, that the increment of wealth it is now possible to set aside for the increase of capital in cotton mills does not exceed three per cent of the joint product of labor and capital; and that in order to insure comfort among our own population in the near future, and that existing capital in this industry may not charge an exorbitant rate for its use, such conditions must continue as shall render it possible to apply at least three per cent to this increase, or that new mills must be built out of the product of other industries. The same is doubtless proportionately true in other trades.

Let the workingman reflect upon these things, and remember that, though he may feel himself the victim of

injustice, he may well hesitate before entering upon a course likely to involve him in more serious difficulties than at present surround him.

The manufacturer, also, should not forget that the duties devolving upon himself cannot be ignored. Neither party can expect all the forbearance to be exercised upon the other side. It must be reciprocal. We have before referred to the absence of the conciliatory spirit in Fall River; and it is pleasant, on the other hand, to note that wherever it is present in greater or less degree, comparative harmony ensues. There are factories in the State in which strikes are unknown, and where the condition of the employés is made an object of care on the part of the employers. There are manufacturers of life-long experience who say,—

“Strikes are unnecessary, or at least can usually be avoided. . . . Treat the operatives like men and no trouble is likely to arise. . . . Treat the help fairly and such treatment will generally be returned by confidence on their part. There is frequently a feeling of distrust manifested by the employés, and they are apt to regard any change from the usual routine as a trap to increase profits at their expense. But if treated honestly, and every agreement made with them fairly kept, there will be but little trouble from strikes. We have seldom failed to avoid them by meeting the operatives like men and treating them with consideration.”

Another instance in point is presented by one of our largest clothing houses, in which the most cordial relations are maintained between the firm and their workpeople. Annually the establishment is closed, and a complimentary excursion given the employés, and other similar attentions indicate the good feeling which exists.

Under such circumstances, the reductions sometimes necessary in the course of business are submitted to in the belief that they are unavoidable, and that better times will bring a corresponding increase.

Strikes are born of ignorance, distrust, and the lack of that spirit of brotherhood between employer and employed upon which the best interests of both depend. These interests are mutual, and when this truth is recognized and acted upon in their mutual relations, strikes will cease. The employer often complains of the ignorance of his workmen;

but this ignorance, if it exists, entitles them to greater sympathy and more consideration. Each party is now prone to look at mooted questions from different sides. Strikes only perpetuate this attitude. Neither manufacturer nor workman can afford to reject whatever tends toward the harmony that will eventually solve the vexed questions that disturb the prosperity of both.

NOTE.—The foregoing record was closed Nov. 1, 1879. Small strikes among the longshoremen and clothing cutters in Boston, and the operatives at the Atlanta Mills, Millbury, having occurred since that date, are for that reason not included.

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REPRINT EDITION.

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

[FROM THE TWELFTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
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OF LABOR, FOR 1881.]

BY

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

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UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

The facts reported in this Part of the Twelfth Report of the Bureau have been obtained in obedience to the following

RESOLVE RELATIVE TO A UNIFORM SYSTEM OF LAWS IN CERTAIN STATES, REGULATING THE HOURS OF LABOR.

Resolved, That the Bureau of Statistics of Labor is hereby directed to collect data and obtain testimony from employers and employés in the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, relative to a uniform system of laws to regulate the hours of labor in the States mentioned, and to present the results of its investigations to the legislature in its next annual report.

Approved March 17, 1880.

The object of this resolve (chap. 29, Resolves of 1880) was to furnish the public with such accurate data, that the question of the establishment of a uniform system of laws throughout the Eastern and principal textile manufacturing States, regulating the hours of labor, might be scientifically discussed; and, to this end, all facts obtainable bearing upon either side of the proposition have been gathered to the fullest extent allowable by the means at the disposal of this office. This information, so far as individuals are concerned, has been held, of course, as strictly confidential, only the classification of results having been embodied in this report.

Before beginning the systematic collection of data upon the problem in question, suggestions were sought from many employers and employés in this State, with a view to learning the points upon which inquiries could be made with reasonable certainty of securing information. We concluded, in order to secure the best possible results, to make uniform inquiries, and to so draw them as to involve the main facts relative to transportation, cost, production, sales, wages, and other features which of necessity enter into the intelligent consideration of the proposition which stimulated the

resolve under which this investigation has been carried out. It was also desirable to have all inquiries made in such manner as to secure a close classification of the information received. The importance of such classification is evident to every one, whether in favor of, or opposed to, the doctrine that strikes, lock-outs, and other difficulties can be avoided in the East by the establishment of a uniform system of laws regulating the hours of labor.

We have in this investigation followed our usual policy, and collected the data reported through the direct personal efforts of agents in the field. Each agent was supplied with two schedules of inquiry for his own guidance, and which he was to fill himself. One of these schedules was for the information obtained from manufacturers, and the other for that given by employés. The following inquiries were embodied in these schedules :—

OF MANUFACTURERS.

1. Chief raw material used?
2. Cost per at factory, Aug. 15, 1880?
3. Cost per where purchased, Aug. 15, 1880?
4. Market where purchased?
5. Where is such material produced?
6. Other raw material used in considerable quantities?
7. Cost per at factory, Aug. 15, 1880?
8. Cost per where purchased Aug. 15, 1880?
9. Where are products sold principally?
10. Cost per ton for transportation to principal market?
11. Where is the principal competition in the manufacture of goods?
12. Where is the principal competition in selling the goods?
13. Are sales affected by the importation of foreign-made goods?
14. Proportion of employés? In each 100 employés? Men? Women?
Male children? Female children?
15. Average pay of each class per week? Men? Women? Male
children? Female children?
16. Pay of spinners per week? Highest? Lowest?
17. Pay of weavers per week? Highest? Lowest?
18. Pay of weavers, *piece*, per week? Highest? Lowest?
19. Hours of labor? Per day? Per week?
20. If all the mills of like grade and producing like goods in New
York and New England should run 60 hours per week, how would it
affect this establishment?
21. Could machinery be so speeded as to make results uniform?
22. What is the product of *one hundred* looms per week?
23. Number of looms attended by each weaver?

24. Steam or water power?
25. What is the product of *one hundred* spinners per week?
26. Must the spinning department be run more hours than the weaving department on account of the state of the atmosphere?
27. Would the running of this factory 60 hours per week increase the cost of production any way? If yes, how?
28. Would running 60 hours per week make it necessary to employ more hands to produce present amount of goods made?
29. What effect would running 60 hours per week have upon wages?
30. Under a decrease of time and an increase of speed, what would be the effect upon the plant? Upon the employés? Upon the cost of goods?
31. Have experiments been made to test the producing power of the factory under different hours per day? With what results?
32. Has the Massachusetts ten-hour law affected this factory in any way?
33. Has it enabled you to secure better skilled labor and in greater quantity than before its passage?
34. Has it enabled you to draw skilled labor from Massachusetts?
35. Has it enabled you to under-sell Massachusetts manufacturers?
36. Physically, what effect would less hours have upon employés?
37. From what is known, what proportion of the employés in this factory would make good use of more leisure time?
38. What is the prevailing opinion among the employés as to a ten-hour law?
39. Do they *or not* desire legal regulation of the hours of labor?
40. What reasons do they give for their opinion?
41. So far as quality and quantity are concerned, how does the product of the last hours of the day compare with that of the first or middle hours of the day?
42. If many large mills can be successfully run under 60 hours per week, are there any valid reasons why all cannot be so run?
43. Does intemperance have any appreciable effect upon the product of the mill?

OF EMPLOYÉS.

1. Line of employment?
2. Whose establishment?
3. Employed by the day or by the piece?
4. Earnings? Per week? Total per year?
5. Hours employed? Per day? Per week?
6. How many in your family? Adults? Children under 10? Children over 10? Whole number?
7. Amount contributed by other members of your family to its support?
8. What does it cost to support your family for a year?
9. If unemployed during part of the past year, how long, and for what reason?
10. What would be the effect upon wages of a law establishing the hours of labor at 60 per week?

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

11. What is the desire, if any, for a uniform system of laws on the hours of labor?

12. Does the ten-hour law of Massachusetts affect the employes in any way? If so, how?

13. Has the Massachusetts ten-hour law any influence upon the supply of skilled operatives? If so, how?

14. Are your opportunities for employment good or poor?

15. If hours are reduced, can you earn as much as now?

16. In the long run can you accomplish as much in your line in 10 hours per day as in 11, other things being equal?

17. What disposition would be made of more leisure?

18. Does intemperance prevail to any extent among the operatives in this town?

TABLE I. — MANUFACTURERS. *Materials.* MAINE.

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
2	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Ala., Ga., Tex.
3	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
4	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
5	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Ala., Tex., La., etc.
6	Cotton cloth and bags	Cotton	- - - - -
7	Cotton goods	Cotton	Ala., Tex., Ga., S. C.
8	Cotton goods	Cotton	- - - - -
9	Cotton goods (colored)	Cotton	- - - - -
10	Print cloth and silesia } cambrics	Cotton	Ala., Tex., Ga.
11	Sail and overall duck	Cotton	Tex., La.
12	Sheetings	Cotton	- - - - -
13	Sheetings	Cotton	Ala., Tex.
14	Sheetings	Cotton	Ala.
15	Sheetings	Cotton	Tex., La., Tenn.
16	Sheetings, etc.	Cotton	Southern States
17	Sheetings and shirtings	Cotton	Ala., Ga., Tex.
18	Warps and grain bags	Cotton	- - - - -
19	Warps and grain bags	Cotton	- - - - -
	<i>Wool.</i>		
20	Flannels	Wool	Cal. and east of Miss. River
21	Woollen cloths	Wool	Cal., Me., Mich., O.
22	Woollen goods	Wool	Cal., Me., Mich., O.
23	Woollen goods	Wool	- - - - -
24	Woollen goods	Wool	- - - - -
25	Woollen goods	Wool	Everywhere
26	Woollen goods	Wool	Tex., Cal., So. A.

During the autumn of 1880 all the States named in the resolve were quite thoroughly canvassed, and data secured from 246 manufacturing establishments and 545 employes. The tables then are the results of the information from 791 individual sources. The establishments visited comprehended all grades of mills engaged in textile manufactures, while a few paper-mills were called upon for information.

The data collected has been arranged in five tables, four presenting the facts furnished by manufacturers, and followed by classified general statements; and one presenting the facts furnished by employes, with classified general statements.

TABLE I. — MANUFACTURERS. *Materials.* MAINE.

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Southern States	10 $\frac{65}{100}$ c. lb.	9 $\frac{65}{100}$ c. lb.	1
Ala., Ga., Tex.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	2
Ala., Ga., Tex., S. C.	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	3
Ala., Ga., Tex., S. C.	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	4
Ala.	10 $\frac{91}{100}$ c. lb.	10 c. lb.	5
-	12 c. lb.	-	6
Ala., Tex., Ga., S. C.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	-	7
Boston	12 c. lb.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	8
-	12 c. lb.	-	9
Ala., Tex., Ga.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	-	10
Tex., La.	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	11
Ala., Ga., Tex.	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	12
Ala., Tex.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	13
Ala.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	14
Tex., La., Tenn.	10 to 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	9 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	15
Ala., La., Tex.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 13 c. lb.	11 to 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	16
Ala., Ga., Tex.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	17
Boston, Tex.	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 12 c. lb.	-	18
Boston	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 12 c. lb.	-	19
Me., Boston	Native fleece, 42 c. lb.	42 c. lb.	20
Boston	48 c.; clean, 80 c. lb.	46 c. lb.	21
Boston	18 to 48 c. lb.; clean, 80 c. lb.	46 c. lb.	22
Boston	In grease, 40 to 45 c.; clean, 80 c. lb.	40 c. lb.	23
Boston	Clean, 70 c. to \$1.10 lb	In grease, 30 to 40 c. lb.	24
Boston, N. Y. City	17 to 45 c. lb.; clean, 65 c. lb.	-	25
Tex., Boston, N. Y. City	Clean, 65 to 90 c. lb.	36 to 37 c. lb.	26

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE I. — *Materials.* MAINE — *Concluded.*

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>		
27	Woollen goods	Wool	East India
28	Woollen goods	Wool	N. E., Col., foreign countries
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>		
29	Woollen goods	Wool	East India
30	Woollen goods	Wool	O., Me., Cal. . . .
	<i>Rags, etc.</i>		
31	Book and news paper	Rags, paper	Everywhere

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
2	Cotton goods	Cotton	Tex., N. O., Mobile
3	Cotton goods	Cotton	Tex., Ark. . . .
4	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
5	Print cloths	Cotton	—
6	Yarns and fine sheetings	Cotton	Southern States
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>		
7	Cotton and worsted goods	Cotton	Southern States
8	Flannels, mixed twilled	Cotton	Southern States
9	Flannels, union blue mixed	Cotton	Southern States
10	Hosiery	Wool	Australia
11	Hosiery	Wool	Australia
12	Hosiery	Wool	Northern States
13	Hosiery	Wool	Gulf States
14	Hosiery, shirts, and drawers	Wool	Australia
	<i>Wool.</i>		
15	Flannels and woollen goods	Wool	Me., Mich., O., Cal., and other States
16	Flannels, woollen	Wool	Me., N. H., O., Cal. . . .
17	Flannels	Wool	O., Mich., Wis., N.H., Cal., Tex., and Territories
18	Flannels	Wool	O., Mich., Cal., Tex. . . .
19	Shirts and drawers	Wool	Southern States
20	Woollens	Wool	Montevideo and Ter. . . .
21	Woollen goods	Wool	Me., Mich., O., Cal. . . .
22	Woollen goods	Wool	Me., Mich., O., Cal. . . .
23	Woollen goods	Wool	O., Pa., N. H., Cape of Good Hope
	<i>Shoddy and Cotton Waste.</i>		
24	Blankets	Shoddy	Everywhere
25	Horse-blankets and satinets	Shoddy	All over the country

TABLE I.—*Materials. MAINE—Concluded.*

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Boston, Pa.	Clean, 18 to 80 c lb.	17 to 19 c. lb. .	27
Me., Mass, N. Y. City	18 to 55 c. lb ; clean, 60 c. lb.	40 c. lb.	28
Boston, Pa.	Clean, 18 to 80 c. lb.	17 to 79 c. lb. .	29
Boston	45 c. lb.	45 c. lb.	30
U. S.	Rags, 2 to 4 c lb.; Paper, 2 to 2½ c. lb.	1½ to 3 c. lb. .	31

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

La., Tex., Ark., Miss.	13¼ c. lb.	- -	1
Tex., New Orleans, Mobile, Southern States	12½ c. lb.	- -	2
Mo., Tex., S. C., N. O.	12½ c. lb.	- -	3
- - - - -	12½ c. lb.	- -	4
- - - - -	12½ c. lb.	- -	5
New York City	12½ c. lb.	12 c. lb.	6
Tex., New Orleans, etc.	13¼ c lb.	- -	7
Boston	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	8
Boston and the South	14 c. lb.	13 c. lb.	9
Boston	In grease, 44 c. lb.	- -	10
Boston	44 c. lb.	- -	11
Boston	In grease, 30 c. lb.	- -	12
Boston	- - - - -	- -	13
Boston	In grease, 44 c. lb.	- -	14
Boston, Pa., N. Y. City, Conn.	Unwashed, 45 c. lb. ; clean, 48 to 80 c. lb.	- -	15
Boston, Pa., Conn.	Clean, 50 to 80 c. lb.	- -	16
Mich., Wis., Boston	Scoured, 75 to 80 c. lb	- -	17
Wis., Mich., Me., Boston	Clean, 75 to 80 c. lb.	- -	18
Boston	Clean, 75 c. lb.	- -	19
Boston	75 c. lb.	- -	20
Boston	20 to 50 c. lb. ; clean, 80 c. lb.	46 c. lb.	21
Boston	Clean, 80 c. lb.	- -	22
Boston	46 c. lb.	45¼ c. lb.	23
Boston, N. Y. City	4½ c. lb.	- -	24
Boston, N. Y. City	4½ c. lb.	- -	25

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE I. — *Materials.* MASSACHUSETTS.

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cottonades	Cotton	Southern States
2	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
3	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Ala., La.
4	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Tex.
5	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
6	Cotton cloth	Cotton	Southern States
7	Cotton goods	Cotton	— —
8	Cotton goods	Cotton	— —
9	Cotton goods	Cotton	— —
10	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
11	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
12	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
13	Cotton goods	Cotton	— —
14	Cotton goods	Cotton	— —
15	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	Cotton	Southern States
17	Cotton prints	Cotton	La., Tex.
18	Cotton and worsted goods	Cotton	Southern States
19	Duck and yarn	Cotton	— —
20	Flannels	Cotton	Southern States
21	Ginghams	Cotton	— —
22	Print cloths	Cotton	— —
23	Print cloths	Cotton	— —
24	Print cloths	Cotton	Southern States
25	Print cloths	Cotton	— —
26	Print cloths	Cotton	— —
27	Print cloths	Cotton	Southern States
28	Print cloths	Cotton	Southern States
29	Print cloths	Cotton	Southern States
30	Sheetings, shirtings, etc.	Cotton	Southern States
31	Sheetings, silesias, and fancy cottons	Cotton	Ala., Tex., etc.
32	Towels and duck	Cotton	Southern States
	<i>Wool.</i>		
33	Woollen cloths	Wool	— —
34	Woollen cloths	Wool	— —
35	Worsted yarn	Wool	U. S., Canada, Cape of Good Hope
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>		
36	Woollen and worsted goods and cotton yarns	Wool	O., Pa., Cal.

RHODE ISLAND.

	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States
2	Cotton goods	Cotton	Southern States

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

TABLE I. — *Materials.* MASSACHUSETTS.

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
N. Y. City, Southern States	11 c. lb. . . .	- -	1
Tex., Southern States	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	10 c. lb. . . .	2
Ala., La.	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	- -	3
Tex.	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	- -	4
Southern States	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	5
Southern States	12 ³ / ₄ c. lb.. . . .	11 ³ / ₈ to 12 ¹ / ₈ c. lb.	6
- - - - -	- -	- -	7
Southern States	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	- -	8
Southern States	11 ³ / ₄ c. lb.. . . .	- -	9
Southern States	11 c. lb.	- -	10
Southern States	- -	- -	11
Southern States	11 ¹ / ₄ c. lb.. . . .	- -	12
Southern States	11 c. lb.	- -	13
- - - - -	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	- -	14
Ala., Tex.	11 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.. . . .	10 ¹ / ₂ c. lb. . . .	15
N. Y. City, Boston	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	10 ¹ / ₄ c. lb. . . .	16
Southern States, N. Y.	11 c. lb.	9 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.	17
Southern States	12 c. lb.	- -	18
Southern Ports	11 ¹ / ₅ c. lb.	- -	19
N. Y. City	11 c. lb.	- -	20
N. Y. City, Southern States,	12 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.	- -	21
Southern Ports	11 ³ / ₈ c. lb.. . . .	- -	22
Southern Ports	11 ¹ / ₅ c. lb.	- -	23
Southern States	11 c. lb.	9 ³ / ₄ to 10 ¹ / ₂ c. lb..	24
Southern States	11 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.. . . .	10 to 11 c. lb. . .	25
- - - - -	10 ¹ / ₄ c. lb.. . . .	- -	26
Southern States	10 ³ / ₄ c. lb.. . . .	9 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.	27
Southern States	11 c. lb.	10 c. lb.	28
Southern Ports	11 ⁴ / ₁₀ c. lb.	- -	29
Southern States	- -	- -	30
Ala., Tex.	11 ⁴ / ₁₀ c. lb.	11 ⁸ / ₁₀ c. lb.	31
Boston	11 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.. . . .	11 ¹ / ₄ c. lb.	32
Cape of Good Hope, Australia	35 to 50 c. lb. . . .	- -	33
In usual markets	37 to 60 c. lb. . . .	- -	34
Boston, N. Y. City	47 to 55 c. lb. . . .	- -	35
Boston, Pa.	45 ¹ / ₄ to 49 c. lb. . .	45 to 49 c. lb. . .	36

RHODE ISLAND.

La., Tex., Tenn.	12 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.. . . .	12 c. lb.	1
La., Tex., Tenn.	12 ¹ / ₂ c. lb.. . . .	12 c. lb.	2

TABLE I. — *Materials.* RHODE ISLAND — *Concluded.*

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
3	Cotton goods	Cotton	- -
4	Cotton goods	Cotton	Tex., Miss., La., Ark.
5	Cotton goods	Cotton	Tex., Miss., Ark., La.
6	Yarns	Cotton	La.
7	Yarns	Cotton	Southern States
8	Yarns	Cotton	Southern States
9	Yarns and spool thread	Cotton	Ala., Tex.
10	Spool thread, yarns, and knitting cotton	Cotton	Ala., Miss., Tex.
	<i>Cotton and Cotton Waste.</i>		
11	Wadding, batting, and wiping waste	Cotton and cotton waste,	Southern States
	<i>Wool.</i>		
12	Cassimeres	Wool	Mich., O., Cal., Tex., Nev.
13	Woollen goods	Wool	O., Va., Pa.
14	Worsted yarns	Wool	- -
15	Worsted yarns and braids	Wool	Can., Mich., O., Ky.
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>		
16	Worsted goods	Wool	U.S., Eng., Australia, Can., Ireland
	<i>Horsehair and Cotton Warp.</i>		
17	Hair cloth	Horsehair	Russia, S. A.
	<i>Wood and Rags.</i>		
18	News paper	Wood	- -

CONNECTICUT.

	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods, fine	Cotton	Southern States
2	Duck	Cotton	- -
3	Duck	Cotton	Mo., Ala., Tex.
4	Duck	Cotton	- -
5	Duck and sail twine	Cotton	Ga. uplands
6	Ginghams and dress goods	Cotton	Texas
7	Ginghams and dress goods	Cotton	Southern States
8	Hosiery yarn	Cotton	N. C.
9	Mosquito nettings, etc., cotton,	Cotton	Southern States
10	Print goods	Cotton	Tenn.
11	Print goods	Cotton	- -

TABLE I. — *Materials.* RHODE ISLAND — *Concluded.*

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Southern States	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	- -	3
N. Y. City, South	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 c. lb.	4
N. Y. City, South	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 c. lb.	5
N. Y. City	12 $\frac{3}{8}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	6
Cotton centres	- -	- -	7
R. I.	9 to 13 c lb.	9 to 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	8
Ala., Tex.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	11 c lb.	9
N. Y. City	12 $\frac{3}{8}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 $\frac{1}{8}$ c. lb.	10
N.E., N. Y., Southern States,	- -	- -	11
Boston	28 to 45 c. lb.	27 to 44 c. lb.	12
O., Mass., N. Y. City	40 to 50 c. lb. ; clean, 90 c. to \$1 lb.	- -	13
U. S., Eng., Australia	30 to 60 c. lb.	- -	14
Boston, Ky., Scotland	40 to 50 c. lb.	Washed, 40 c. lb.	15
Boston, Eng.	33 to 48 c. lb.	- -	16
Russia, S. A.	Rough, 45 c. lb. ; drawn, 90 c. lb.	- -	17
Me., R. I.	3 c. lb.	2 $\frac{7}{8}$ c. lb.	18

CONNECTICUT.

La., Tenn., Ga.	10 to 12 c. lb.	9 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 10 c. lb.	1
- - - - -	- -	- -	2
N. Y. City and South Southern States	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	3
N. Y. City	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	- -	4
N. Y. City, Tex.	12 c. lb.	- -	5
N. Y. City and South	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	- -	6
Southern States	12 c. lb.	N. Y., 11 $\frac{3}{8}$ c. lb. ; South, 11 $\frac{7}{8}$ to 11 c. lb.	7
N. Y. City	11 $\frac{5}{8}$ c. lb.	- -	8
N. Y. City	11 c. lb.	- -	9
Ky.	12 $\frac{7}{8}$ c. lb.. . . .	- -	10
Rhode Island	11 $\frac{5}{8}$ c. lb.	11 $\frac{7}{8}$ c. lb.	11

TABLE I. — *Materials.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
12	Print goods	Cotton	Texas
13	Print cloth	Cotton	Tex., Ga.
14	Print cloth	Cotton	— — — — —
15	Print cloth	Cotton	Southern States
16	Prints, sheetings, etc.	Cotton	— — — — —
17	Patent hard-laid twine	Cotton	— — — — —
18	Seine twine	Cotton	Texas
19	Seine twine and welting cord,	Cotton	— — — — —
20	Seine twine, cotton	Cotton	Ala., N. C.
21	Seine twine and netting, cotton,	Cotton	Miss., Tex., N. O.
22	Sheetings	Cotton	Ga., Tex.
23	Sheetings	Cotton	Southern States
24	Sheetings	Cotton	Tex., Ala., Tenn.
25	Sheetings	Cotton	Texas
26	Sheetings, etc.	Cotton	— — — — —
27	Sheetings, light	Cotton	Tenn., Tex., Mex- ico, Miss.
28	Sheetings and print goods	Cotton	Texas
29	Sheetings and drills	Cotton	Tex. upland
30	Shirtings, cheviot, and blue and brown denims	Cotton	Texas
31	Shirtings, fine white vestings, etc.	Cotton	Southern States
32	Spool cotton	Cotton	S. C.
33	Ticking, blue drills and shirt- ing stripes	Cotton	Ala.
34	Various kinds of cotton cloths,	Cotton	Tex., Ark., Tenn.
35	Various kinds fine cotton goods,	Cotton	— — — — —
36	Warp, cotton	Cotton	Tex., Tenn.
37	Warp, cotton	Cotton	— — — — —
38	Warp, cotton	Cotton	Southern States
39	Warp and yarns, cotton	Cotton	Texas
40	Yarn (for carpets)	Cotton	Uplands
41	Yarns, cotton	Cotton	Texas
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>			
42	Cassimeres, beavers, and cloak- ings	Wool	Cal., Monte Video
43	Cassimeres, fancy	Wool	All over the country
44	Doeskins and union cassimeres,	Wool	Ohio, Cal.
45	Flannels	Wool	— — — — —
46	Knit goods	Cotton	— — — — —
47	Repellants, woollen	Wool	Cal.
48	Satinets, black	Wool	West of St. Louis
49	Socks, woollen	Wool	Tex., Cal.
50	Waterproofing and tweeds	Wool	Cal.
51	Woollen goods, cotton warp	Wool	U. S.
<i>Wool.</i>			
52	Beavers, doeskins, etc.	Wool	U. S.
53	Cassimeres, medium	Wool	Mich.

TABLE I. — *Materials.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Rhode Island	14 c. lb.	13 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	12
Rhode Island	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	13
Tenn.	—	—	14
Rhode Island	12 c. lb.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	15
Conn.	11 c. lb.	10 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	16
—	—	—	17
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	—	18
—	—	—	19
Southern States	12 $\frac{1}{8}$ c. lb.	—	20
N. Y. City	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	12 c. lb.	21
Ga., Tex.	12 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	—	22
La., Ga., Ala., R. I., Miss.	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	23
N. Y. City	11 $\frac{1}{8}$ c. lb.	11 $\frac{3}{8}$ c. lb.	24
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	11 $\frac{3}{8}$ c. lb.	25
—	—	—	26
Tenn.	12 c. lb.	11 c. lb.	27
—	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	28
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	—	29
Tex., Ga.	12 $\frac{85}{100}$ c. lb.	11 $\frac{85}{100}$ c. lb.	30
—	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	12 $\frac{9}{25}$ c. lb.	31
S. C. (Sea Island), R. I.	28 to 45 c. lb.	—	32
Ga.	8 to 12 c. lb.	—	33
La., Tex., Tenn.	12 $\frac{81}{100}$ c. lb	11 $\frac{81}{100}$ c. lb.	34
—	—	—	35
N. Y. City	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.. . . .	—	36
—	—	—	37
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	38
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	39
N. Y. City	12 $\frac{19}{100}$ c. lb.	11 $\frac{94}{100}$ c. lb.	40
Conn.	13 $\frac{1}{4}$ c. lb.. . . .	—	41
Boston	Clean, \$1 lb.	—	42
Boston, Conn, and West	—	—	43
Conn.	Clean, 85 c. lb.	—	44
—	45 to 87 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	—	45
Conn., R. I.	20 to 40 c. lb.	—	46
Boston, N. Y. City	70 c. lb.	—	47
Conn., N. Y. City, etc.	75 c. lb.	—	48
N. Y. City	55 to 60 c. lb.	—	49
Boston	60 c. lb.	—	50
N. Y. City, Boston, etc.	60 c. lb.	—	51
N. Y. City, Boston, Pa.	—	—	52
Boston	84 to 95 c. lb.	In grease, 42 to 47 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	53

TABLE I. — *Materials.* CONNECTICUT — *Concluded.*

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
54	Cassimeres, French . . .	Wool . . .	Tex., Cal., Mass., Eng., Conn., East Indies . . .
55	Cassimeres (fancy), miltons, and kerseys . . .	Wool . . .	Australia . . .
56	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Ohio, Mich. . .
57	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Australia, Cal., and other States . . .
58	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Ga., Cal., Tex., Ore- gon . . .
59	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Cal.
60	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Texas
61	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Australia
62	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Australia
63	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	Ohio, Wis.
64	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	O., Pa., Cal., Austra- lia, Cape G. H. . .
65	Cassimeres, fancy . . .	Wool . . .	U. S.
66	Knit underwear and zephyrs .	Wool . . .	- - - - -
67	Worsteds and fancy cassimeres,	Wool . . .	Australia
68	Worsted goods for men's wear, very nice coatings .	Wool . . .	Oregon, Ky., Ga., Utah
69	Worsted goods, fine, for men's wear, also woollen goods .	Wool . . .	Cal., Monte Video, Tex., Australia . .
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>		
70	Beavers (woollen) . . .	Wool . . .	Cal., S. A.
71	Cassimeres, fancy, and shoddy,	Wool . . .	O., Mich., Cal., Tex., Territories
	<i>Wool and Shoddy.</i>		
72	Cassimeres, satinets . . .	Wool . . .	Conn., O., Territories
73	Satinets	Shoddy, wool,	Australia and West .
74	Satinets	Wool . . .	Australia, O. . . .
	<i>Silk.</i>		
75	Machine twist and sewing silk,	Silk . . .	China, Japan . . .
	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
76	Corsets and corset-steel works,	- -	- -
77	Print goods and umbrella covers	- -	- -
78	Webbings, narrow	Cotton yarn,	- -
79	Webbings, tapes, bands, sus- penders, etc.	Cotton yarn, all spun .	- -
80	Webbing, elastic and non- elastic	- -	- -

TABLE I. — *Materials.* CONNECTICUT — *Concluded.*

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Boston	60 c. lb.	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. lb.	54
Boston	Clean, 75 c. to \$1.10 lb.	- - - - -	55
N. Y. City, Boston, Conn.	55 c. to \$1 lb.	- - - - -	56
Australia, Cal., and other States	Clean, 60, 70, 80 c., \$1.12 lb.	- - - - -	57
Boston	70 c. lb.	69 $\frac{3}{4}$ c. lb.	58
Boston, N. Y. City	Clean, 90 c. lb.	- - - - -	59
N. Y. City, Boston	Clean, 65 c. lb.	- - - - -	60
Everywhere	\$1.20 lb.	- - - - -	61
- - - - -	90 c. lb.	- - - - -	62
Ohio, Wis.	Clean, 85 to 90 c. lb.	- - - - -	63
N. Y. City, Boston, Pa.	85 c. lb.	- - - - -	64
Boston, etc.	60 c. to \$1 lb.	- - - - -	65
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	66
Boston, Pa., N.Y., Australia,	Clean, \$1 lb.	- - - - -	67
N. Y. City, Boston	90 c. lb.	- - - - -	68
N. Y. City, Boston, Conn.	Clean, 75 c. to \$1 lb.	- - - - -	69
Boston, Cal.	- - - - -	- - - - -	70
Conn., N. Y. City, Boston	O., 85 c. lb ; Tex., 60 to 70 c. lb.	- - - - -	71
Conn.	60 c. lb.	- - - - -	72
Conn.	20 c. lb.	- - - - -	73
Conn., N. Y. City, Pa.	Clean, 80 c. lb.	- - - - -	74
N. Y. City	\$4 to \$6.50 lb.	- - - - -	75
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	76
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	77
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	78
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	79
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	80

TABLE I. — *Materials.* NEW YORK.

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
	<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods	Cotton	-
2	Heavy fine shirtings and heavy fine sheetings	Cotton	Gulf States
3	Knit underwear	Cotton	-
4	Knit underwear	Cotton	-
5	Knit underwear	Cotton	Tex.
6	Print cloths	Cotton	Tex.
7	Print cloths	Cotton	Tex., Gulf States
8	Print cloths	Cotton	-
9	Print cloths	Cotton	Tex., Ark.
10	Print cloths	Cotton	Tex.
11	Print cloths	Cotton	-
12	Print cloths	Cotton	Tenn.
13	Print cloths and cheese band-ages	Cotton	-
14	Sheetings and denims	Cotton	Ark.
15	Sheetings	Cotton	Tex.
16	Sheetings	Cotton	Ga., Tex., Miss.
17	Sheetings	Cotton	Tex., Ala.
18	Sheetings (light)	Cotton	Ark., Tex.
19	Sheetings (light)	Cotton	Tex., Ga.
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>		
20	Knit shirts and drawers	Cotton	Ga., Ala.
	<i>Cotton, Wool Stock, and Shoddy.</i>		
21	Knit goods	Cotton	-
	<i>Cotton and Shoddy.</i>		
22	Knit underwear	Cotton	Ala.
	<i>Wool.</i>		
23	Beavers and fancy cassimeres,	Wool	W. Va., O., Australia, Cape of Good Hope, Russia
24	Carpets	Wool	-
25	Carpets	Wool	-
26	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	O.
27	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	Everywhere
28	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	Everywhere
29	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	O.
30	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	-
31	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	-
32	Fancy cassimeres and flannels,	Wool	Monte Video, O., Cal.,
33	Flannels and cassimeres	Wool	-
34	Flannels	Wool	O., Pa., Mich.
35	Ladies' shawls	Wool	O., Cape of Good Hope
36	Shawls and cashmere cloths	Wool	O., Mich., N. Y., Cal.,
37	Woollen cassimeres	Wool	-
38	Woollen goods and carpetings,	Wool	Russia, S. A.

TABLE I.—*Materials.* NEW YORK.

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
Tenn., N. Y. City	-	-	1
-	12½ c. lb.	-	2
-	11¼ c. lb.	-	3
-	12 c. lb.	-	4
N. Y. City	13 c. lb.	12½ c. lb.	5
N. Y. City	-	-	6
N. Y. City	12¼ c. lb.	-	7
-	-	-	8
N. Y. City	11¾ c. lb.	11¾ c. lb.	9
N. Y. City, Tex.	-	-	11
-	-	-	10
Tenn.	12 ⁹⁰ / ₁₀₀ c. lb.	12 ¹⁵ / ₁₀₀ c. lb.	12
N. Y. City	13¼ c. lb.	12¾ c. lb.	13
N. Y. City	11¾ c. lb.	-	14
Tex.	11¾ c. lb.	-	15
N. Y. City, South	12 c. lb.	-	16
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	-	17
N. Y. City	14 c. lb.	13½ c. lb.	18
N. Y. City	11¾ c. lb.	-	19
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	-	20
Mass.	11¼ c. lb.	-	21
N. Y. City	12 c. lb.	-	22
-	Clean, \$1 lb	-	23
-	30 c. lb.	-	24
-	-	-	25
N. Y. City	70 to 72 c. lb.	-	26
Usual markets	-	-	27
-	Scoured, 70 c. lb.	-	28
Troy, N. Y.	90 c. lb.	-	29
N. Y. City	71½ c. lb.	-	30
N. Y. City	Clean, 58 c. lb.	-	31
Utica, N. Y.	Raw, 35 to 40 c. lb.. . . .	-	32
N. Y.	Clean, 55 c. lb.	-	33
N. Y. City, Boston, Conn.	35 to 55 c. lb.	-	34
-	Clean, 85 to 90 c. lb.	-	35
-	Scoured, 75 c. lb.	-	36
-	35 to 40 c. lb.	-	37
-	-	-	38

TABLE I. — *Materials.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

	MATERIALS AND GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Chief Raw Material used.	Where such Material is produced.
39	Woollen goods	Wool	N. Y., O., Mich., Cal., Oregon, Eng.
40	Worsted coatings	Wool	Australia
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>		
41	Fancy cassimeres	Wool	N. Y.
42	Knit underwear	Wool	Tex., Cal., Territories
43	Knit underwear	Wool	— —
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>		
44	Fancy cassimeres, overcoat- ings, and cloakings	Wool	O., Mich., Cal., Ter's,
45	Woollen yarn	Wool	— —
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Linen.</i>		
46	Body Brussels carpets	Wool	Mass., Conn.
	<i>Wool, Flax, and Jute Yarn.</i>		
47	Carpets	Wool	Russia, S. A., Col. . . .
	<i>Wool, Cotton, Jute, and Linen Thread.</i>		
48	Carpets, tapestry, Axminster, and moquette	Wool	Russia, East Indies, America
49	Ingrain and tapestry carpets .	Wool	S. A., Russia, Spain, Holy Land
	<i>Wool, Hair, Mohair, and Cotton Warp.</i>		
50	Woollen lap-ropes	Wool	Russia, East Indies,
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, and Cattle Hair.</i>		
51	Kerseys and ladies' cloakings,	Wool	Tex., Col.
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, Hair, and Cotton Warp.</i>		
52	Blankets (bed and horse) . .	Wool	Col., Tex.
53	Blankets (Southern markets),	Wool	Russia, Cal., Col., Tex.
	<i>Flax and Hemp.</i>		
54	Twines, yarns, shoe-thread, and linnen	Flax	Holland
	<i>Silk.</i>		
55	Silk woven goods	Silk	China, Japan, Europe
56	Not given	— —	— —

TABLE I. — *Materials.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

Market where such Material is purchased.	COST OF CHIEF RAW MATERIAL, AUG. 15, 1880.		
	At Factory.	Where purchased.	
England	\$1 lb.	- -	39
			40
N. Y. City, Pa., Boston	Scoured, 65 c. lb.	- -	41
	60 c. lb.	- -	42
			43
N. Y. City	60 c. lb.	- -	44
	Best 60 to 80 c. lb.	- -	45
N. Y. City	60 c. lb.	- -	46
Col., S. A., Russia	40 c. lb.	- -	47
			48
S. A., Russia, Holy Land, Spain	Clean, 30 to 45 c. lb.	- -	49
N. Y. City, England	25 to 32 c. lb.	- -	50
N. Y. City	23 to 68 c. lb.	15 to 50 c. lb.	51
N. Y. City	Scoured and clean, 50 c. lb.	- -	52
N. Y. City	50 c. lb.	- -	53
Russia, Belgium, Ireland, France	11 to 11½ c. lb.	- -	54
N. Y. City	\$3.75 to \$5.50 lb.	- -	55
			56

TABLE II. — MANUFACTURERS. *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* MAINE.

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Where are Products Sold Principally?
	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cotton cloth	New York, Boston
2	Cotton cloth	N. E., N. Y., West
3	Cotton cloth	Boston, N. Y.
4	Cotton cloth	Boston, N. Y.
5	Cotton cloth	Boston, N. Y., Md.
6	Cotton cloth and bags	Boston, N. Y.
7	Cotton goods	-
8	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y.
9	Cotton goods (colored)	Boston, N. Y.
10	Print cloths and silesia cambrics	Boston, N. Y.
11	Sail and overall duck	U. S., S. A., England.
12	Sheetings	U. S.
13	Sheetings	U. S.
14	Sheetings	N. E., N. Y., West
15	Sheetings	N. E., West
16	Sheetings, etc.	Boston, N. Y.
17	Sheetings and shirtings	U. S., China
18	Warps and grain bags	Me., Mass., N. Y.
19	Warps and grain bags	N. E., N. Y.
	<i>Wool.</i>	
20	Flannels	Boston, New York
21	Woollen cloths	N. Y.
22	Woollen goods	N. Y.
23	Woollen goods	Me., N. H., Mass.
24	Woollen goods	N. Y.
25	Woollen goods	Boston, New York
26	Woollen goods	Boston, N. Y., Pa., Ill.
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>	
27	Woollen goods	Boston, N. Y.
28	Woollen goods	Boston, N. Y.
	<i>Wool, Cotton, Shoddy.</i>	
29	Woollen goods	Boston, N. Y.
30	Woollen goods	N. Y.
	<i>Rags, etc.</i>	
31	Book and news paper	N. E., N. Y.

TABLE II. — MANUFACTURERS. *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* MAINE.

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
\$5 00	New England .	N. Y., Boston .	No.	1
Boston \$2 40, N. Y. 4 50	N. E.	N. E.	No.	2
1 80	N. E.	N. E.	No.	3
1 80	N. E.	N. E.	No.	4
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 4 00	N. E.	-	No.	5
Boston \$2.50, N. Y. 4 50	N. E.	We do not sell .	No.	6
Boston \$2.50, Me. 1 00	Me., N. H. . .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	7
-	N. E.	Boston	No.	8
To Boston 2 00	N. E.	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	9
2 00	N. E.	Sell on commis'n	No.	10
2 50	N. E., Md. . .	-	No.	11
To Boston 3 25	N. E.	N. E., N. Y., West	No.	12
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 4 00	N. E.	N. E., N. Y., West	No.	13
From \$2.00 to 4 00	N. E.	N. E., N. Y., West	No.	14
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 4 50	N. E.	N. E., N. Y., West	No.	15
To Boston 1 75	N. E.	N. E., N. Y. . .	No.	16
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 4 00	N. E.	N. E., N. Y., West	No.	17
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 4 00	Me.	Me., Mass., N. Y.	No.	18
From \$2.00 to 4 00	Me.	N. E., N. Y. . .	No.	19
From \$7.00 to 10 00	N. E., N. Y. .	Boston, N. Y. .	Very little.	20
4 00	N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	21
4 75	N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	22
	N. E.	N. E.	Yes.	23
	N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	24
From \$6.00 to 8 00	N. E.	Boston, N. Y. .	Very little.	25
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. 7 00	N. E., Ill., Mich.	Chicago, Ill. . .	No.	26
From \$2.00 to 4 00	N. E.	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	27
B. \$2.00, N. Y. \$4 to 4 50	N. E.	Boston, N. Y. .	Some kinds, yes	28
From \$2 00 to 4 00	N. E.	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	29
9 00	Mass.	N. Y.	Yes.	30
From \$2.00 to 4 00	N. E.	N. E.	No.	31

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* NEW HAMPSHIRE.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Where are Products Sold Principally?
<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods	Boston, New York
2	Cotton goods	R. I. and N. Y.
3	Cotton goods	R. I. and N. Y.
4	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y.
5	Print cloths	Boston
6	Yarns and fine sheetings	R. I. and N. Y.
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>		
7	Cotton and worsted goods	Boston, N. Y.
8	Flannels, mixed twilled	Boston, N. Y., Pa.
9	Flannels, union blue mixed	Boston, N. Y., Pa.
10	Hosiery	United States
11	Hosiery	United States
12	Hosiery	Boston, N. Y.
13	Hosiery	Boston, N. Y., Phila., Chicago
14	Hosiery, shirts and drawers	United States
<i>Wool.</i>		
15	Flannels and woollen goods	Boston, N. Y.
16	Flannels, woollen	Boston, N. Y.
17	Flannels	Boston, N. Y.
18	Flannels	Boston, N. Y.
19	Shirts and drawers	Boston
20	Woollens	New York
21	Woollen goods	New York
22	Woollen goods	Boston, N. Y.
23	Woollen goods	New York
<i>Shoddy and Cotton Waste.</i>		
24	Blankets	Boston, N. Y., Ill.
25	Horse blankets and satinets	Boston, N. Y., Ill., Pa.

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .		1
\$8 00	New England .	R. I. and N. Y. .	No.	2
8 00	Fall River, Mass.	R. I. and N. Y. .	Indirectly.	3
2 60	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	4
3 40	Fall River, Mass.	Boston . . .	No.	5
8 00	New England .	R. I. and N. Y. .	Yes.	6
-	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	7
8 00		Boston, N. Y., Pa.	No.	8
Boston, \$7; N. Y., \$9 40; Phila., \$11	N. E., N. Y. .	Boston, N. Y., Pa.	No.	9
Boston, \$6; N. Y., \$9 40; Phila., \$12; Chicago, \$20	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	Yes.	10
Boston, \$6; N. Y., \$9 40; Phila., \$12; Chicago, \$20	N. E., Pa. . .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	11
\$6 00	N. H., Mass. .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	12
Boston, \$6; N. Y., \$9 40; Phila., \$12; Chicago, \$20	Mass., N. H., Pa.	Boston, N. Y., Pa., Ill. . . .	Cotton, yes; Wool, no.	13
Boston, \$6; N. Y., \$9 40; Phila., \$12; Chicago, \$20	Mass., N. H., Pa.	Boston, N. Y., Pa., Ill. . . .	H., yes; s. and d., no.	14
\$4 50 to \$5 50	New England .	N. Y.	No.	15
\$5 50	New England .	N. Y.	Yes.	16
Boston, \$4 80; N. Y., \$6	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	17
Boston, \$4 80; N. Y., \$6	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	18
\$5 00	New England .	Boston . . .	No.	19
5 40	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	20
8 50	N. E. (N. H. principally)	New York . . .	Yes.	21
\$8 to \$10	New England .	New York . . .	At times.	22
6 50	New England .	New York . . .	No.	23
Boston, \$4 50; N. Y., \$7	New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	24
Boston, \$4 50; N. Y., \$7	Mass.	Boston, N. Y. .	No.	25

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* MASSACHUSETTS.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Where are Products Sold Principally?
	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cottonades	Boston, N. Y. City
2	Cotton cloth	Fall River, Mass.
3	Cotton cloth	Boston, N. Y. City
4	Cotton cloth	N. Y. City
5	Cotton cloth	Boston, N. Y. City
6	Cotton cloth	N. Y. City, Boston, Pa., Md.
7	Cotton goods	-
8	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
9	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
10	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
11	Cotton goods	N. Y. City, Boston, Pa., Mass.
12	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
13	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
14	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
15	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
16	Cotton goods	Boston, N. Y. City
17	Cotton prints	N. Y. City, Boston, Ill.
18	Cotton and worsted goods	Boston, N. Y. City
19	Duck and yarn	N. Y., Boston
20	Flannels	Boston, N. Y. City
21	Ginghams	Boston, N. Y. City
22	Print cloths	Boston, N. Y. City, Pa.
23	Print cloths	Boston, N. Y. City, Pa.
24	Print cloths	Boston, N. Y. City, R. I.
25	Print cloths	Boston, N. Y. City
26	Print cloths	N. E., N. Y. City, Pa.
27	Print cloths	Philadelphia, Pa.
28	Print cloths	-
29	Print cloths	N. Y. City, Pa., R. I.
30	Sheetings, shirtings, etc.	Boston, N. Y. City
31	Sheetings, slesias, and cottons	N. Y. City
32	Towels and duck	Boston, N. Y. City
	<i>Wool.</i>	
33	Woollen cloths	Boston, N. Y. City, Pa.
34	Woollen cloths	Boston, N. Y. City
35	Worsted yarn	Boston, N. Y. City
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>	
36	Woollen and worsted goods, and cotton yarns,	Boston, N. Y. City, Pa., Md.

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* MASSACHUSETTS.

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	1
-	R. I., Conn., N.H.	Boston, R. I. .	A little.	2
Boston \$1.40, N. Y. \$2 50	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	3
2 50	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	4
2 00	-	-	-	5
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	Yes.	6
-	-	-	-	7
Boston \$1.50, N. Y. . 2 00	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	8
Boston \$1.50, N. Y. . 2 60	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	9
	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	10
	Mass., Me. . .	N. Y. City, Mass.	More or less	11
Boston \$1 50, N. Y. . 2 00	Mass. . . .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	12
	Rhode Island .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	13
Boston \$1.35, N. Y. . 2 00	-	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	14
Boston \$2.00, N. Y. . 3 50	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	15
Boston 80c., N. Y. . 2 00	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	16
2 50	N. E., N. Y. City, Pa. . . .	In all markets .	No.	17
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	18
2 20	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	19
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	20
3 60	New England .	N. Y. City. . .	-	21
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	22
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	23
	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	24
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	25
	N. E., N. Y. .	N. E., N. Y. . .	No.	26
-	-	Boston, Pa. . .	No.	27
-	Rhode Island	-	No.	28
-	New England .	N. Y., R. I. . .	No.	29
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	30
Including carting . 6 00	Me., Mass., R. I., N. Y. . . .	United States .	Yes.	31
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	No.	32
B. 90c., N. Y. \$2.50, Pa. 3 50	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City, Pa.	-	33
-	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	-	34
B. 80c., N. Y. City . 1 00	New England .	Boston, N.Y. City	Yes.	35
\$1 50 to 2 00	N. E., N.Y., N.J., Penn., foreign,	In all markets .	Yes.	36

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* RHODE ISLAND.

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Where are Products Sold Principally?
	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cotton goods	New York
2	Cotton goods	New York
3	Cotton goods	Providence, R. I.
4	Cotton goods	N. Y. City
5	Cotton goods	N. Y. City
6	Yarns	Phila., Pa.
7	Yarns	U. S., Canada
8	Yarns	U. S.
9	Yarns and spool thread	N. E., Middle States, West
10	Yarns, spool thread, and knitting cotton	N. Y., Phila., Pa.
	<i>Cotton and Cotton Waste.</i>	
11	Wadding, batting, and wiping waste	Boston, N. Y., Pa., Conn., Md., O., Ill., Canada
12	Cassimeres	N. Y., Boston
13	Woollen yarns	N. Y.
14	Worsted yarns	N. E.
15	Worsted yarns and braids	U. S.
16	Worsted goods	N. Y.
	<i>Horse Hair and Cotton Warp.</i>	
17	Hair cloth	United States
	<i>Wood and Rags.</i>	
18	News paper	New York

CONNECTICUT.

	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cotton goods, fine	New York City
2	Duck	New York
3	Duck	Boston, N. Y.
4	Dnck	Boston
5	Duck, and sail twine	New York
6	Ginghams and dress goods	New York City
7	Ginghams and dress goods	Boston, N. Y. City
8	Hosiery yarw	New York, Pa.
9	Mosquito netting, etc., cotton	New York
10	Print goods	R. I.
11	Print goods	N. Y. City
12	Print goods	-

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* RHODE ISLAND.

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
\$2 75	New England .	N. Y., N. E. .	Yes.	1
2 75	New England .	New England .	Yes.	2
1 00	Fall River, Mass.	N. Y., N. E. .	No.	3
3 00	N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	4
3 00	N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	5
5 00	N. E.	N. Y., Boston, Pa.	No.	6
-	-	-	-	7
	N. E.	N. Y., Boston .	No.	8
N. Y. \$2 40, Phila.	3 75 N. E., Pa. . . .	N. Y., Pa., Md., Ill.	Yes.	9
To N. Y.	2 00 N. E.	N. Y., Phila., Pa.	No.	10
	8 00 O., Del., Conn., Mass.	-	No.	11
N. Y. \$3 00, Boston	1 50 N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	12
	2 00 N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	13
	N. E., Pa. . . .		Yes.	14
	N. E., Pa. . . .	Pa, Wis. . . .	No.	15
	- N. E.	N. Y.	Yes.	16
	- Eng., Germany,		Yes.	17
	1 60 New England .	Boston, N. Y. .	Not now.	18

CONNECTICUT.

\$4 40	Mass., R. I., Conn	N. Y. City, R. I.	-	1
-	Mass., Me., Md.	New York . . .	No.	2
4 20	Md., Mass. . . .	N. Y.	No.	3
6 00	Md., Conn. . . .	Boston, N. Y. .	-	4
3 80	Md.	N. Y.	-	5
3 20	-	N. Y.	No.	6
4 80	Mass., Me., Conn.	Boston, N. Y. .	Yes.	7
	-	-	-	8
2 00	N. Y., N. J., Conn.	N. Y.	Yes.	9
1 50	Mass., R. I. . .	R. I.	No.	10
3 00	Mass., R. I. . .	R. I.	-	11
-	Fall River, Mass.	Providence, R. I.	No.	12

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Where are Products Sold Principally?
13	Print cloth	Providence, R. I.
14	Print cloth	R. I.
15	Print cloth	N. Y. City
16	Prints, sheetings, etc.	N. Y., Pa., Boston
17	Patent hard-laid twine	
18	Seine twine	N. Y., Ill., Boston
19	Seine twine and wetting cord	
20	Seine twine, cotton	Usual markets
21	Seine twine, and netting, cotton	Netting, N. Y.; twine, Conn.
22	Sheetings	N. Y. City
23	Sheetings	N. Y. City
24	Sheetings	N. Y., Pa., Md.
25	Sheetings	N. Y. City
26	Sheetings, etc.	-
27	Sheetings, light	N. Y. City, Pa., Boston
28	Sheetings and print goods	N. Y. City, R. I.
29	Sheetings and drills	N. Y. City
30	Shirtings, cheviot, and blue and brown denims	Phila., Pa.
31	Shirtings, fine, white vestings, etc.	New York
32	Spool cotton	N. Y. City, Boston, Pa.
33	Ticking, blue drills and shirting stripes, cotton	N. Y. City, West Indies, S. A.
34	Various kinds of cotton cloths	N. Y. City
35	Various kinds of fine cotton goods	-
36	Warp, cotton	United States
37	Warp cotton	
38	Warp, cotton	Conn.
39	Warp and yarns, cotton	Conn.
40	Yarn (for carpets)	N. Y., Phila., Pa.
41	Yarns, cotton	Pa., R. I.
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>	
42	Cassimeres, beavers and cloakings	N. Y., Boston
43	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
44	Doeskins and union cassimeres	N. Y.
45	Flannels	N. Y. City, Boston
46	Knit goods	-
47	Repellants (woollen)	N. Y. City

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
\$4 00	Mass., R. I.	R. I.	No.	13
3 00	Mass.	R. I.	No.	14
To print works 2 00	Mass., R. I.	N. Y. City	No.	15
-		N. Y. City	No.	16
-		-		17
-	Boston, Md.	N. Y.		18
-		-		19
-		-		20
4 40	Boston, Md.	Boston, N. Y.	No.	21
5 20	Where such mills are	N. Y. City	-	22
\$4.00 to 4 50	R. I.	N. Y. City	No.	23
7 00	Mass., N. H.	-	Yes.	24
-	Mass., and where they are made,	N. Y.	No.	25
-	-			26
4 40	Great Britain		Yes	27
	P.G., Mass., R. I.; S., all the U.S.	R. I.		28
3 20	In all manuf'g districts	N. Y.	No.	29
To N. Y. 2 50	Phila., Pa.	Phila., Pa.	No.	30
	New England	New York	Yes.	31
	There is none		-	32
62	New England	N. Y. City	No.	33
4 00	Masa.	N. Y. City	Very little.	34
-	-		-	35
	All cotton warp mills	-		36
	-			37
5 00	Everywhere			38
	-			39
3 00	-			40
8 00	Every yarn mill	Providence, R. I.		41
4 00	Same kinds of mills	N. Y.	Yes.	42
5 20	New England	N. Y. City	Yes.	43
3 25	Mass.	N. Y.	Yes.	44
3 40	There is none	N. Y. City	No.	45
	All knitting mills		Yes.	46
35 c. for a 42-ft. case	Pittsfield, Mass.	N. Y. City	No.	47

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Where are Products Sold Principally?
48	Satinets (black)	N. Y.
49	Socks (woollen)	N. Y., Boston
50	Waterproofing and tweeds	N. Y. City
51	Woollen goods, cotton warp	N. Y. City
<i>Wool.</i>		
52	Beavers, doeskins, etc.	N. Y. City
53	Cassimeres, medium	N. Y. City
54	Cassimeres, French	N. Y., Boston
55	Cassimeres, fancy, miltons and kerseys	N. Y. City
56	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y.
57	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y.
58	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
59	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y.
60	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
61	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
62	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
63	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
64	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
65	Cassimeres, fancy	N. Y. City
66	Knit underwear and zephyrs	
67	Worsteds and fancy cassimeres	N. Y. City
68	Worsted goods for men's wear, very nice coatings	N. Y. City
69	Worsted goods, fine, for men's wear, also wool goods	N. Y. City
<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>		
70	Beavers (woollens)	N. Y., Boston
71	Cassimeres, fancy, and shoddy	N. Y.
<i>Wool and Shoddy.</i>		
72	Cassimeres, satinets	N. Y.
73	Satinets	N. Y.
74	Satinets	N. Y.
<i>Silk.</i>		
75	Machine twist and sewing silk	Boston, N. Y., Pa., O., Ill., Cal.
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
76	Corsets and corset-steel works	
77	Print goods and umbrella covers	-

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
\$4 50	R. I., Mass.	N. Y. City . . .	No.	48
2 90	N. H. . . .	N. Y. . . .	No.	49
2 86		N. Y. City . . .	-	50
-	There is none .	N. Y. City . . .	No.	51
2 00	-		Yes.	52
6 60	New England .	N. Y. City . . .	-	53
N. Y. 5 c. cubic ft., Boston, per ton . 3 60	United States .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	54
5 40	United States .	N. Y. City . . .		55
3 60	Conn. . . .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	56
	Utica, N. Y. .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	57
5 00	Where they make same goods .	N. Y. . . .	Yes	58
3 00	Foreign trade .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	59
To Norwich . . . 1 00	Where there are similar mills .	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	60
5 00	N. Y., R. I., and foreign . . .	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	61
5 40	Where there are similar mills .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	62
5 60	Monson, Mass. .	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	63
2 60	-	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	64
6 00	New England .	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	65
-		N. Y., Boston .	-	66
-	N. Y., R. I., Mass.	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	67
5 20	Providence, R. I.	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	68
5 60	Foreign . . .	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	69
2 00	Me., Mass., Vt. .	N. Y. . . .	Very little.	70
4 60	Mostly Berks. Co., Mass. . .	N. Y. . . .	Yes.	71
To Hartford, Conn. . 2 40	-	N. Y. . . .	No.	72
3 60	Mostly Conn. .	N. Y. City . . .	Some.	73
3 20	New England .	N. Y. . . .	No.	74
-	Mass., Conn. .	-		75
-	-	-	-	76
-				77

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Concluded.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Where are Products Sold Principally?
78	Webbings, narrow	-
79	Webbings, tapes, bands, suspenders, etc.	-
80	Webbings, elastic and non-elastic	N. Y., Boston, Pa., Ill.

NEW YORK.

	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cotton goods	New York
2	Heavy fine shirtings and broad sheetings	New York
3	Knit underwear	-
4	Knit underwear	N. Y.
5	Knit underwear	N. Y.
6	Print cloths	N. Y.
7	Print cloths	N. Y. City
8	Print cloths	N. Y.
9	Print cloths	N. Y.
10	Print cloths	N. Y.
11	Print cloths	-
12	Print cloths	-
13	Print cloths and chcese bandages	N. Y.
14	Sheetings and denims	N. Y.
15	Sheetings	N. Y. City
16	Sheetings	N. Y.
17	Sheetings	N. Y. City
18	Sheetings, light	N. Y., Chicago, Ill.
19	Sheetings, light	N. Y.
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>	
20	Knit shirts and drawers	N. Y.
	<i>Cotton, Wool Stock, and Shoddy.</i>	
21	Knit goods	N. Y.
	<i>Cotton and Shoddy.</i>	
22	Knit underwear	N. Y.
	<i>Wool.</i>	
23	Beavers and fancy cassimeres	N. Y.
24	Carpets	N. Y.
25	Carpets	-
26	Cassimeres	N. Y.
27	Cassimeres	N. Y.
28	Cassimeres	N. Y.

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* CONNECTICUT — *Concluded.*

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
	Mass., Conn. . .	N. Y.	-	78
			-	79
	Foreign and domestic . .	In all markets . .	Yes.	80

NEW YORK.

	\$3 25		N. Y.	No.	1
	4 00	N. Y., Mass., Me.	N. Y., Phila, Pa.,	No.	2
	-			-	3
	6 00	Cohoes, N. Y. . .	N. Y.	No.	4
	6 00	N. Y.	N. Y.	No.	5
	3 20	R. I., Fall River, Mass.	Providence, R. I.	No.	6
	6 00	R. I., Mass. . . .	R. I.	No.	7
		R. I., Mass. . . .	R. I.	No.	8
	3 00	R. I., Mass. . . .	R. I.	No.	9
	2 40		R. I.	No.	10
				-	11
To New Hamburg	7 20	R. I., Mass. . . .	N. Y.	No.	12
	5 80	R. I., Mass. . . .	R. I.	No.	13
	5 00	Where there are similar mills . .	N. Y.	No.	14
	2 40	N. Y., Mass., . . .	N. Y., Pa. . . .	No.	15
	4 00	Mass.	N. Y.	No.	16
	5 00	N. Y., Mass., Conn.	N. Y.	No.	17
To N. Y.	7 00	N. Y., Wis., Mass.	N. Y.	No.	18
	5 00	Utica, N. Y. . . .	N. Y.	No.	19
	\$4 50 to 5 00	Cohoes, N. Y. . . .	N. Y.	No.	20
	-	Cohoes, N. Y. . . .	-		21
	4 00	Cohoes, N. Y. . . .	N. Y.	No.	22
	5 00	-	N. Y.	Yes.	23
	3 50	Pa., Mass.	N. Y.	Very little.	24
		-	N. Y.	No.	25
	6 60	-	N. Y.	Yes.	26
		New England . . .	N. Y.	Yes.	27
	7 00	There is none . . .	N. Y.	Yes.	28

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* NEW YORK
— *Concluded.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Where are Products Sold Principally?
29	Cassimeres	N. Y.
30	Cassimeres	N. Y.
31	Cassimeres	N. Y.
32	Cassimeres and flannels	N. Y.
33	Flannels and cassimeres	—
34	Flannels	N. Y. City
35	Shawls	N. Y.
36	Shawls and cashmere cloths	N. Y.
37	Woollen cassimeres	N. Y., O., Pa.
38	Woollen goods and carpetings	N. Y. City
39	Woollen goods	N. Y.
40	Worsted coatings	N. Y.
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>	
41	Fancy cassimeres	N. Y.
42	Knit underwear	N. Y.
43	Knit underwear	By our N. Y. agent
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>	
44	Fancy cassimeres, overcoatings, cloakings	N. Y.
45	Woollen yarn	—
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Linen.</i>	
46	Body Brussels carpets	N. Y. City
	<i>Wool, Flax, Jute Yarn.</i>	
47	Carpets	N. Y. City
	<i>Wool, Cotton, Jute, and Linen Thread.</i>	
48	Carpets, tapestry, Axminster, and moquette	N. Y.
49	Ingrain and tapestry carpets	N. Y.
	<i>Wool, Hair, Mohair, and Cotton Warp.</i>	
50	Woollen lap-ropes	N. Y.
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, and Cattle Hair.</i>	
51	Kerseys, and ladies' cloakings	N. Y.
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, Hair, and Cotton Warp.</i>	
52	Blankets (bed and horse)	N. Y.
53	Blankets (Southern markets)	N. Y.
	<i>Flax and Hemp.</i>	
54	Twines, yarns, shoe thread, etc. (linen)	N. Y.
	<i>Silk.</i>	
55	Silk woven goods	N. Y.
56	Not given	—

TABLE II. — *Markets, Transportation, Competition.* NEW YORK
— *Concluded.*

Cost per Ton for Transportation to Principal Market.	Where is the Principal Competition in the Manufacture of Goods?	Where is the Principal Competition in Selling the Goods?	Are Sales affected by the Importation of Foreign-made Goods?	
\$2 60	N. Y., Conn. . .	N. Y.	Some.	29
5 60	-	-	Yes.	30
5 20	R. I.	N. Y.	Yes.	31
-	-	-	-	32
-	-	-	-	33
2 00	Mass.	N. Y.	No.	34
7 00	N. Y., Mass. . .	N. Y.	No.	35
In Summer \$1 75, W. 6 00	N. Y., R. I. . .	N. Y.	Yes.	36
-	-	-	-	37
5 00	Where there are similar mills .	N. Y.	No.	38
	N. Y.	N. Y.	No.	39
	Conn., Pa., Mass., R. I. . .	N. Y.	Yes.	40
2 00	Conn., Mass. . .	N. Y.	No.	41
4 00	N. Y.	N. Y.	No.	42
6 00	N. Y.	N. Y. City . . .	Very little.	43
2 00	N. J.	N. Y.	No.	44
-	-	-	-	45
5 00	N. Y. City, Pa., Mass.	N. Y.	A little.	46
	Mass., foreign,	N. Y. City . . .	Yes.	47
1 20	Foreign, domestic	N. Y.	Yes.	48
	N. Y., Pa. . . .	N. Y.	Yes.	49
2 00	Me., Pa.	Boston, Pa. . .	Yes.	50
2 00	-	-	Very little.	51
1 50	Pa., N. H, Me. .	N. Y.	No.	52
2 00	N. Y., Pa. . . .	N. Y.	No.	53
2 00	Boston, N. Y., N. J.	N. Y.	Yes.	54
-	N. J., Conn. . .	N. Y.	Yes.	55
-	-	-	-	56

TABLE III. — MANUFACTURERS. *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* MAINE.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY OF PER	
		Men.	Wom- en.	Male Chil- dren.	Female Chil- dren.	Men.	Women.
<i>Cotton.</i>							
1	Cotton cloth	30	60	5	5	\$8 50	\$6 00
2	Cotton cloth	33	55	7	5	7 50	6 00
3	Cotton cloth	34	51	11	4	7 00	5 00
4	Cotton cloth	34	51	11	4	7 00	5 00
5	Cotton cloth	29	42	11	18	—	—
6	Cotton cloth and bags	32	56	8	4	7 50	5 00
7	Cotton goods	30	55	9	6	7 00	5 50
8	Cotton goods	40	50	6	4	7 00	5 00
9	Cotton goods, colored	31	64	2	3	7 50	5 50
10	Print cloths, silesia and cambrics	65	25	7	3	8 00	6 00
11	Sail and overall duck	30	60	15	5	7 50	7 00
12	Sheetings	40	50	7	3	7 25	7 00
13	Sheetings	33	55	7	5	7 25	7 00
14	Sheetings	32	56	8	4	7 50	7 00
15	Sheetings	33	55	7	5	8 00	7 00
16	Sheetings, etc.	34	51	11	4	7 00	5 00
17	Sheetings and shirtings	32	56	8	4	7 25	7 00
18	Warps and grain bags	40	50	5	5	7 50	5 40
19	Warps and grain bags	36	54	6	4	7 50	5 00
<i>Wool.</i>							
20	Flannels	50	50	—	—	8 00	6 50
21	Woollen cloths	60	30	5	5	9 00	8 00
22	Woollen goods	60	40	—	—	10 50	8 00
23	Woollen goods	70	30	—	—	10 00	6 00
24	Woollen goods	70	30	—	—	7 00	6 00
25	Woollen goods	45	30	15	10	7 50	5 00
26	Woollen goods	67	33	—	—	8 70	7 20
27	Woollen goods	50	20	20	10	9 00	7 50
28	Woollen goods	32	56	8	4	9 00	7 00
29	Woollen goods	50	20	20	10	9 00	7 50
30	Woollen goods	31	69	—	—	9 00	7 00
<i>Rags, Wood, etc.</i>							
31	Book and news paper	50	50	—	—	10 50	5 10

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

<i>Cotton.</i>							
1	Cotton goods	33	60	7	—	\$7 50	\$5 40
2	Cotton goods	30	45	12	13	7 50	5 50
3	Cotton goods	31	44	13	12	7 50	5 50
4	Cotton goods	31	55	9	5	7 50	5 30
5	Print cloths	40	40	12	8	7 00	5 50
6	Yarns and fine sheetings	33	34	17	16	7 50	5 50
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>							
7	Cotton and worsted goods	30	60	7	3	7 50	5 40
8	Flannels, mixed twilled	—	—	—	—	6 00	4 80
9	Flannels, union blue mixed	48	36	10	6	7 50	5 00
10	Hosiery	38	47	10	5	8 00	6 00
11	Hosiery	30	50	12	8	8 00	6 00
12	Hosiery	15	72	8	5	8 00	6 00
13	Hosiery	30	60	2	8	7 50	6 00
14	Hosiery, shirts and drawers	32	48	11	9	8 00	6 00

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

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TABLE III. — MANUFACTURERS. *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* MAINE.

EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Sat-ur-day.	Per Wk.	
Male Children.	Female Children.										
\$3 00	\$2 50	\$7 50	\$3 00	-	-	\$7 68	\$5 00	11	11	66	1
2 25	2 25	11 00	9 00	-	-	8 00	5 50	11	11	66	2
3 00	2 00	11 00	8 00	\$6 00	\$3 00	8 00	3 00	11	11	66	3
3 00	2 00	11 00	8 00	6 00	3 00	8 00	3 00	11	11	66	4
-	-	6 00	2 70	-	-	7 15	4 42	11	11	66	5
2 75	2 75	11 00	9 00	4 00	4 00	7 89	5 32	11	11	66	6
-	-	11 00	9 35	8 50	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	7
2 75	2 75	10 50	9 00	-	-	8 00	5 40	11	11	66	8
4 75	3 50	10 50	9 00	6 00	4 50	10 00	5 00	10 ³ / ₄	10 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	9
3 00	3 00	12 00	10 00	-	-	10 00	5 00	11	11	66	10
3 50	3 00	12 00	10 00	-	-	10 00	5 00	11	11	66	11
3 00	3 00	10 50	9 50	8 00	5 00	8 00	5 00	11	11	66	12
2 50	2 50	11 00	9 00	8 00	5 50	8 00	5 50	11	11	66	13
2 25	2 25	11 00	9 00	8 00	5 75	8 00	5 75	11	11	66	14
2 25	2 25	11 50	10 00	-	-	8 00	5 50	11	11	66	15
3 00	2 00	11 00	9 00	6 00	3 00	8 00	4 00	11	11	66	16
2 25	2 25	11 00	9 00	8 00	5 75	8 00	5 75	11	11	66	17
3 00	3 00	6 00	4 20	-	-	9 00	6 00	11	11	66	18
3 00	2 90	6 00	4 20	-	-	9 00	6 00	11	11	66	19
-	-	9 00	7 00	-	-	8 00	6 00	11	11	66	20
3 00	3 00	10 50	7 00	12 00	7 50	12 00	7 50	11	11	66	21
-	-	10 50	7 00	12 00	7 50	12 00	7 50	11	11	66	22
-	-	9 00	7 50	7 50	4 00	-	-	11	11	66	23
-	-	8 00	5 00	9 00	5 00	-	-	11	11	66	24
3 50	3 50	10 00	6 00	-	-	10 00	5 00	11	11	66	25
-	-	12 00	9 00	9 75	7 50	-	-	11	11	66	26
5 40	4 50	10 50	8 50	8 00	7 00	8 00	7 00	11	11	66	27
4 25	4 25	9 00	8 00	10 00	6 00	10 00	6 00	11	11	66	28
5 40	4 50	10 50	8 50	8 00	7 00	8 00	7 00	11	11	66	29
-	-	12 00	7 25	-	-	7 00	-	11	11	66	30
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	12	72	31

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

\$2 40	-	\$10 00	\$8 00	\$7 50	\$4 00	-	-	10 ³ / ₄	10 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	1
3 00	\$3 00	10 00	8 00	-	-	\$8 00	\$5 00	11	9 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	2
3 00	3 00	10 00	8 00	-	-	8 00	5 00	11	9 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	3
3 30	3 30	12 00	9 00	8 00	4 25	-	-	10 ³ / ₄	10 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	4
50	50.	11 00	9 00	8 50	4 25	-	-	11	11 ¹ / ₄	68	5
3 00	3 00	6 50	6 50	-	-	8 00	5 00	11 ¹ / ₂	11 ¹ / ₂	69	6
2 40	2 40	10 00	8 00	7 50	4 00	-	-	10 ³ / ₄	10 ³ / ₄	64 ¹ / ₂	7
-	-	8 10	7 50	6 00	4 80	6 00	4 80	11	11	66	8
4 00	3 50	9 00	5 00	-	-	5 50	4 00	11	11	66	9
3 25	3 25	9 50	6 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	10
3 50	3 50	9 00	6 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	11
4 00	4 00	9 75	6 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	12
3 00	3 00	10 00	6 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	13
3 90	3 50	9 00	6 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	14

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* NEW HAMPSHIRE — *Concluded.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY OF PER	
		Men.	Wom- en.	Male Child- ren.	Female Child- ren.	Men.	Women.
	<i>Wool.</i>						
15	Flannels and woollen goods	40	40	10	10	\$9 00	\$6 00
16	Flannels, woollen	45	45	5	5	8 00	5 50
17	Flannels	57	43	-	-	9 29	5 50
18	Flannels	57	43	-	-	9 30	5 50
19	Shirts and drawers	52	48	-	-	7 75	5 00
20	Woollens	65	35	-	-	7 75	5 00
21	Woollen goods	47	47	4	2	9 50	8 00
22	Woollen goods	50	50	-	-	9 00	7 00
23	Woollen goods	65	33	1	1	8 00	6 00
	<i>Shoddy and Cotton Waste.</i>						
24	Blankets	50	50	-	-	7 00	6 00
25	Horse blankets and satinets	50	50	-	-	7 00	6 00

MASSACHUSETTS.

	<i>Cotton.</i>						
1	Cottonades	35	45	10	10	\$8 00	\$5 50
2	Cotton cloth	46	30	14	10	10 49	6 92
3	Cotton cloth	15	70	10	5	6 00	5 00
4	Cotton cloth	30	60	5	5	7 92	5 25
5	Cotton cloth	35	65	-	-	9 00	6 00
6	Cotton cloth	45	44	5	6	-	-
7	Cotton goods	24	63	6	7	7 92	4 98
8	Cotton goods	36	44	12	8	7 00	5 00
9	Cotton goods	45	45	5	5	7 00	4 50
10	Cotton goods	33	57	5	5	7 50	5 00
11	Cotton goods	40	60	60	40	9 41	5 84
12	Cotton goods	29	71	-	-	7 50	4 86
13	Cotton goods	36	44	10	10	9 50	6 00
14	Cotton goods	13	38	25	24	7 50	6 00
15	Cotton goods	25	50	11	14	7 50	4 50
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	26	40	16	18	7 75	6 00
17	Prints	25	55	12	8	9 00	5 00
18	Cotton and worsted goods	43	47	5	5	8 00	6 00
19	Cotton duck and yarn	25	10	30	35	11 00	7 00
20	Cotton flannel	35	45	10	10	7 50	5 50
21	Ginghams	10	70	8	12	-	-
22	Print cloths	35	45	10	10	10 00	7 50
23	Print cloths	35	45	10	10	-	-
24	Print cloths	35	48	12	5	7 00	5 00
25	Print cloths	33	50	12	5	8 00	5 00
26	Print cloths	32	41	13	14	-	-
27	Print cloths	36	44	12	8	10 25	6 50
28	Print cloths	34	49	15	2	-	-
29	Print cloths	35	45	10	10	-	-
30	Sheetings, shirtings, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-
31	Sheetings, silesias, and fancy cottons,	15	75	6	4	8 00	7 00
32	Towels and cotton duck	30	60	5	5	9 00	6 00
	<i>Wool.</i>						
33	Woollen cloths	58	42	-	-	8 00	6 00
34	Woollen cloths	40	60	-	-	-	-
35	Worsted yarn	10	15	-	75	10 00	6 25
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>						
36	Woollen and worsted goods, and cotton yarns	50	45	3	2	7 38	6 24

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* NEW HAMPSHIRE — *Concluded.*

EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
Male Children.	Female Children.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Sat-ur-day	Per Wk.	
\$3 50	\$3 50	\$10 00	\$7 50	\$7 00	\$5 00	-	-	11	11	66	15
4 00	4 00	9 00	7 00	7 00	4 50	-	-	10 ¹ / ₂	10 ¹ / ₂	64 ¹ / ₂	16
-	-	11 41	8 00	-	-	\$6 50	\$4 50	11 ¹ / ₂	10	68 ¹ / ₂	17
-	-	11 00	8 00	6 50	4 50	-	-	11 ¹ / ₂	10	68 ¹ / ₂	18
-	-	8 50	6 75	6 00	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	19
-	-	8 50	6 75	-	-	6 00	4 50	11	11	66	20
4 50	4 50	11 00	7 50	10 00	7 50	10 00	7 50	11	11	66	21
-	-	10 00	5 00	11 00	5 50	-	-	11	11	66	22
3 00	3 00	10 00	7 00	11 00	7 50	11 00	7 50	11	11	66	23
-	-	9 00	6 50	8 00	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	24
-	-	9 00	6 50	8 00	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	25

MASSACHUSETTS.

\$2 50	\$2 50	\$10 00	\$4 86	-	-	\$10 00	\$3 50	10	10	60	1
3 25	4 16	11 41	11 08	\$10 18	\$7 62	23 10	-	10	10	60	2
2 50	2 50	8 50	3 50	8 50	4 20	-	-	10	10	60	3
2 50	2 50	6 00	3 50	8 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	4
4 50	4 00	9 00	3 00	10 00	4 50	-	-	10	10	60	5
-	-	11 42	-	10 62	2 70	-	-	10	10	60	6
2 28	2 28	11 01	9 60	-	-	9 70	3 50	10	10	60	7
3 50	3 00	10 00	5 00	7 50	4 50	-	-	10	10	60	8
4 00	3 00	10 00	5 00	7 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	9
3 00	3 00	9 00	8 00	6 00	4 50	-	-	10	10	60	10
3 83	3 02	9 50	7 25	10 71	5 81	-	-	10 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	60	11
-	-	11 70	10 08	8 00	4 00	-	-	10 ¹ / ₂	8 ¹ / ₂	60	12
3 50	3 50	12 00	8 00	11 00	7 50	-	-	10 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	60	13
3 00	2 75	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	60	14
3 00	3 00	10 00	9 00	7 20	4 50	-	-	10	10	60	15
3 50	3 50	9 00	6 60	-	-	9 00	3 60	10	10	60	16
2 50	2 50	9 60	8 40	9 00	4 50	9 00	4 50	10	10	60	17
3 00	2 40	12 00	5 40	11 00	7 00	-	-	10	10	60	18
4 00	4 50	4 20	3 65	10 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	19
2 50	2 50	-	-	9 00	3 50	9 00	3 50	10	10	60	20
-	-	10 00	7 50	10 00	6 00	-	-	10	10	60	21
2 67	3 75	13 36	10 25	10 08	5 04	-	-	10	10	60	22
-	-	11 50	9 00	-	-	10 08	5 00	10	10	60	23
2 50	2 50	9 00	7 00	7 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	24
2 50	2 50	10 00	7 00	8 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	25
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	60	26
3 67	4 00	13 25	10 00	-	-	11 08	7 62	10 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	60	27
-	-	10 62	9 70	-	-	9 52	6 20	10	10	60	28
-	-	11 86	10 43	8 00	5 50	-	-	10	10	60	29
-	-	9 30	7 20	7 50	5 30	-	-	10	10	60	30
3 00	3 00	9 00	4 50	8 25	6 00	9 50	7 00	10	10	60	31
3 50	3 50	6 00	3 50	7 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	32
-	-	10 00	6 00	11 00	5 00	-	-	10	10	60	33
-	-	-	-	7 00	4 00	-	-	10	10	60	34
-	4 00	5 00	3 00	-	-	-	-	10	10	60	35
4 32	4 56	11 00	6 94	-	-	-	7 68	10 ¹ / ₂	8 ¹ / ₂	60	36

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* RHODE ISLAND.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY OF PER	
		Men.	Wom- en.	Male Child- ren.	Female Child- ren.	Men.	Women.
<i>Cotton.</i>							
1	Cotton goods	24	60	10	6	\$9 00	\$6 72
2	Cotton goods	24	60	10	6	9 00	6 72
3	Cotton goods	32	47	9	12	7 50	6 50
4	Cotton goods	25	61	9	5	10 00	7 00
5	Cotton goods	25	61	9	5	10 00	7 00
6	Yarns	30	30	10	30	8 00	5 75
7	Yarns	34	48	9	9	10 00	6 00
8	Yarns	10	80	—	10	9 00	6 00
9	Spool thread, yarns, etc.	32	53	8	7	9 00	6 00
10	Spool thread, yarns, and knitting cotton	20	50	10	20	—	—
11	Wadding, batting, and wiping waste, cotton	90	5	5	—	9 00	6 00
<i>Wool.</i>							
12	Cassimeres	60	40	—	—	10 50	7 00
13	Woollen goods	—	—	—	—	11 00	10 00
14	Yarns	15	85	—	—	12 00	5 00
15	Worsted yarns and braids	15	85	—	—	9 00	6 00
16	Worsted goods	32	56	8	4	—	—
<i>Horse Hair.</i>							
17	Hair cloth	40	60	—	—	11 58	9 00
<i>Wood and Rags.</i>							
18	News paper	50	50	—	—	10 50	5 50

CONNECTICUT.

<i>Cotton.</i>							
1	Fine cotton goods	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	Cotton duck	21	50	11	18	\$7 20	\$5 70
3	Cotton duck	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	Duck	100	—	—	—	7 50	—
5	Cotton duck and sail twine	43	47	7	3	7 50	5 00
6	Ginghams and dress goods	44	34	14	8	8 50	6 00
7	Ginghams and dress goods	44	40	14	2	9 50	7 00
8	Hosiery yarn	63	22	15	—	10 08	6 00
9	Cottons, mosquito nettings, etc.	33	33	22	12	9 00	6 50
10	Print goods	50	25	13	12	6 00	5 50
11	Print goods	30	55	5	10	7 00	5 00
12	Print goods	60	25	5	10	7 50	6 36
13	Print cloths	45	38	9	8	7 32	6 00
14	Print cloths	—	—	—	—	7 02	5 50
15	Print cloths	33	33	17	17	7 50	6 00
16	Prints, sheetings, etc.	30	60	7	3	8 00	5 50
17	Patent hard-laid twine	26	42	16	16	7 00	4 50
18	Seine twine	41	25	17	17	6 00	4 00
19	Seine twine and wetting cord	22	72	6	—	6 00	4 50
20	Cotton seine twine	38	44	9	9	7 62	4 50
21	Cotton seine twine and netting	35	45	15	5	8 60	5 00
22	Sheetings	—	—	—	—	7 20	4 75
23	Sheetings	34	40	15	11	7 00	5 00
24	Sheetings	25	25	25	25	7 50	6 00
25	Sheetings	53	42	5	—	7 00	6 00
26	Sheetings	33	28	25	14	6 30	5 00

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

TABLE III.—*Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* RHODE ISLAND.

EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Sat-ur-day	Per Wk.	
Male Children.	Female Children.										
\$4 00	\$3 00	\$8 50	\$6 00	\$9 00	\$6 00	-	-	11	11	66	1
4 00	3 00	8 50	6 00	9 00	6 00	-	-	10½	10½	63	2
3 00	3 00	10 00	8 00	-	-	\$9 25	\$4 62	11	11	66	3
3 50	3 00	10 30	8 00	9 00	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	4
3 50	3 00	10 30	8 00	9 00	4 50	-	-	11	11	66	5
3 00	3 00	9 50	8 50	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	6
3 60	3 60	10 00	9 60	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	7
-	2 50	5 50	4 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	8
3 50	3 00	12 00	12 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	9
-	-	8 00	8 00	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	10
5 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10½	10½	63	11
-	-	7 50	3 50	9 00	5 00	-	-	11	11	66	12
-	-	11 00	7 00	13 00	7 50	13 00	7 50	11	11	66	13
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66	14
-	-	5 60	5 60	7 00*	6 00*	-	-	11	11	66	15
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11	66	16
-	-	-	-	10 00	8 00	10 00	8 00	11	11	66	17
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	12	72	18

CONNECTICUT.

-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
\$3 30	\$3 30	-	-	-	-	\$9 00	\$4 50	11	5	60	2
-	-	-	-	\$5 40	6 00	6 00	4 00	11½	9¾	66	3
-	-	-	-	6 00	-	-	-	12	9	69	4
4 00	4 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	5
3 60	3 60	\$9 12	\$6 75	-	-	10 80	4 68	11½	8½	66	6
4 08	3 54	12 00	9 00	-	-	8 82	6 00	11	11	66	7
4 00	-	11 00	9 00	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	8
3 00	2 75	12 00	10 00	-	-	14 00	7 00	11½	8¾	65	9
3 00	3 00	11 50	8 00	-	-	10 00	4 50	11½	8½	66	10
3 00	3 00	8 00	6 00	-	-	7 00	4 00	12	9	69	11
2 30	2 50	7 92	7 50	-	-	8 00	4 00	12	9	69	12
3 25	2 85	7 20	-	-	-	6 55	5 25	12	9	69	13
2 50	2 50	6 60	-	-	-	9 00	4 00	12	9	69	14
3 00	3 50	8 00	7 50	-	-	12 00	4 00	11½	8½	66	15
2 25	3 00	9 00	8 00	-	-	6 50	5 40	12	9	69	16
3 00	3 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	17
3 00	3 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	18
3 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	19
4 00	4 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	20
4 14	4 13	5 00	4 25	-	-	6 50	5 00	12	9	69	21
2 50	2 50	8 04	7 56	-	-	9 24	3 75	12	9	69	22
2 50	2 00	9 00	4 50	-	-	7 00	4 00	11	11	66	23
3 00	3 00	9 00	6 00	-	-	9 00	4 50	11	11	66	24
2 50	-	8 00	6 50	-	-	7 00	5 00	12	9	69	25
2 62	2 50	9 37	7 75	-	-	9 00	4 00	12	9	69	26

* Braiders.

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY OF PER	
		Men.	Wom- en.	Male Child- ren.	Female Child- ren.	Men.	Women.
27	Light sheetings	36	34	17	13	\$8 10	\$5 10
28	Sheetings and print goods	43	36	11	10	8 52	5 40
29	Sheetings and drills	31	24	23	22	7 50	5 50
30	Cheviot shirtings, and blue and brown denims	29	54	11	6	9 00	5 33
31	Fine shirtings, white vestings, etc.	29	21	33	17	6 75	5 75
32	Spool cotton	40	50	6	4	9 00	7 00
33	Cotton tickings, blue drills, and shirting stripes	28	56	6	10	9 00	5 00
34	Various kinds of cotton cloths	40	34	15	11	7 25	5 75
35	Various kinds of fine cotton goods	40	37	13	10	7 00	6 00
36	Cotton warps	50	44	3	3	10 50	5 00
37	Cotton warps	27	49	22	2	6 78	5 20
38	Cotton warps	50	25	12	13	9 00	4 80
39	Cotton warps and yarns	33	27	20	20	6 00	4 50
40	Yarns	20	50	25	5	7 50	4 50
41	Cotton yarns	27	24	26	23	7 00	5 00
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>							
42	Cassimeres, beavers, and cloakings	70	16	12	2	8 10	6 00
43	Fancy cassimeres	70	27	3	-	7 50	6 90
44	Doeskins and union cassimeres	54	36	8	2	8 75	5 75
45	Flannels	47	38	9	6	9 50	7 50
46	Knit goods	36	64	-	-	9 00	4 80
47	Repellants	46	54	-	-	8 10	9 00
48	Black satincts	50	40	10	-	8 10	6 90
49	Woollen socks	50	20	20	10	10 20	5 50
50	Waterproofing and tweeds	40	34	15	11	7 00	6 00
51	Cotton warp woollen goods	47	41	9	3	7 25	5 00
<i>Wool.</i>							
52	Beavers, doeskins, etc.	49	43	4	4	9 25	6 00
53	Medium cassimeres	59	39	2	-	10 50	8 75
54	French cassimeres	30	20	30	20	8 50	7 50
55	Fancy cassimeres, miltons, and kerseys	67	23	7	3	8 76	5 40
56	Fancy cassimeres	70	10	10	10	8 50	6 50
57	Fancy cassimeres	77	21	1	1	7 93	5 40
58	Fancy cassimeres	-	-	-	-	-	-
59	Fancy cassimeres	66	17	9	8	11 31	5 55
60	Fancy cassimeres	50	20	16	14	9 00	6 00
61	Fancy cassimeres	73	23	3	1	10 20	6 66
62	Fancy cassimeres	67	21	7	5	9 00	5 50
63	Fancy cassimeres	45	48	7	-	9 00	7 50
64	Fancy cassimeres	50	37	8	5	8 50	6 30
65	Fancy cassimeres	40	40	10	10	10 00	8 00
66	Knit underwear and zephyr worsted	30	44	10	16	9 00	6 65
67	Worsted and fancy cassimeres	71	17	6	5	10 50	7 00
68	Worsted coatings for men's wear	72	20	6	2	8 10	6 00
69	Fine worsted goods for men's clothing	64	22	12	2	9 60	6 42
<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>							
70	Woollen beavers	56	35	6	3	9 00	6 00
71	Fancy cassimeres and shoddy	55	40	3	2	10 00	6 00

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* CONNECTICUT — *Continued.*

EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
Male Children.	Female Children.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Satur-day	Per Wk.	
\$3 00	\$4 00	\$9 50	\$8 00			\$8 00	\$4 00	11	11	66	27
3 00	3 60	11 24	9 14			7 58	5 77	11½	9	66½	28
3 00	3 00	8 00	6 00			6 50	4 00	11½	8½	66	29
4 50	3 75	-	-	-	-	12 17	7 50	12	9	69	30
4 25	3 25	9 80	8 10	\$6 50	\$5 00	7 80	5 50	11	11	66	31
5 00	4 00	14 00	6 00	-	-	-	-	10¾	6¼	60	32
4 00	3 50	10 00	7 50	-	-	8 00	3 00	11½	8½	66	33
2 75	2 50	8 35	7 12	-	-	8 50	5 00	12	12	72	34
2 26	2 26	8 24	7 50	-	-	9 00	4 00	11½	8½	66	35
3 00	3 60	-	-	-	-	-	-	11½	8½	66	36
3 22	3 00	6 00	3 00	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	37
5 10	4 50	6 00	-	-	-	-	-	15	15	90	38
4 00	3 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	11½	8½	66	39
4 00	4 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	40
2 50	3 00	8 00	7 00	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	41
3 90	2 50	12 00	8 10	-	-	9 60	4 00	11	9½	64½	42
-	-	12 00	7 50	-	-	9 75	-	12	11	71	43
3 60	4 25	9 00	9 00	-	-	10 00	6 00	11	9½	64½	44
3 62	3 44	11 75	4 25	-	-	9 25	7 75	11¼	9¾	66	45
-	-	-	-	-	-	6 00*	-	11	11	66	46
-	-	10 50	8 75	-	-	16 37	4 00	11½	10	67½	47
4 20	-	10 80	10 20	-	-	7 80	6 00	11	11	66	48
3 75	3 60	13 80	12 00	-	-	7 50	4 50	11	11	66	49
3 60	4 00	6 75	6 00	-	-	9 00	6 00	11¾	9¾	66	50
4 00	3 00	8 25	5 00	-	-	8 25	5 00	11¼	9¾	66	51
4 00	4 00	-	-	-	-	9 00	5 00	10	10	60	52
-	-	12 00	9 72	-	-	10 00	8 00	11	10	65	53
4 50	4 00	9 50	7 00	-	-	10 00	6 50	11	11	66	54
4 70	3 90	10 00	8 50	-	-	10 20	5 00	11	9¾	64¾	55
4 50	3 50	7 62	-	-	-	9 10	7 00	11½	8½	66	56
3 60	3 60	9 85	7 50	-	-	9 00	6 00	11¼	9¾	66	57
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9	69	58
4 50	4 50	9 00	6 00	-	-	9 00	7 50	11½	8½	66	59
4 00	4 00	13 00	7 50	-	-	11 00	4 50	11¼	9	65¼	60
4 25	3 80	7 00	3 75	-	-	12 00	6 00	11	11	66	61
4 14	4 14	10 62	6 00	-	-	10 38	4 80	11	11	66	62
5 10	-	9 00	-	-	-	12 00	7 50	12	10½	70½	63
4 80	4 20	-	-	-	-	9 60	6 00	11¼	8½	64¾	64
4 00	4 00	9 00*	9 00	-	-	12 00	4 00	12	10	70	65
3 27	3 65	12 60	9 00	-	-	10 80*	6 25*	10¼	7½	58¾	66
3 60	3 60	10 50	4 20	-	-	11 40	6 50	11	11	66	67
3 90	4 80	12 17	6 39	-	-	10 00	6 00	12	10½	70½	68
4 25	3 80	9 60	9 00	-	-	10 20	7 50	11	11	66	69
3 00	2 50	10 26	8 46	-	-	10 80	7 20	11½	8½	66	70
3 00	3 00	13 00	9 00	-	-	11 33	8 00	11½	9	66	71

* Knitters.

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* CON-
NECTICUT — *Concluded.*

GOODS MANUFACTURED.	PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY OF PER	
	Men.	Wom- en.	Male Child- ren.	Female Child- ren.	Men.	Women.
<i>Wool and Shoddy.</i>						
72 Cassimeres and satinets	60	30	5	5	\$8 40	\$6 90
73 Satinets	50	33	15	2	7 50	6 00
74 Satinets	66	30	4	-	9 00	6 90
<i>Silk.</i>						
75 Machine twist and sewing silk	8	75	4	13	9 00	5 50
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>						
76 Corsets and corset-steel works	20	80	-	-	15 00	6 00
77 Print goods and umbrella covers	40	30	20	10	7 08	4 86
78 Various narrow webbings	34	66	-	-	11 50	7 00
79 Webbings, tapes, bands, and sus- penders	19	62	3	16	9 00	5 50
80 Webbings, elastic and non-elastic	25	41	17	17	10 00	6 00

NEW YORK.

<i>Cotton.</i>						
1 Cotton goods	23	44	11	22	\$8 16	\$6 30
2 Fine shirtings and broad sheetings	19	57	9	15	8 25	5 16
3 Knit underwear	40	60	-	-	6 50	4 00
4 Knit underwear	35	43	10	12	8 00	6 00
5 Knit underwear	34	56	5	5	6 00	6 00
6 Print cloths	26	57	14	3	7 13	4 45
7 Print cloths	33	38	22	7	5 60	4 00
8 Print cloths	41	43	10	6	6 76	5 18
9 Print cloths	21	35	18	26	6 90	4 22
10 Print cloths	31	41	16	12	6 73	5 03
11 Print cloths	20	47	18	15	9 75	5 00
12 Print cloths	30	46	15	9	7 01	4 95
13 Print cloths and cheese bandages	41	46	11	2	4 87	4 22
14 Sheetings and denims	34	44	15	7	7 00	4 80
15 Sheetings	36	36	22	6	7 10	4 50
16 Sheetings	33	50	10	7	7 00	4 71
17 Sheetings	25	49	10	16	7 44	5 21
18 Light sheetings	45	44	9	2	5 18	3 90
19 Light sheetings	18	57	17	8	8 24	5 66
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>						
20 Knit shirts and drawers	21	58	12	9	7 50	6 00
<i>Cotton, Wool Stock, and Shoddy.</i>						
21 Knit goods	32	56	6	6	7 50	6 00
<i>Cotton and Shoddy.</i>						
22 Knit underwear	32	48	8	12	6 90	6 00
<i>Wool.</i>						
23 Beavers and fancy cassimeres	54	36	6	4	8 58	5 56
24 Carpets	20	30	25	25	7 50	4 75
25 Carpets	-	-	-	-	9 00	5 50
26 Fancy cassimeres	62	23	12	3	8 28	6 42
27 Fancy cassimeres	33	47	15	5	9 00	6 00
28 Fancy cassimeres	48	45	7	-	7 50	6 00

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* CON-
NECTICUT — *Concluded.*

EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Sat- ur- day	Per Wk.	
\$3 30	\$3 30	\$8 00	-			\$7 50	\$5 50	11½	8½	66	72
5 20	4 50	10 50	\$10 50		-	7 50	4 50	11½	8½	66	73
4 70	-	12 90	12 00		-	9 30	6 00	11½	8½	66	74
4 80	3 00	8 40	6 00		-			10½	7½	60	75
-	-	26 00*	6 00	\$12 00†	\$4 50	-	-	10	10	60	76
2 70	2 70	-	-		-	8 50	4 00	12	9	69	77
-	-	15 00	4 00		-	9 23	4 56	11	11	66	78
3 00	3 00	-	-		-	10 70	6 00	-	-	-	79
3 50	2 50	6 00	4 00		-	9 00	5 00	11	11	66	80

NEW YORK.

\$3 42	\$3 30	\$11 62	\$8 25		-	\$9 98	\$5 00	11	8½	63½	1
2 22	2 60	10 08	9 68		-	6 57	4 91	11.10	10.10	66	2
-	-	5 75	4 00		-	3 50†	3 50	11½	9½	66	3
3 50	3 00	12 00	8 50		-	-	-	11½	8½	66	4
3 00	3 00	8 22	5 00		-	6 00†	4 00	11½	9	66½	5
2 80	3 25	9 60	5 64		-	6 96	3 73	11½	9½	66	6
2 87	3 17	4 50	3 25		-	5 25	2 66	12½	9½	72	7
2 30	2 93	9 00	6 00		-	7 44	3 38	11½	8½	66	8
2 23	2 60	6 20	5 00		-	6 70	4 50	11½	8½	66	9
2 50	2 71	4 68	3 56		-	6 65	3 60	11½	8½	66	10
2 83	2 50	10 00	5 10		-	6 75	5 00	11	11	66	11
2 90	3 36	-	-		-	6 78	4 38	11½	9½	66	12
2 95	4 00	4 80	3 00		-	5 78	4 25	12½	10	72½	13
2 53	2 72	8 02	7 03		-	7 23	4 31	11½	9½	66	14
2 89	3 12	8 00	-		-	7 10	4 02	11½	8½	66	15
2 26	3 10	7 50	4 15		-	5 40	4 26	11½	9½	66	16
2 62	2 71	3 36	2 52		-	6 84	5 70	11½	9½	66	17
2 39	3 48	4 11	3 30		-	6 16	2 51	12½	10	72½	18
2 65	2 62½	8 60	8 10		-	6 96	4 55	11½	8½	66	19
3 75	3 75	9 00	7 00		-	6 00†	5 25†	11	9½	64½	20
4 00	3 86	9 50	7 12		-	4 25	4 25	11½	9½	66	21
4 50	4 50	10 00	9 00	\$5 00	\$5 00	-	-	11	9	64	22
2 43	3 12	-	-		-	11 52	6 00	11½	9½	66	23
3 00	3 00	7 00	6 00		-	6 00	4 50	11½	9½	66	24
3 42	3 00	6 00	5 00		-	7 75	5 00	11½	9½	66	25
3 00	2 75	8 16	6 90		-	7 80	6 00	11½	9½	66	26
3 50	3 50	5 50	-		-	10 50	6 00	11½	8½	66	27
3 60	-	6 00	3 60		-	8 00	4 25	10½	8½	60	28

* Work by piece on corsets.

† Corsets.

‡ Knitters.

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor: NEW YORK — Concluded.*

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	PROPORTION OF EMPLOYES IN EACH 100.				AVERAGE PAY PER	
		Men.	Wom- en.	Male Chil- dren.	Female Chil- dren.	Men.	Women.
29	Fancy cassimeres	44	26	20	10	\$8 31	\$6 52
30	Fancy cassimeres	43	37	10	10	7 25	6 00
31	Fancy cassimeres	52	32	11	5	7 50	6 12
32	Fancy cassimeres and flannels	62	38	—	—	9 00	4 50
33	Cassimeres and flannels	—	—	—	—	6 00	4 50
34	Flannels	53	36	6	5	8 00	6 00
35	Shawls	39	51	5	5	8 10	6 00
36	Shawls and cashmere cloths	43	50	4	3	8 10	5 26
37	Cassimeres	56	—	37	7	7 50	—
38	Woollen goods and carpetings	23	69	5	3	8 25	6 50
39	Woollen goods	36	36	17	11	—	—
40	Worsted coatings	35	43	8	14	10 08	5 61
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>						
41	Fancy cassimeres	34	40	21	5	6 83	4 80
42	Knit underwear	30	63	4	3	7 02	4 86
43	Knit underwear	18	57	17	8	8 25	4 20
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>						
44	Fancy cassimeres and cloakings	47	24	22	7	9 00	6 00
45	Woollen yarns	65	35	—	—	7 92	3 72
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Linen.</i>						
46	Body Brussels carpets	59	12	24	5	10 10	5 20
	<i>Wool, Flax, and Jute Yarns.</i>						
47	Carpets	27	66	4	3	12 00	7 50
	<i>Wool, Cotton, Jute, and Linen Thread.</i>						
48	Carpets, tapcstry, Axminster, and moquette	29	58	7	6	12 00	7 80
49	Ingrain and tapestry carpets	—	—	—	—	—	—
	<i>Wool, Hair, Mohair, and Cotton Warp.</i>						
50	Woollen lap-ropes	50	34	16	—	8 90	5 00
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, and Cattle Hair.</i>						
51	Kerseys and ladies' cloakings	40	46	9	5	8 00	5 00
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, Hair, and Cotton Warp.</i>						
52	Blankets (bed and horse)	41	35	17	7	7 92	6 00
53	Blankets (southern markets)	37	29	20	14	7 75	6 00
	<i>Flax and Hemp.</i>						
54	Twines, yarns, shoe thread (linen),	43	30	13	14	6 60	5 70
	<i>Silk.</i>						
55	Silk woven goods	23	66	6	5	12 00	9 00
56	Not given	—	—	—	—	8 50	6 00

TABLE III. — *Employés, Wages, and Hours of Labor.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

OF EACH CLASS WEEK.		PAY OF SPINNERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF WEAVERS PER WEEK.		PAY OF PIECE WEAVERS PER WEEK.		HOURS OF LABOR.			
Male Children.	Female Children.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five Days	Satur-day.	Per WK.	
\$3 50	\$3 60	\$5 10	\$2 64			\$9 92	\$4 75	-	-	66	29
3 50	3 00	7 00	6 00		-	8 00	4 50	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	30
2 94	2 65	8 25	5 54	-		9 18	6 00	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	31
-	-	-	-	-		5 00	4 00	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	32
3 00	-	7 00	-	-		5 00	-	-	-	66	33
3 00	3 00	7 50	3 60	-		9 00	5 00	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	34
2 70	2 70	3 60	-	-		9 60	5 00	11	10	65	35
3 00	3 50	10 98	5 72	-		9 29	4 75	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	36
3 00	-	4 50	-	-		8 07	5 76	11	11	66	37
4 50	4 50	-	-	-		10 00	6 00	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	38
-	-	12 66	3 00	-		9 00	4 50	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	39
3 60	3 00	-	-	-		12 42	8 40	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	40
3 00	2 70	6 75	5 25			9 60	4 02	11	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	41
3 30	3 30	8 13	8 07			5 25	5 25	11	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	42
3 25	2 25	7 00	-			-	-	11	11	66	43
3 00	3 00	-	-			11 00	6 72	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	44
-	-	12 00	9 00			-	-	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	45
3 50	4 50	-	-		-	15 25	9 14	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	46
3 60	3 00	9 50	7 00		-	9 50	7 50	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	60	47
3 90	4 50	9 60	6 96			10 50	7 50	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	48
-	-	12 00	8 00	-		13 50	7 00	11	9	64	49
4 00	-	10 00	10 00			6 60	4 50	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	61 $\frac{1}{4}$	50
2 50	2 50	-	-			7 50	5 00	11	8	63	51
3 00	3 00	12 50	9 25			8 50	5 25	11	8	63	52
3 00	2 50	11 00	10 00			8 50	4 00	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	63	53
3 60	3 00	6 60	5 40			-	-	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	54
3 00	3 60	6 75	4 00	-	-	25 00	6 00	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	60	55
3 50	3 50	-	-	-	-	10 00	5 00	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{3}{4}$	56

TABLE IV. — MANUFACTURERS. *Product of Looms and Spindles.*
MAINE.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Product of one hundred Looms per Week.
<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton cloth	16,500 yards.
2	Cotton cloth	20,000 yards.
3	Cotton cloth	18,000 yards.
4	Cotton cloth	18,000 yards.
5	Cotton cloth	21,194 yards.
6	Cotton cloth and bags	40 inches, 17,346 yards.
7	Cotton goods	17,000 yards.
8	Cotton goods	16,000 yards.
9	Cotton goods, colored	22,500 yards.
10	Print cloths and silesia cambrics	11,406 to 23,400 yards.
11	Sail and overall duck	{ Sail cloth, 35,000 yds. } { Overall duck, 25,000 yds. } No. 33 yarn, 15,600 yards.
12	Sheetings	18,000 yards.
13	Sheetings	15,600 yards.
14	Sheetings	20,000 to 24,000 yards.
15	Sheetings	15,000 yards.
16	Sheetings, etc.	18,000 yards.
17	Sheetings and shirtings	21,000 yards.
18	Warps and grain bags	30,000 bags.
19	Warps and grain bags	30,000 bags.
<i>Wool.</i>		
20	Flannels	52,000 yards.
21	Woollen cloths	11,000 yards.
22	Woollen goods	6-4 goods, 11,000 yards.
23	Woollen goods	11,000 yards.
24	Woollen goods	6-4 goods, 9,370 yards.
25	Woollen goods	
26	Woollen goods	$\frac{3}{4}$ width, 15,000 to 18,000 yds.
<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>		
27	Woollen goods	45,000 yards.
28	Woollen goods	Blankets, 4,200 pairs.
<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>		
29	Woollen goods	$\frac{3}{4}$ goods, 45,000 yards.
30	Woollen goods	
<i>Rags.</i>		
31	Book and news paper	

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

<i>Cotton.</i>		
1	Cotton goods	13,000 to 14,000 yards.
2	Cotton goods	19,500 yards.
3	Cotton goods	19,500 yards.
4	Cotton goods	17,000 to 21,000 yards.
5	Print cloths	27,900 yards.
6	Yarns and fine sheetings	18,000 yards.
<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>		
7	Cotton and worsted goods	Narrow goods, 30,000 yards.
8	Flannels, mixed twilled	54,000 yards.
9	Flannels, union blue mixed	48,000 yards.
10	Hosiery	

TABLE IV.—MANUFACTURERS. *Product of Looms and Spindles.*
MAINE.

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.	
4 to 6	Steam.	60,000 pounds	66	1
Mostly 5	Water.	No. 33 yarn, 180,000 pounds.	66	2
4 to 6	Water.	-	66	3
4 to 6	Water.	-	66	4
6	Water.	48,737 pounds.	66	5
4 to 6	Water.	-	66	6
4 to 6	Water.	No. 39 yarn, 87,500 pounds.	66	7
4 to 5	Water.	90,000 pounds.	66	8
2, 3, and 4	Both.	-	64½	9
Average, 5	Water.	110,000 pounds.	66	10
2 to 4	Water.	50,000 pounds.	66	11
4 to 6	Both.	No: 38 yarn, 90,000 pounds.	66	12
4 to 6	Water.	160,000 pounds.	66	13
5 to 6	Water.	No. 23 yarn, 200,000 pounds.	66	14
4 to 6	Water.	No 33 yarn, 160,000 pounds.	66	15
4 to 6	Water.	-	66	16
4 to 6	Water.	No. 23 yarn, 200,000 pounds.	66	17
4	Water.	-	66	18
4	Water.	-	66	19
2	Water.	-	66	20
1	Water.	40,000 pounds.	66	21
1	Water.	40,000 pounds.	66	22
1	Water.	-	66	23
1	Water.	-	66	24
1 to 2	Both.	20,000 to 60,000 pounds.	66	25
1	Both.	-	66	26
2	Water.	50,000 pounds.	66	27
1	Water.	80,000 pounds.	66	28
2	Water.	50,000 pounds.	66	29
1	Water.	15,000 pounds.	66	30
-	-	-	72	31

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

4 to 5	Water.	-	-	64½	1
6	Water.	-	-	64½	2
Average, 6	Water.	-	-	64½	3
4 to 6	Water.	-	-	64½	4
4 to 8	Both.	No. 37, 30,	87,000 pounds.	68	5
4 to 6	Water.	-	-	69	6
2 to 4	Water.	-	-	64½	7
2 to 3	Water.	-	36,000 pounds.	66	8
2	Water.	-	42,000 pounds.	66	9
-	Water.	-	-	66	10

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* NEW HAMPSHIRE — *Concluded.*

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Product of one hundred Looms per Week.	
11	Hosiery	-	-
12	Hosiery	-	-
13	Hosiery	-	-
14	Hosiery, shirts, and drawers	-	-
<i>Wool.</i>			
15	Flannels and woollen goods		52,200 yards.
16	Flannels, woollen	23 to 27 inches,	45,000 yards.
17	Flannels		41,595 yards.
18	Flannels		41,500 yards.
19	Shirts and drawers	Fulled goods,	15,000 yards.
20	Woollens	Fulled goods,	15,000 yards.
21	Woollen goods		37,250 yards.
22	Woollen goods		30,000 yards.
23	Woollen goods	6-4 goods,	15,000 yards.
<i>Shoddy and Cotton Waste.</i>			
24	Blankets		24,000 yards.
25	Horse blankets and satinets		24,000 yards.

MASSACHUSETTS.

		<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cottonades	$\frac{3}{4}$ goods,	18,900 yards.
2	Cotton cloth	64 x 64,	24,887 yards.
3	Cotton cloth		17,850 yards.
4	Cotton cloth		23,800 yards.
5	Cotton cloth		20,250 yards.
6	Cotton cloth	-	-
7	Cotton goods	-	-
8	Cotton goods	-	-
9	Cotton goods	27.50 yarn,	19,500 yards.
10	Cotton goods	From 19,800 to 27,000 yards.	
11	Cotton goods		20,745 yards.
12	Cotton goods	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ yarn,	24,000 yards.
13	Cotton goods	-	-
14	Cotton goods		20,000 yards.
15	Cotton goods		19,000 yards.
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	28 inches,	17,000 yards.
17	Cotton prints	36 in. sheeting,	23,000 yards.
18	Cotton and worsted goods	{ Cotton,	32,800 yds. }
19	Duck and yarn	{ Worsted,	18,000 yds. }
20	Flannels, cotton		47,120 yards.
21	Ginghams	From $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$,	19,000 yards.
22	Print cloths		17,300 yards.
23	Print cloths		23,756 yards.
24	Print cloths		26,245 yards.
25	Print cloths		-
26	Print cloths		22,500 yards.
27	Print cloths		3,500 pounds.
28	Print cloths		26,700 yards.
29	Print cloths		-
30	Sheetings, shirtings, etc.		24,500 yards.
			26,400 yards.
31	Sheetings, silesias, and fancy cottons		3,300 pounds.
32	Towels and duck	Duck,	30,000 yards.

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* NEW HAMPSHIRE — *Concluded.*

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.	
-	Water.	-	66	11
-	Water.	-	66	12
-	Water.	-	66	13
-	Water.	-	66	14
2	Both.	70,000 pounds.	66	15
2	Water.	About 21,000 pounds.	64½	16
2	Water.	-	68½	17
2	Water.	-	68½	18
1	Water.	-	66	19
1	Water.	-	66	20
2	Water.	-	66	21
2	Water.	26,800 pounds.	66	22
1	Water.	40,000 pounds.	66	23
2	Water.	-	66	24
2	Both.	-	66	25

MASSACHUSETTS.

3 to 4	Both.	-	60	1
6 to 8	Steam.	No. 33 yarn, av. 100,000 lbs.	60	2
4 to 8	Steam.	No. 39 yarn, 70,000 pounds.	60	3
4 to 8	Steam.	No. 39 yarn, 70,000 pounds.	60	4
2 to 4	Both.	-	60	5
4 to 6	Steam.	No. 64 yarn, 31,840 pounds.	60	6
3 to 8	Both.	-	60	7
-	Steam.	-	60	8
4 to 6	Steam.	27.50 yarn, 120,000 pounds.	60	9
4 to 6	Both.	{ No. 5 to 36, 70,000 to } 200,000 pounds; very coarse, 400,000 pounds }	60	10
4 to 8	Both.	77,100 pounds.	60	11
4 to 6	Both.	17½ yarn, 140,000 pounds.	60	12
6 to 8	Steam.	-	60	13
4 to 8	Both.	-	60	14
4 to 8	Both.	29¼ yarn, 25,000 pounds.	60	15
4 to 6	Both.	24 yarn, 200,000	60	16
4 to 6	Both.	115,000 pounds.	60	17
2, 3, and 4	Both.	-	60	18
Average, 3	Steam.	-	60	19
Average, 4	Steam.	-	60	20
3	Both.	-	60	21
Average, 6	Steam.	120,000 pounds.	60	22
Average, 6	Steam.	110,000 pounds.	60	23
Average, 6	Both.	-	60	24
4 to 8; mostly 6	Both.	-	60	25
6 to 8	Steam.	113,000 pounds.	60	26
6 to 8	Steam.	100,000 pounds.	60	27
6 to 8	Steam.	100,000 pounds.	60	28
Average, 6	Steam.	110,000 pounds.	60	29
5 to 6	Both.	No. 5 to 20 coarse, 250,000 lbs.	60	30
3 to 6	Steam.	{ Mule spinners, 78,600 } pounds; frame or ring spinners, 72,222 pounds }	60	31
5	Both.	-	60	32

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* MASSACHUSETTS —
Concluded.

GOODS MANUFACTURED.		Product of <i>one hundred</i> Looms per Week.	
<i>Wool.</i>			
33	Woollen cloths	6-4 goods,	10,000 yards
34	Woollen cloths	-	-
35	Worsted yarn	-	-
<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>			
36	Woollen and worsted goods, and cotton yarns		

RHODE ISLAND.

<i>Cotton.</i>			
1	Cotton goods	No. 34 yarn,	18,000 yards.
2	Cotton goods	No. 34 yarn,	18,000 yards.
3	Cotton goods		24,700 yards.
4	Cotton goods	No. 36 yarn,	17,700 yards.
5	Cotton goods	No. 36 yarn,	17,700 ysrds.
6	Yarns	-	-
7	Yarns	-	-
8	Yarns	-	-
9	Yarns and spool thread	-	-
10	Yarns, spool thread, and knitting cotton	-	-
<i>Cotton and Cotton Waste.</i>			
11	Wadding, batting, and wiping waste	-	-
<i>Wool.</i>			
12	Cassimeres	{ Heavy $\frac{3}{4}$,	16,000 yds. }
13	Woollen goods	{ Light $\frac{3}{4}$,	22,000 yds. }
14	Worsted yarns	-	-
15	Worsted yarns and braids		100,000 yards.
<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>			
16	Worsted goods		24,000 yards.
<i>Horse Hair and Cotton Warp.</i>			
17	Hair cloth		-
<i>Wood and Rags.</i>			
18	News paper		-

CONNECTICUT.

<i>Cotton.</i>			
1	Cotton goods		
2	Duck		-
3	Duck		-
4	Duck		-
5	Duck and sail twine		-
6	Ginghams and dress goods	27 inches,	19,800 yards.
7	Ginghams and dress goods		-
8	Hosiery yarn		-
9	Mosquito netting, etc., cotton		-
10	Print goods		25,800 yards.
11	Print goods		27,850 yards.
12	Print goods		24,000 yards.

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* MASSACHUSETTS —
Concluded.

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.	
1	Both.	-	60	33
-	-	-	60	34
-	Steam.	-	60	35
-	Both.	-	60	36

RHODE ISLAND.

4 to 6	Both.	No. 34 yarn, 118,000 pounds.	66	1
Average, 5	Both.	No. 34 yarn, 118,000 pounds.	63	2
4 to 8	Mostly water.	No. 38 yarn, 95,000 pounds.	66	3
4 to 6	Both.	No. 34 yarn, 117,900 pounds.	66	4
4 to 6	Both.	No. 34 yarn, 117,900 pounds.	66	5
-	Both.	Estimate, 160,000 pounds.	66	6
-	Both.	-	66	7
-	Water.	-	66	8
-	Steam.	No. 40 yarn, 92,200 pounds.	66	9
-	Steam.	115,000 pounds.	66	10
-	Steam.	-	63	11
1	Both.	-	66	12
1	Both.	-	66	13
-	Steam.	-	66	14
Braiders, 15	Water.	{ H'vy yarn, 12,000 pounds. 24,000 pounds. }	66	15
2 to 6	Steam.	-	66	16
10	Water.	-	66	17
-	Both.	-	72	18

CONNECTICUT.

-	-	-	-	1
1 to 6	Water.	-	60	2
1 to 2	Water.	-	66	3
2	Water.	-	69	4
-	Water.	-	69	5
4 to 6	Both.	100,000 pounds.	66	6
3 to 4	Both.	-	66	7
-	Both.	-	69	8
3 to 6	Water.	-	64½	9
4 to 8	Both.	-	66	10
4 to 6	Water.	90,000 pounds.	69	11
4 to 8.	Both.	No. 36 yaro, 60,000 pounds.	69	12

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* CONNECTICUT —
Continued.

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Product of one hundred Looms per Week.
13	Print cloth	23,000 yards.
14	Print cloth	23,077 yards.
15	Print cloth	21,000 yards.
16	Prints, sheetings, etc.	30,300 yards.
17	Patent hard-laid twine	-
18	Seine twine	-
19	Seine twine and wetting cord	-
20	Seine twine, cotton	-
21	Seine twine and netting cord	-
22	Sheetings	24,000 yards.
23	Sheetings	20,000 yards.
24	Sheetings	17,000 yards.
25	Sheetings	38½ inches, 33,000 yards.
26	Sheetings, etc.	38½ inches, 22,200 yards.
27	Sheetings, light	22,000 yds }
28	Sheetings and print goods	{ 38 inches, 18,360 yards.
29	Sheetings and drills	{ 28 inches, 16,100 yards.
30	Shirtings, cheviot and denims	30,000 yards.
31	Shirtings, white vestings, etc.	32,400 yards.
32	Spool cotton	18,600 yards.
33	Tickings, blue drills and shirting stripes, cotton	-
34	Various kinds of cotton cloths	-
35	Various kinds of fine cotton goods	24,000 yards.
36	Warp, cotton	-
37	Warp, cotton	-
38	Warp, cotton	-
39	Warp and yarns, cotton	-
40	Yarn (for carpets)	-
41	Yarns, cotton	-
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>	
42	Cassimeres, heavers and cloakings	-
43	Cassimeres, fancy	18,977 yards.
44	Doeskins and union cassimeres	15,380 yards.
45	Flannels	52,940 yards.
46	Knit goods	-
47	Repellants, woollen	6-4 wide, 15,800 yards.
48	Satinets, black	-
49	Socks, woollen	-
50	Waterproofing and twccds .	6-4 wide, 13,100 yards.
51	Woollen goods, cotton warp	-
	<i>Wool.</i>	
52	Beavers, doeskins, etc.	-
53	Cassimeres, medium	-
54	Cassimeres, French	-
55	Cassimeres, fancy, miltons and kerseys	10,800 yards.
56	Cassimeres, fancy	-
57	Cassimeres, fancy	-
58	Cassimeres, fancy	18,000 yards.
59	Cassimeres, fancy	-
60	Cassimeres, fancy	-
61	Cassimeres, fancy	-
62	Cassimeres, fancy	-
63	Cassimeres, fancy	Single width, 18,190 yards.
64	Cassimeres, fancy	-
65	Cassimeres, fancy	Single width, 10,000 yards.
66	Knit underwear and zephyra	-

TABLE IV.—*Product of Looms and Spindles.* CONNECTICUT—
Continued.

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of one hundred Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.		
5 to 8	Both.	-	-	69	13
4 to 8	Both.	-	-	69	14
4 to 10	Water.	No. 37 yarn, 70,000 pounds.	-	66	15
5 and 6	Both.	No. 22 yarn, 144,000 pounds.	-	69	16
-	Water.	-	-	69	17
-	Water.	-	-	69	18
-	-	-	-	69	19
-	Water.	-	-	69	20
-	Water.	-	-	69	21
4 to 8	Water.	-	131,400 pounds.	69	22
4, 5, and 6	Water.	No. 33 yarn, 124,400 pounds.	-	66	23
4 to 6	Water.	No. 43 yarn, 82,000 pounds.	-	66	24
4 to 6	Both.	-	120,000 pounds.	69	25
4 to 8	Both.	No. 54 yarn, 50,000 pounds.	-	69	26
4, 5, and 6	Both.	No. 43½ yarn, 80,000 pounds.	-	66	27
4 to 8	Water.	No. 45 yarn, 70,000 pounds.	-	66	28
4 to 6	Both.	No. 34 yarn, 80,000 pounds.	78,300 pounds.	66	29
4 to 6	Both.	-	126,100 pounds.	66	30
4 to 6	Both.	-	-	69	31
5	Mostly water.	-	-	66	31
-	Both.	-	-	60	32
3 and 4	Water.	-	-	66	33
4, 5, and 6	Both.	No. 40 yarn, 84,000 pounds.	-	72	34
4 to 6	Water.	No. 45 yarn, 56,700 pounds.	-	69	35
-	Water.	-	-	66	36
-	Both.	-	-	69	37
-	Water.	-	-	-	38
-	Water.	-	-	66	39
-	Water.	-	-	69	40
-	-	No. 36 yarn, 65,000 pounds.	-	69	41
1	Water.	-	-	66	42
1 and 2	Water.	-	-	71	43
2	Both.	-	-	66	44
2	Water.	-	-	66	45
-	Water.	-	-	65	46
2	Steam.	-	-	67½	47
2	Water.	-	-	66	48
-	Water.	-	-	66	49
1 and 2	Both.	53,850 pounds.	-	66	50
2	Both.	-	-	66	51
1	Both.	-	-	60	52
2	Water.	-	-	65	53
1	Water.	-	-	66	54
1	Water.	-	-	64¾	55
1	Water.	-	-	66	56
1	Both.	-	-	66	57
1	Both.	165,000 runs.	-	69	58
1	Water.	-	-	66	59
1	Both.	-	-	66	60
1	Both.	-	-	66	61
1	Water.	-	-	66	62
1	Both.	-	-	70½	63
1	Both.	-	-	66	64
1	Water.	-	-	70	65
1	Water.	-	-	60	66

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* CONNECTICUT —
Concluded.

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Looms per Week.
67	Worsted and fancy cassimeres	- -
68	Worsted goods for men's wear, and very nice coatings	6,800 yards.
69	Worsted goods, fine, for men's wear, also wool goods	-
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>	
70	Beavers, woollen	-
71	Cassimeres, fancy and shoddy	-
	<i>Wool and Shoddy.</i>	
72	Cassimeres, satinets	18,600 yards.
73	Satinets	{ Heavy, 14,600 yds. }
74	Satinets	{ Light, 16,600 yds. }
		17,500 yards.
	<i>Silk.</i>	
75	Machine twist and sewing silk	-
	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>	
76	Corsets and corset-steel works	-
77	Print goods and umbrella covers	23,562 yards.
78	Webbings, narrow	-
79	Webbings, tapes, and bands, suspenders, etc.	-
80	Webbings, elastic and non-elastic	-

NEW YORK.

	<i>Cotton.</i>	
1	Cotton goods	{ Print cloths, 25,800 yds. }
2	Fine sheetings and shirtings	{ Fine shirtings, 18,000 yds. }
3	Knit underwear	{ No. 32 yarn, 40 inches, 10,000 yds. }
4	Knit underwear	-
5	Knit underwear	-
6	Print cloths	30,000 yards.
7	Print cloths	22,000 yards.
8	Print cloths	25,080 yards.
9	Print cloths	22,000 yards.
10	Print cloths	26,400 yards.
11	Print cloths	-
12	Print cloths	27,000 yards.
13	Print cloths and cheese bandages	25,500 yards.
14	Sheetings and denims	24,000 yards.
15	Sheetings	32,712 yards.
16	Sheetings	32,600 yards.
17	Sheetings	30,720 yards.
18	Sheetings, light	Yard wide, 19,500 yards.
19	Sheetings, light	Yard wide, 31,560 yards.
	<i>Cotton and Wool.</i>	
20	Knit shirts and drawers	-
	<i>Cotton, Wool Stock, and Shoddy.</i>	
21	Knit goods	-
	<i>Cotton and Shoddy.</i>	
22	Knit underwear	-
	<i>Wool.</i>	
23	Beavers and fancy cassimeres	6-4 goods, 6,000 yards.

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* CONNECTICUT —
Concluded.

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of one hundred Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.	
1 and 2	Both.	-	66	67
1	Both.	-	70½	68
1	Water.	-	66	69
2 narrow or 1 broad,	1	Both.	66	70
		Both.	66	71
	2	Both.	66	72
	2	Both.	66	73
	2	Both.	66	74
-	-	-	60	75
-	-	-	54 to 60	76
4 to 8	Both.	-	69	77
-	Both.	-	66	78
-	Both.	-	-	79
-	Both.	-	66	80

NEW YORK.

3 to 6	Water.	{ Short mules, 62,500 pounds. Long mules, 80,000 pounds. No. 35 yarn, 81,000 pounds. No. 21 yarn, 130,000 pounds. 150,000 to 180,000 pounds.	63½	1
4	Steam.		66	2
-	Both.		66	3
-	Both.	150,000 pounds.	66	4
-	Both.	105,000 pounds.	66½	5
4 to 6	Both.	51,100 pounds.	66	6
4 to 6	Both.	-	72	7
4 to 6	Steam.	{ No. 28½ yarn, 80,000 pounds. No. 39½ yarn, 75,000 pounds.	66	8
4 to 6	Water.		No. 36 yarn, 72,500 pounds.	66
4 to 6	Both.	-	66	10
4 to 6	Water.	No. 40 yarn, 83,700 pounds.	66	11
3, 4, and 5	Water.	No. 42 yarn, 60,000 pounds.	66	12
4 to 6	Water.	-	72½	13
3, 4, and 5	Water.	No. 19 yarn, 135,600 pounds.	66	14
4 to 6	Both.	-	66	15
4	Water.	No. 20 yarn, 145,000 pounds.	66	16
5 and 6	Both.	No. 25 yarn, 135,000 pounds.	66	17
4 to 6	Water.	-	72½	18
Mostly 5	Both.	No. 25 yarn, 121,030 pounds.	66	19
-	Water.	120,000 pounds.	64½	20
-	Steam.	-	66	21
-	Both.	-	64	22
1	Steam.	-	66	23

TABLE IV.—*Product of Looms and Spindles. NEW YORK—*
Concluded.

	GOODS MANUFACTURED.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Looms per Week.
24	Carpetings	12,000 yards.
25	Carpetings	15,600 yards.
26	Fancy cassimeres	19,260 yards.
27	Fancy cassimeres	13,370 yards.
28	Fancy cassimeres	{ $\frac{3}{4}$ goods, 20,000 yds. } { Double, 15,000 yds. }
29	Fancy cassimeres	-
30	Fancy cassimerea	20,000 yards.
31	Fancy cassimeres	{ Single width, - } { heavy, 13,730 yds. }
32	Fancy cassimeres and flannels	15,000 yards.
33	Flannels and cassimeres	-
34	Flannels	7,800 yards.
35	Ladies' shawls	{ Single width, 24,000 yds. } { Double width, 14,400 yds. }
36	Shawls and cashmere cloths	6-4 cloth, 10,800 yards.
37	Woollen cassimcres	-
38	Woollen goods and carpetings	18,000 yards.
39	Woollen goods	-
40	Worsted coatings	Double width, 3,960 yards.
	<i>Wool and Cotton.</i>	
41	Fancy cassimeres	Light 6-4, 11,000 yards.
42	Knit underwear	-
43	Knit underwear	-
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Shoddy.</i>	
44	Fancy cassimeres, overcoatings, and cloakings,	15,000 yards.
45	Woollen yarn	-
	<i>Wool, Cotton, and Linen.</i>	
46	Body Brussels carpets	-
	<i>Wool, Flax, Jute Yarn.</i>	
47	Carpetings	{ Tapestry, $\frac{3}{4}$ width, 36,000 yds. }
	<i>Wool, Cotton, Jute, and Linen Thread.</i>	
48	Carpets, tapestry, Axminster, and moquette	{ Tapestry Brussels, 33,000 yds. }
49	Ingrain and tapestry carpets	{ Tapestry, 30,000 yds. } { Ingrain, 18,000 yds. }
	<i>Wool, Hair, Mohair, and Cotton Warp.</i>	
50	Woollen lap-ropes	15,000 yards.
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, and Cattle Hair.</i>	
51	Kerseys and ladies' cloakings	14,000 yards.
	<i>Shoddy, Wool, Hair, and Cotton Warp.</i>	
52	Blankets (bed and horse)	{ 2 y'ds long, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ y'ds wide, } { 24,000 blankets }
53	Blankets (Southern markets)	33,333 yards.
	<i>Flax and Hemp.</i>	
54	Twines, yarns, shoe thread (linen)	-
	<i>Silk.</i>	
55	Silk woven goods	{ Silk goods, 10,000 yds. } { Ribbons, 10,710 yds. }
56	Not given	-

TABLE IV. — *Product of Looms and Spindles.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

Number of Looms attended by each Weaver.	Steam or Water Power.	Product of <i>one hundred</i> Spinners per Week.	Hours of Labor per Week.	
1	Water.	1½ filling, 87,000 pounds. No. 11 w'rsted, 50,000 pounds.	66	24
1	Water.			
1	Water.	120,000 pounds.	66	25
1	Water.	54,636 pounds.	66	26
1	Both.	-	66	27
1	Water.	60,000 pounds.	60	28
-	-	-	66	29
1	Water.	45,000 pounds.	66	30
1	Both.	-	66	31
1	Water.	-	66	32
-	-	-	66	33
1	Water.	30,000 pounds.	66	34
1	Water.	-	65	35
1	Steam.	42,000 pounds.	60	36
-	-	-	66	37
1	Water.	-	66	38
1	Steam.	-	60	39
1	Steam.	-	60	40
1	Steam.	-	64½	41
-	Both.	2-run yarn, 123,600 pounds.	64½	42
-	Water.			
1	Both.	48,000 pounds.	66	44
-	Water.	71,538 pounds.	66	45
1	Steam.	-	60	46
1	Steam.	75,000 pounds.	60	47
1	Both.	Yarn, 180,000 pounds. Ingrain, 135,000 pounds. Worsted, 60,000 pounds.	60	48
1	Both.			
1	Both.	-	64	49
1	Both.	Yarn, 180,000 pounds.	61½	50
1	Both.	-	63	51
1	Both.	Yarn, 240,000 pounds.	63	52
1	Both.	360,000 pounds.	63	53
-	Both.	-	65½	54
1	Both.	4,000 pounds.	60	55
1	Water.	-	63¾	56

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS.

If all mills of like grade, and producing like goods, in New York and New England, should run sixty hours per week, how would it affect this establishment?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Favorably	1	2	2	6	2	13
B. Unfavorably	5	7	4	6	7	29
C. Not materially	11	6	4	1	2	24
D. No effect	12	6	4	15	11	48
E. Could not answer definitely	1	-	1	5	3	10
F. No reply	-	3	3	11	13	30
G. We should adopt it	1	1	-	36	18	56
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Unless they all did it, one would not do it. My theory is that ten hours would be an improvement; I wish all mills had to work only ten hours per day			-		1	1
This could have something of an advantage, and if this mill was to run sixty hours, others would have an advantage of five per cent to ten per cent in cost				1	-	1
We should be obliged to run sixty hours; it would be better for all concerned				1		1
It would have a good effect; we should certainly run the same; I should prefer to see ten hours adopted; it would be better for all	-	-	-		1	1
It would be better for all concerned; we would all be happier and better off	-	1	-			1
If all would work sixty hours we would gladly do it: that would decrease production some; there are too many goods made	-	-	-	1		1
We should be glad to have every mill run ten hours; we are not so much against ten hours as supposed, but we cannot run ten and others eleven hours	-	-	-	1	-	1
Enable it to produce same quality of goods at a less price than the mills running sixty hours	-	1	-	-	-	1
B. Increase the cost of production	-	1	3	-	-	4
The production would be less	1	1	-	2	1	5
I could not run, and pay expenses		-	-	1	2	3
We should run the same as now, unless our operatives demanded sixty hours; and then we should diminish wages <i>pro rata</i> , or shut down	-				1	1
Large mills and freights would kill us; should wish it to be done if they would let us alone	-	1				1
Unfavorably, as we have water night and day, and they are running at night as well as during the day					1	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
It would affect me so I could not live,	-		-	-	1	1
We would still be at a disadvantage from competition of mills outside of New England and New York, also foreign competition	1	-	-	-		1
We should shut down. From January to April we could run; after that we could not pay expenses under the ten-hour system	-	-	-	1		1
It would take away what advantage we have over those now running sixty hours per week, reducing our product and increasing the cost	1	-				1
We give certain privileges to our help about time, etc., so that we can run over sixty hours. We should have to cut that all off	-	-		1		1
By decreasing the number of hours the expense of production would be increased; it injures no person to work eleven hours per day		1	-	-	-	1
In order to get sixty hours per week, the hours of labor must exceed that, as there is much time lost, early and late, by the indolent and lazy			-	1	-	1
It would increase the cost of goods and decrease the price of labor	1	3	1			5
C. Not much, but think it might add a little to the cost		1	-	-		1
It would not affect us materially, but would give Maryland great advantage over New England mills	1	-	-	-	-	1
D. We are now running sixty hours		-	-	3	5	8
We should run just the same as now		1	-	9	2	12
No effect; we are away one side from the mill centre	-	-	-		1	1
Unless there was a law, we should average it with our workmen so as to make sixty-six hours	-	-		1		1
Do not think it would make any difference; some run eleven, some twelve, some ten, and there is no trouble	-			1	-	1
G. If all mills adopted the sixty-hour system, this mill would do the same	-	-		35	17	52
We would do as the rest did; part of the mills in this town are running eleven and a part twelve hours	1	1	-	1	1	4

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS—Continued.

REPLIES.		Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>				
A.	Favorably	28	13	41
B.	Unfavorably		29	29
C.	Not materially	—	24	24
D.	No effect	—	48	48
E.	Could not answer definitely	—	10	10
F.	No reply	8	30	38
G.	We should adopt it	—	56	56
Totals		36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>				
A.	Beneficial; it would put us all on the same level	15	—	15

Could machinery be so speeded as to make results uniform?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.	
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>							
A.	Yes	—	—	1	4	2	7
B.	No	30	25	13	38	29	135
C.	Could not answer definitely	1	—	—	3	2	6
D.	No reply	—	—	4	35	23	62
Totals		31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>							
A.	On some machinery we could; the most valuable could not be speeded up	—	—	—	1	—	1
B.	We are running our machinery, at the present time, at the highest rate of speed that is advisable or safe	3	25	3	29	2	62
	It would entail a severe loss on wear and tear of plant to increase the speed, as speed is regulated to be uniform, and to change it would be a serious matter	1	—	—	—	1	2
	We have been compelled to reduce speed	—	—	—	—	1	1
	We cannot speed with present old machinery	—	—	—	1	2	3
	Could not speed up, but could make as much in ten hours as in eleven hours	—	—	—	—	2	2
	Much would depend on the character of the goods made, on the quality of the stock used, and the skill of the employé	1	—	—	—	—	1
	No, could not; it depends more on the attendant than on the speed	—	—	—	1	—	1
	No, I could not speed my machinery; still I could make some rules which would go far towards equalizing production	—	—	—	1	—	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	3	7	10
B. No	21	135	156
C. Could not answer definitely	-	6	6
D. No reply	12	62	74
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Machinery can be speeded up, but we think the help are "speeded" to their full capacity	1	-	1

Must the spinning department be run more hours than the weaving department, on account of the state of the atmosphere?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. No	30	22	11	23	9	95
B. Did not answer definitely	1	-	-	4	-	5
C. No reply	-	3	7	53	47	110
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. The weather does not affect us				5	1	6
We run our spinning about one and a quarter hours less than our weaving department per week			1	-	-	1
No, we weave more than we spin				1		1
Not where spindles and cards bear correct proportion to each other	-	1	-	-	-	1
Not to any great extent; we force vapor in weaving room in dry weather	1	-	-	-	-	1
We run our mules and ring spinning less than the weaving. Mules stop one and one-half hours earlier on Saturdays, ring spinning about an hour earlier	1	-	-	-	-	1
B. Spinning generally runs best in weather free from winds, and always poorest in dog-days				1		1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. No	31	95	126
B. Did not answer definitely	-	5	5
C. No reply	5	110	115
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

Would the running of this factory 60 hours per week increase the cost of production any way? If yes, how?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	30	21	15	51	34	151
B. No	1	2	1	3	3	10
C. To a moderate degree	-	2	-	5	2	9
D. No reply	-	-	-	19	16	35
E. Did not answer definitely	-	-	2	2	1	5
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Yes, lessen the production	2	2	1	3	3	11
Yes, lessen the production, while the interest, taxes, fuel, and labor would be the same	1	-	-	8	1	10
Yes, lessen the production with the same cost to plant	15	12	8	5	18	58
Day help would receive the same pay, and produce less work in proportion to the reduction of time	-	-	-	4	3	7
Higher prices must be paid for piece work	1	-	1	-	-	2
It would increase the labor bill five per cent	1	-	1	-	-	2
Yes, less product, and pay to our operatives	-	-	-	5	-	5
Yes, because we could not speed up	-	-	-	2	1	3
Yes, for it costs but little more to run 66 hours	4	-	-	1	-	5
Yes, production would cost more per day	1	1	-	4	1	7
If wages remained the same, yes; even if wages were reduced, yes	1	-	-	-	-	1
It would, to run on present basis; the increase would be in the rate of overselling	-	-	-	1	-	1
Yes, unless wages are reduced proportionately; general expenses would not decrease with a reduction of hours	-	1	-	-	-	1
Yes, unless negatived by reduced wages; overseers and hands would expect same pay for ten hours as for eleven hours; general expenses would be the same	-	1	-	-	-	1
Yes, it would result in nearly ten per cent less production, with but little saving in the ordinary expenses of running	1	-	-	-	-	1
General expenses would be the same, and the cost of production would be increased unless wages were reduced in proportion	-	1	-	-	-	1
It would; should not be able to get off so many goods, and day's pay would have to be the same	-	-	-	1	-	1
There would be a loss of ten per cent on the outlay	-	-	3	-	-	3
Should produce no more in the 60 hours than now in 66, and have to pay same as now for 66	-	-	-	1	-	1
Yes, because we cannot compete with first-class mills; should have to pay same, or nearly same, wages,	-	-	-	1	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Yes, no less cost for office employes, also, insurance, interest, or capital invested, taxes, and probably labor; product would be proportionately less		-	-	1	-	1
Yes, all day labor and salaried labor would be the same, and production would be diminished, and supplies increased per yard	-	-	-	1		1
The less hours it runs, the more the goods would cost; for manufacturing purposes we could hire help just about as cheap for eleven hours as for ten; they do not ask the question	-			1	-	1
B. It would not increase the cost of production in the long run	-	2			-	2
No; for we should only pay for the number of hours the operatives worked	-	-		1	-	1
When we dropped from twelve to eleven hours, we did not reduce wages, nor did the product diminish	-			1	-	1
My opinion is that the help would in the end produce as much; however, at first the production would probably be diminished	-			1	-	1
C. It would be so small that it would scarcely be noticeable				4	2	6
If based on hours of labor, no; if same price per day, more		1		-	-	1
Yes; but, if generally adopted, it would slightly increase prices	-	1		-	-	1
E. Have not tried to; think it would				1		1
Help would probably request and obtain as much per day of ten hours as now for eleven hours			2	-		2

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	12	151	163
B. No	11	10	21
C. To a moderate degree	-	9	9
D. No reply	13	35	48
E. Did not answer definitely	-	5	5
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Has increased cost, as we pay day help the same as if working eleven hours a day; piece help paid a little more, though not ten per cent more	1	-	1
Increase the cost of production by decreasing the product of the mills; the items of insurance, taxes, salaries, day labor, and many other items could be run as cheaply with longer hours	2		2
B. It did when we made the change; now we work as cheaply as ever	1		1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

Would running 60 hours per week make it necessary to employ more hands to produce present amount of goods made?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	31	21	16	33	24	125
B. No	—	3	1	5	2	11
C. Could not answer definitely	—	—	—	1	3	4
D. No reply	—	1	1	41	27	70
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Not only more hands, but more machinery	10	6	6	21	6	49
More hands, more machinery, and more room	1	—	1	—	—	2
Yes; more machinery, as we could not employ more hands	—	1	—	—	—	1
More hands and more machinery; on ring frames, two-twelfths more; if we speeded up, repairs would be vastly more	—	—	—	1	—	1
B. We are running 60 hours	—	—	—	—	1	1
We could make as much as now	—	—	—	1	—	1
No; by a better system than the present we could produce as much per year	—	1	—	—	—	1
No; machinery could do no more, even if more hands were employed,	—	—	—	3	1	4
C. We calculate to take off all the work we can now	—	—	—	—	1	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	6	125	131
B. No	12	11	23
C. Could not answer definitely	1	4	5
D. No reply	17	70	87
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
B. We make more goods with fewer hands than formerly	1	—	1
We do not employ any more than when running 62½ hours per week	1	—	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

What effect would running 60 hours per week have upon wages?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Would raise them	1	1	3	5	4	14
B. Would reduce them	28	18	10	27	15	98
C. No effect	1	5	2	29	25	62
D. Did not answer definitely	1	1	1	12	8	23
E. No reply			2	7	4	13
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It would raise them on piece work	1	-	1			2
The day help would be paid the same as now, and the piece help raised		-	-		1	1
We would probably have to pay a little more; if all ran 60 hours, there would not be much change	-	-	-	1	-	1
It would increase wages and encourage strikes	-	-		1	-	1
By improvement of machinery and a closer application of the help, wages were increased so as to exceed the old price, benefiting both parties alike. (Ruos but ten hours per day)	-				1	1
B. Reduce them five per cent	1		-	-	1	2
Reduce them ten per cent	1		2	2	1	6
Reduce them twelve per cent		1	1	-		2
Reduce them for both day and piece workers		-	-	-	1	1
Would have to reduce them, and then suffer from strikes		1	-		-	1
At first I think we could hire help cheaper		-	-	1	-	1
Reduce them; lower prices would make help willing to run extra		1	-		-	1
It would have a bad effect on piece workers; it would lower things a little		-	-		1	1
It would have the effect of so reducing them that we would finally pay by the hour	-	-	1		-	1
It would lower wages, or else we could not run at all at present prices of goods	-	-		-	1	1
It would naturally be lower, without there was an advance in price of goods	-	-		1	-	1
It would reduce them proportionately; we pay overseers by the hour, mostly piece work	-	-		1		1
It would reduce them for the first year, and gradually return to eleven-hour prices	-		-	2		2
Temporarily it would have a tendency to reduce; but I think it would soon follow that production being diminished, prices would rise, and pay return to former prices. (This mill runs 60 hours per week now)		-	-		1	1
The general effect would be a reduction. The — Woollen Corporation cut down day hands, speeded up, and cut down price so that piece hands got the same				1	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Reduce them so far as desire of owners could do, so as to proportion them to old wages; could be resisted by hands and overseers	-	1	-	-	-	1
It would have a tendency to lower wages, else the cost of the goods would be increased more than the mill could stand	1	-	-	-	-	1
C. It is too little to make any reduction on, We should pay the same wages as now, Operatives would want the same pay as now, and ought to have it	-	-	-	1	-	1
Should pay the same wages, and pay more on piece work, so as to make same pay as now	-	-	-	1	-	1
Operatives would want the same pay for 60 as for 66 hours	-	-	-	4	4	8
Would not be able to reduce day help, and piece workers would lose it	-	-	-	-	1	1
Wages are so low now that I do not think it would have any effect	-	-	-	-	1	1
They would expect just the same as now, and insist upon it	-	-	-	-	1	1
Operatives are getting as little as they can possibly live on	-	-	-	2	-	2
I can hire as cheaply for 69 as for 60 hours	-	-	-	1	-	1
It would be a difficult matter to change the wages of day help	-	-	-	-	1	1
We pay for 60 hours the same as others do for 66 hours. (These mills run 60 hours per week)	-	-	-	2	-	2
In the long run it would have no effect, Do not think it would have any effect; would not ask my help to work for less	-	1	-	3	1	5
As a rule, wages would be the same: they pay more in Fall River than we do	-	-	-	-	1	1
I do not think it would have any special effect; day labor the same, also piece work	-	-	-	1	-	1
None of the operatives would willingly work for less pay than now	-	-	-	3	-	3
It would have a good deal of effect upon me; they want just as much money; we pay the same now as when we ran twelve hours	-	-	-	1	-	1
There was no change when we dropped from twelve to eleven hours; if we went to ten hours it would be the same thing	-	-	-	-	3	3
I would have to pay for day's help the same as now, and piece help might ask for an advance	-	-	-	-	1	1
They would be about the same as they are now; if all mills would run ten hours, and none overtime, it would be better for all concerned	-	-	-	1	-	1
Ought not to pay as much for 60 as for 64 hours; those who work by piece, if they did as much in 60 as in 66 hours, would get as much	-	-	-	-	1	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
It would not have any effect when it became general; the less hours, the better the wages; it would adjust itself some time, if we keep a protective tariff	-	-	-		1	1
With present roll, we should pay in proportion to time worked; we should go for hiring men who would work for eleven hours, law or no law	-	-	-	1	-	1
I do not think it would have any effect. We should pay just as much as now; operatives are Germans, most all work by the piece, and are industrious and saving				1	-	1
D. If it did not decrease production, I think wages would not decrease; that would be an experiment	-	-		1	-	1
Competition would regulate that					1	1
Matter of opinion; consult labor statistics		1				1
Wages have never been so high as now, except during the war			-	-	1	1
The wages are now very high; on day help the wages have advanced in two years 25 per cent, and yet are 25 per cent lower than during the war	-	-			1	1
We should try to get help for less if we could	-	-		1	-	1
Operatives ought not to work for any less			-	1	-	1
I do not think it would make wages any lower	-			1		1
We work as economically as we know how			-	-	1	1
Operatives wish to make about so much a week; do not think we could hire help any less for 60 hrs. That would be optional with the manufacturers; few would want to pay as much for 60 as for 66 hours	1	-	-	-		1
In our business it would be pretty hard work to run ten hours and come out even at the end of the year	-	-	-	-	1	1
If it was made general through the country, it would be full better for those carrying on business than to work longer hours; do not know just how it would affect wages	-	-		-	1	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Would raise them	5	14	19
B. Would reduce them	2	98	100
C. No effect	7	62	69
D. Did not answer definitely	2	23	25
E. No reply	20	13	33
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. If hours were alike in all manufacturing districts, I think wages would be as good, or better, running 60 hours	2	-	2
C. Reduce pay earned by piece workers, though not in as great proportion as the hours have been reduced; day help same as they would be for more hours	1	-	1

Under a decrease of time and an increase of speed, what would be the effect upon the plant?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. A good effect	-	1	-	-	-	1
B. A bad effect	26	19	11	19	5	80
C. No effect	-	-	2	1	-	3
D. Did not answer definitely	4	2	4	36	34	80
E. No reply	1	3	1	24	17	46
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
B. We run as fast as we can now; an increase of speed would cause a wearing out of the plant	21	3	11	19	5	59
C. Would not injure the plant	-	-	1	-	-	1
No particular effect upon the plant	-	-	1	-	-	1
Not affect the plant otherwise than to lessen production	-	-	-	1	-	1
D. We cannot increase speed to make up any decrease of time	4	2	3	34	30	73
Should not increase speed under any circumstances	-	-	-	-	1	1
I am gradually increasing speed with profit	-	-	-	-	1	1
We could increase speed with profit	-	-	-	-	1	1
This mill runs only ten hours per day	-	-	-	2	-	2

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. A good effect	-	1	1
B. A bad effect	14	80	94
C. No effect	-	3	3
D. Did not answer definitely	2	80	82
E. No reply	20	46	66
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
B. Cannot increase without ruining the plant	11	-	11

Under a decrease of time and an increase of speed, what would be the effect upon the employes?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. A good effect	5	1	3	-	1	10
B. A bad effect	18	16	8	8	2	52
C. No effect	-	-	-	-	1	1
D. Did not answer definitely	3	4	2	39	35	83
E. No reply	5	4	5	33	17	64
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Would be good for employes in many ways, though it might reduce wages	2	-	1	-	-	3
Would make more work for employes	1	-	1	-	-	2
Help would like it better	-	-	1	-	-	1
Fair wages and more time	-	1	-	-	-	1
The pay of spinners would be increased	-	-	-	-	1	1
Improve the health of employes	2	-	-	-	-	2
B. Injure them and their health	-	7	3	-	-	10
Not of the slightest benefit to them	7	8	2	1	2	20
Make them idle, and increase carelessness	-	-	-	2	-	2
More destructive to them than to machinery	-	-	-	1	-	1
Harder work and less wages	-	-	-	1	-	1
Wear out the employe	-	1	-	2	-	3
Reduce wages	11	-	3	1	-	15
D. Further speed would be a great waste and no advantage	-	-	-	-	1	1
Employes unwilling	-	-	-	-	1	1
Cannot increase speed	-	4	-	37	30	71
Should not increase speed	-	-	-	-	1	1
This mill runs only ten hours per day	-	-	-	2	-	2

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. A good effect	-	10	10
B. A bad effect	5	52	57
C. No effect	-	1	1
D. Did not answer definitely	2	83	85
E. No reply	29	64	93
Totals	36	210	246

Under a decrease of time and an increase of speed, what would be the effect upon the cost of goods?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. A bad effect	22	17	13	11	4	67
B. No effect	-	1	-	-	1	2
C. Did not answer definitely	2	4	1	37	34	78
D. No reply	7	3	4	32	17	63
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Increase the cost of goods	17	8	12	5	3	45
Increase the cost of goods ten per cent	-	-	-	1	-	1
Increase cost of goods by causing waste	-	2	-	-	-	2
Injure the product	-	2	1	5	-	8
Increase the cost of goods, and injure the quality of the product	1	-	-	-	-	1
B. Cost of goods would not be increased,	-	1	-	-	1	2
C. Can increase speed with profit	-	-	-	-	1	1
Cannot increase speed	-	3	-	35	29	67
Should not increase speed	-	-	-	-	1	1
This mill runs ten hours per day	-	-	-	2	-	2

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. A bad effect	5	67	72
B. No effect	1	2	3
C. Did not answer definitely	-	78	78
D. No reply	30	63	93
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

Have experiments been made to test the producing power of the factory under different hours per day? With what results?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	3	3	3	8	11	28
B. No	26	22	14	46	36	144
C. Did not answer definitely	1	—	1	4	1	7
D. No reply	1	—	—	22	8	31
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It increased cost of production	—	1	—	—	—	1
Have run less hours and produced less	—	—	—	1	—	1
We used to run twelve hours, and now run eleven	—	—	—	—	1	1
Yes; possibly a very slight gain, less quantity of goods	—	—	—	1	—	1
Yes, and find the present best for all concerned	—	—	1	—	—	1
We have run overtime, and we get more product in proportion	—	—	—	1	—	1
Yes, ran day and night for five months with unsatisfactory results	—	—	—	—	1	1
Yes, we have run $\frac{2}{3}$ time, and for six months $\frac{1}{2}$ time; our product, <i>pro rata</i>	—	—	—	—	1	1
We ran twelve, eleven, and now ten and one-half hours; and our books show that reduction of hours is <i>pro rata</i> reduction of product	—	—	—	—	1	1
Yes, when we changed from eleven to ten hours. The weave room did as much in ten as in eleven hours; the card room fell behind	—	—	—	—	1	1
We have tried, and find that long hours bring the best results, so far as we are concerned	1	—	—	—	—	1
We have run short time in hard times, but found it expensive, for goods cost more	—	—	—	1	—	1
When we ran nine hours in winter we made more product per hour than when working eleven hours	—	—	—	1	—	1
In the winter we have run by daylight only, and the production was proportionately less	—	—	—	1	—	1
The proportion is about the same; the weaver will make a little more in the shorter time	—	—	—	1	—	1
Yes; we work only during daylight in the winter, and produce as much as in the long hours in the summer,	—	—	—	—	1	1
We ran ten hours per day two years; our neighbors ran eleven, and we returned to eleven; could not compete with them	—	—	1	—	—	1
Yes; we did run twelve hours, and came down to eleven, and lost nearly one-twelfth production	—	—	—	—	1	1
Yes; we ran for several months only seven hours per day, and produced nearly as many goods as under the long hour system	—	1	—	—	—	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Yes; when we pay extra for the eleven hours we get the extra product; but, if we did not pay extra, I don't believe we should get three per cent more result	-				1	1
We came from 66 to 60 hours for four months; we reduced wages ten per cent; production diminished 7½ per cent, cost of goods increased four per cent, — about one-third of a cent a yard, — cost of labor per yard increased one-quarter of a cent = nearly seven per cent	-	-		1	-	1
We have worked overtime, and found that after two months we got no more product of piece work (when machinery was little used) than when working regular hours	-				1	1
Yes; when I came here seventeen years ago we were running twelve and one-half hours per day: then product was not so much into seventy-five cuts per week as we are producing now in eleven hours; of this, twenty-seven cuts is an increase on the old machinery		-	-		1	1
Changed from twelve and one-half hours to eleven; there was practically no diminution of production. In changing from eleven hours to ten, we lost, but not exactly in proportion. Have been working ten hours for nearly ten years. This mill is run successfully		-	-		1	1
I have run eight hours, and six hours, and found that the production diminished accurately with the time, and so the books show			-	-	1	1
B. No; we have always run eleven hours	2				-	2
We have never run less than twelve hours	-			1	-	1
No; if we put down to ten hours, we should lose just so much production	-		-	1		1
No; this mill has been built since the company adopted ten hours					1	1
No; generally Monday is the poorest of the five days		1			-	1
No; but then we do not need any test of that; the carding machines regulate production, and can only do just so much per hour		-		1		1
No; in the case of day work for about two or three weeks, there may be a gain, but after that you begin to drag. Longer than ten hours, as a rule, is hardly a gain				-	1	1
We first adopted ten hours because we were in the midst of foundries and other mills which worked but ten hours, and were constrained to act accordingly	-	-		1		1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
C. I am of the opinion that as much can be done in a year with ten hours as with eleven	-	-	-	1		1
I think we get more work the shorter time we run	-	-	-	1		1
Every hour tells, especially in spinning; in fact, every minute tells in production.	-	-	-	1		1
The same help will produce as many goods, and of superior quality, in ten hours as they will in eleven hours.	-	-	-	-	1	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	-	28	28
B. No	15	144	159
C. Did not answer definitely	2	7	9
D. No reply	19	31	50
Totals	36	210	246

Has the Massachusetts ten-hour law affected this factory in any way?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Favorably	2	3	-	5	-	10
B. Unfavorably	3	3	2	2	-	10
C. No effect	24	18	13	37	8	100
D. Did not answer definitely	2	1	3	19	1	26
E. No reply	-	-	-	17	47	64
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It helps us some, but hurts them	-	-	-	1	-	1
Has given us undue advantage		1	-	-	-	1
It has given us a better class of operatives	1	-	-	-	-	1
It has furnished us with more help	-	-	-	1	-	1
Can compete easier with Massachusetts; can make more goods in eleven hours than they can in ten	-	1	-	-	-	1
Only so far as it has enabled us to produce goods of the same class for less cost for labor per dozen	-	1	-	-	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS—Continued.

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
I should think it had helped us; it gives us an advantage over our competitors, if there be any in that State	-	-	-	1	-	1
It makes some of our hands discontented with our hours of labor	-	3	-	-	-	3
We have lost some of our best hands by it	-	-	3	2	-	5
The hours were reduced from eleven to ten and one-half hours about the time the law was passed	-	-	1	-	-	1
Except to attract to us operatives ambitious to earn higher wages than in mills running but 60 hours	-	-	1	-	-	1
C. No; we get as much work in 60 hours as we used to in 66	-	-	-	1	-	1
I do not think it has; I do not think our labor bill of day help is any higher for twelve hours than for ten	-	-	-	1	-	1
D. Some have come here in hopes of earning more money than in Massachusetts	-	-	1	-	-	1
No; I do not know that it has; our cotton goods are guided by the cost of print cloths, and we may be affected some	-	-	-	1	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Favorably	-	10	10
B. Unfavorably	4	10	14
C. No effect	-	100	100
D. Did not answer definitely	1	26	27
E. No reply	31	64	95
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
B. Ten-hour law in Massachusetts makes it difficult to compete with manufacturers running longer hours, and has affected us	1	-	1
Decreased net income; taxes, interest, etc., remaining the same for fewer hours of labor	1	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

Has it enabled you to secure better skilled labor, and in greater quantity, than before its passage?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	1	—	3	4	—	8
B. No	28	25	12	16	5	86
C. Could not answer definitely	2	—	3	3	—	8
D. No reply	—	—	—	57	51	108
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. We can get help from there easier than we used to	—	—	—	1	—	1
I can get a better class of operatives with ten hours than with eleven	—	—	—	1	—	1
Have better help there; do as much there in ten hours as here in eleven.	—	—	—	1	—	1
B. No, it goes the other way; it's talked around here, and takes operatives away	—	—	—	1	—	1
C. Have no trouble in getting good help, We know of no more influence from Massachusetts than from any other State	1	—	—	1	—	2
	—	—	1	—	—	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	—	8	8
B. No	5	86	91
C. Could not answer definitely	—	8	8
D. No reply	31	108	139
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
B. We think the best skilled labor still remains in Massachusetts, as the work is easier, and the prices paid about the same or more than in other States	1	—	1

Has it enabled you to draw skilled labor from Massachusetts?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	1	—	3	4	—	8
B. No	27	25	12	26	5	95
C. Could not answer definitely	3	—	3	8	—	14
D. No reply	—	—	—	42	51	93
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS—*Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Yes, an overseer; he gets more pay here	-	-	-	1	-	1
Yes, some weavers come; we have doubled our capacity, and most of them have come from there			-	1	-	1
Yes; I have thirty operatives who came from there	-	-	-	1	-	1
Yes; I think skilled labor can earn more here than there; our beamer tenders can earn more here than in Holyoke or Housatonic	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. No; quite the reverse	1	-	-	1	-	2
No; operatives earn as much there in ten hours as here in eleven	-	-	-	1	-	1
Our labor comes to us voluntarily, and but very little from out of the State		-	-	1	-	1
No; never had the reason alleged, though if it was the real reason it would not be likely to be given	-	1	-	-	-	1
No; help comes from Rhode Island; I have had men say, "We can work in Massachusetts ten hours, and get the same pay as you would give," but never the other way	-	-	-	1	-	1
C. We know of no more influence from there than from any other State	-	-	1	-	-	1
This mill actually runs 70 hours per week, but the extra ten hours are paid for extra			-	1	-	1
I think the ten-hour law of Massachusetts gives us an advantage as far as it goes	1				-	1
The most skilled labor go for the short hours; pay is about the same here as there				1		1
We always have help enough; cannot say that many come from that direction, but presume there are some	1		-			1
The Massachusetts ten-hour law makes the men work so hard as to get tired out, and fret, and strike; nine-tenths of the strikes are caused by this law			-	1		1
The drive and strictness under ten hours is much greater than here, so as to make a man, who is an overseer, hard and cruel			-	1	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	-	8	8
B. No	1	95	96
C. Could not answer definitely	2	14	16
D. No reply	33	93	126
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

Has it enabled you to undersell Massachusetts manufacturers?

REPLIES.	Mo.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	2	4	2	4	1	13
B. No	20	20	12	34	3	89
C. Could not answer definitely	9	1	2	9	1	22
D. No reply	-	-	2	33	51	86
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. I could undersell them two cents per yard	-	-	-	1	-	1
Think it has enabled us to do a more profitable business	1	-	-	-	-	1
Possibly, in so far as Rhode Island can manufacture cheaper than Massachusetts mills	-	-	1	-	-	1
I think we undersell them a little. We don't sell ourselves, but through a commission house in New York	-	-	-	1	-	1
Only so far as it has enabled us to produce goods of same class for less cost for labor per dozen	-	1	-	-	-	1
B. It has not been used for that purpose	-	-	1	-	-	1
We are not selling same goods at a lower price than Massachusetts	-	-	-	2	-	2
C. We have not tried it	-	-	1	-	-	1
There is no standard of comparison	-	-	-	1	-	1
Have not compared cost with mills on same style of goods	-	-	-	1	-	1
Possibly, when mills are older than ours, and <i>vice versa</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1
The Massachusetts mills generally set the price. The mill that runs 60 hours has an advantage	1	-	-	-	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	2	13	15
B. No	-	89	89
C. Could not answer definitely	1	22	23
D. No reply	33	86	119
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Massachusetts manufacturers can be undersold by those in States where longer hours are run	2	-	2

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.**Physically, what effect would less hours have upon employes?*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. A good effect	15	6	4	35	23	83
B. A bad effect	2	10	6	8	5	31
C. No effect	11	1	2	23	14	51
D. Could not answer definitely	3	5	4	11	11	34
E. No reply		3	2	3	3	11
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It has been beneficial. (Runs ten hours)	-	-			1	1
Physically, it would be a great improvement.	-	-			5	5
It would be of great benefit to them, especially to the women and children.	4	2	1	1	2	10
Beneficial; our help are all native Americans, and nearly all steady.	1	-	-	-	-	1
They would not be so tired with less hours.	1	-	-	-	1	2
I think it would be good for the help physically; my own idea is, that ten hours is enough for a mill.	-	-	-		1	1
They would feel better and start work a little easier.	-	-			1	1
Good for girls who work all night in the mill, and then cook and wash all day for the rest of the family who work in mill during the day.	1					1
Ten hours are enough; the operatives are better off working that time than eleven.	-			1		1
We find the operatives are more able to work steadily under ten than eleven hours.	-			1	-	1
I should say beneficial; more contented; when paid for extra time they cannot make extra product more than a very short time.	-	-	-	-	1	1
I think our help will live longer here under eleven hours than in the big mills under ten hours; still, I think that less hours would be beneficial; and ten hours here would be better than eleven.	-				1	1
It would be good for them eventually; I for one should be glad to give them opportunities, no matter how they used them at first.		1	-	-	-	1
Beneficial to women and children, unless the speed of machinery is increased to such an extent as to more than counterbalance the good effect.	-	-	1	-	-	1
Beneficial to those who improve their time profitably; but, as a general thing, they would smoke instead of chewing tobacco, and what the real difference would be I cannot tell.	-	-		1	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
In the card room and weave room it would prove a benefit; once we ran a whole season but nine hours, and I never was in the house before ten o'clock, and a more used-up set of help you never saw	-	0		1	-	1
B. It would give them more time to pass in idleness	-			2	-	2
Our employés being mostly male, they would derive no benefit	-	-	1	-	-	1
In the main injurious, so many waste their strength	-	-	-	1	2	3
"They would loaf around liquor shops, and waste God's daylight"	-	1			-	1
It would, in my opinion, be an injury, for the reason that they would work harder	1	-		-		1
Can be no benefit; the mule spinners get out at 2 o'clock on Saturday, and they make the most trouble	-			1	-	1
It would be an injury, for a cause that is apparent to every manufacturer, and the help would work harder	-	-	1		-	1
It would have a worse effect to work ten than eleven hours; it would give more opportunity for dissipation	-	-	-		1	1
It depends upon the location and the class of people; once it would have been a benefit, now it would not; five-eighths of our employés are French	-	-	-	1		1
In a large proportion of cases the extra hour out of the mill would be injurious; that is my experience during twenty years in charge of mills		-			1	1
It would be injurious to their health, giving them more time to spend in grog-shops and in dissipation; better classes would be at a loss as to how to spend their spare time	-	1	-	-	-	1
C. Our help are particularly healthy			-	-	2	2
We cannot perceive any difference, for we have help working on an average ten hours a day now	1	-	-	-		1
Labor is now so easy, running with improved machinery, and the mills are so well ventilated, that less hours would have no perceptible effect	-	-	1	-		1
I do not think it would have any; to many it would be an injury; some are not near so fit to work Monday mornings	-		-	-	1	1
None, in our opinion; many that now work overtime when requested, appear not to suffer from it	-	1		-		1
From twelve and one-half to eleven, and from eleven to ten hours, no especial improvement in the operatives was perceived; our help have always been a healthy body of people	-	-	-	-	1	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
D. Little effect. (Runs 60 hours per week)	-		-	-	1	1
Ten hours are long enough. (Runs 60 hours per week)	-			1	1	2
It depends entirely on how they use their leisure		4		-	-	4
It is hard to say, but I do not think there would be any material change, Do not know as they are any better off now, at eleven hours, than they were when we used to run twelve	1		-		-	1
Good homes, early to bed, and clean mills do more for the health of the operatives than any practicable change of hours could	-	-	-		2	2
	-	-	-		1	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. A good effect	5	83	88
B. A bad effect	-	31	31
C. No effect	2	51	53
D. Could not answer definitely	-	34	34
E. No reply	29	11	40
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. It has been a great benefit	1	-	1
There is much less sickness, and they work more days in a year	1	-	1
The women and children have improved materially in health and appearance	2	-	2
Undoubtedly 60 hours per week is beneficial in many if not in all respects, the only exception arising from what they do the other hour, which is outside the present question	1	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

From what is known, what proportion of the employes in this factory would make good use of more leisure time?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. All would	-	-	-	4	11	15
B. The majority would	7	5	3	31	24	70
C. About half would	3	-	-	4	4	11
D. Between 10 per cent and 50 per cent	10	4	1	12	2	29
E. Less than 10 per cent	-	2	1	-	-	3
F. Only the women would	-	1	-	5	1	7
G. Very few	1	8	9	12	3	33
H. Could not answer definitely	6	5	1	9	8	29
I. No reply	4	-	3	3	3	13
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. I do not know of one that would abuse the time, for most of them own houses and lots, and they would spend it in working about the house and in the garden	-	1	-	2	3	6
Not one of my help would waste their leisure; they are Americans	-	-	-	1	-	1
All would; our help, after supper, go out to walk; the girls are all neatly dressed, and the men sober. (Runs ten hours)	-	-	-	-	1	1
Girls would learn more of house-keeping, and the majority would make good use; few would be in saloons, but rather at home reading the papers and otherwise improving the time	-	-	-	-	1	1
B. Very few but what would make a good use of their time; we have very few intemperate operatives, and the majority read and study	-	1	-	-	6	7
A majority; all pretty well behaved; a good many single men who work night and day	-	-	-	-	1	1
A majority; it would be beneficial to the females and slightly detrimental to the males	-	-	-	-	1	1
A little more sleep and recreation; a decided majority would make good use of their time	-	-	-	-	1	1
The majority would make innocent use; the boys get their supper and spend time away from home; two-thirds go to evening school	-	-	-	-	1	1
Our hands are most all temperate; there are but very few that would make bad use of it; we have a very steady class of help	-	-	-	-	1	1
C. From one-quarter to one-third would really make good use of their extra time to improve themselves	-	-	-	-	1	1
A part of the men would take care of their gardens, another part would be lounging around saloons and stores; the women, as a rule would make the best use of their time	-	-	-	-	2	2

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
D. Less than one-quarter; if we had night schools, it would be a grand thing	-	-	-	2	1	3
F. Only the women would; a majority of the men do not make a good use of their leisure time	-	-	-	5	1	6
G. The majority would not; our help is mostly French	-	-	-	5	-	5
H. The majority are better off in the mill than out of it	-	-	-	1	-	1
We are not acquainted with the life of our people outside (New York City)	-	-	-	-	1	1
Saturdays, Sundays, and Mondays are our worst days	-	-	-	1	1	2
We have less trouble with the help outside the mill than formerly. (Runs ten hours)	-	-	-	1	-	1
Our help is hurt more by their night work—dancing, etc.—than by extra labor	-	-	-	-	1	1
They play and work at home; those inclined to go to gin-mills would	-	-	-	1	-	1
I do not think that any of them need any more rest than they get; we have not lost a weaver for twenty-five years, because we do not light up in the winter	-	-	-	1	-	1
I believe that many who now make bad use of their leisure would improve if they had more; but this would be gradual, and brought about by various causes	-	1	-	-	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. All would	1	15	16
B. The majority would	-	70	70
C. About half would	-	11	11
D. Between 10 per cent and 50 per cent	1	29	30
E. Less than 10 per cent	-	3	3
F. Only the women would	-	7	7
G. Very few	3	33	36
H. Could not answer definitely	3	29	32
I. No reply	28	13	41
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

What is the prevailing opinion among the employés as to a ten-hour law?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Favorable	8	7	7	19	9	50
B. Unfavorable	8	1	2	-	1	12
C. Day hands favor it, piece hands do not	3	5	-	1	1	10
D. No opinion expressed	7	6	3	34	16	66
E. Could not answer definitely	5	6	3	10	11	35
F. No reply	-	-	3	16	18	37
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. The majority would prefer it, if the pay was not reduced	1	1	3	6	-	11
They all favor it and are anxious to have it established	-	-	1	-	-	1
I cannot get anybody to work over ten hours. (Runs ten hours.)	-	-	-	-	1	1
Some of our overseers are from Massachusetts, and talk it among the employés and create a desire for it,	-	-	-	1	-	1
None of the operatives want to go back to eleven hours; I do not think, if we should increase the pay ten per cent, that they would consent. (Runs ten hours)	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. No desire for it outside of Englishmen	-	-	1	-	-	1
The operatives want no interference by law with their hours of labor	-	-	1	-	-	1
The best help want nothing of the kind,	1	1	-	-	-	2
D. No opinion expressed; they seem to be satisfied with our present time	1	1	1	-	1	4
The question has never been agitated; the help are willing to work overtime	1	-	-	-	-	1
The desire for less hours seldom appears except among the least industries	-	1	-	-	-	1
E. I think they would do as we wished	-	-	-	2	-	2
The intelligent help know that less hours means less pay	-	-	1	-	-	1
Massachusetts is very near here, and I know of no one who has left us to avail himself of shorter hours	-	-	-	1	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Favorable	3	50	53
B. Unfavorable	-	12	12
C. Day hands favor it, piece hands do not	-	10	10
D. No opinion expressed	-	66	66
E. Could not answer definitely	-	35	35
F. No reply	33	37	70
Totals	36	210	246

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.**Do they, or not, desire legal regulation of the hours of labor?*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	4	7	5	-	1	17
B. No	7	2	4	1	1	15
C. No opinion expressed	3	7	3	4	2	19
D. Could not answer definitely	11	5	2	5	-	23
E. No reply	6	4	4	70	52	136
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. They do; and for my part I think ten hours a day is enough for any man to work. I am in favor of a United States ten-hour law; we should all be better off, and produce as many goods in a year	-	1	-	-	-	1
B. No; there is too much law now	1	-	-	-	-	1
D. Most of my operatives insist on being allowed to work as many hours as they please		1	-	-		1
I think they would rather work twelve hours for the extra pay than less; do not think they care	1		-			1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	3	17	20
B. No		15	15
C. No opinion expressed	-	19	19
D. Could not answer definitely	-	23	23
E. No reply	33	136	169
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

What reasons do they (the employes) give for their opinion?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Self-improvement	3	-	1	-	-	4
B. Think 10 hours enough	-	1	-	-	1	2
C. Earn as much as now	-	1	-	-	-	1
D. Extra pay for extra hours,	1	1	1	1	-	4
E. Would make uniformity	-	-	-	-	1	1
F. No opinion expressed	5	2	1	1	1	10
G. Did not answer definitely	2	3	4	1	1	11
H. No reply	17	15	10	77	52	171
AA. Satisfied with present hours	3	1	-	-	-	4
BB. Non-interference with personal liberty	-	1	-	-	-	1
CC. The intelligent know it means less pay	-	-	1	-	-	1
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Those who desire a ten-hour law profess that they want the extra time for improvement	2	-	-	-	-	2
They would like more time to rest and think	-	-	1	-	-	1
Some say they want an opportunity for improvement, some think they will get as much pay for ten as they do for eleven hours, and some want to work as little as possible	1	-	-	-	-	1
B. They say they are not able to work any longer than mechanics, and, if mechanics work ten hours, why should we eleven?	-	-	-	-	1	1
They think ten hours are enough for a day's work, but they need a law to establish it; nothing is more absurd than to talk about factory operatives making their own bargains	-	1	-	-	-	1
D. They contend, that, if the limit is but ten hours, they can work one or two or more extra hours and be paid for the extra time, which is now included in their present pay	1	1	-	1	-	3
G. Do not know; they do not exercise nor do they possess reason	-	-	-	1	-	1
AA. Being well satisfied, they seek no change	3	1	-	-	-	4

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Self-improvement	1	4	5
B. Think 10 hours enough	-	2	2
C. Earn as much as now	-	1	1
D. Extra pay for extra hours,	-	4	4
E. Would make uniformity	-	1	1
F. No opinion expressed	-	10	10
G. Did not answer definitely	-	11	11
H. No reply	35	171	206
AA. Satisfied with present hours,	-	4	4
BB. Non-interference with personal liberty,	-	1	1
CC. The intelligent know it means less pay,	-	1	1
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Less fatigue, more time for recreation, more leisure for improvement	1	-	1

So far as quality and quantity are concerned, how does the product of the last hours of the day compare with that of the first or the middle hours of the day?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Quality and quantity superior	1	1	-	5	4	11
B. Quality and quantity poorer	1	1	1	7	10	20
C. No difference	27	21	16	52	33	149
D. Did not answer definitely	1	-	-	5	3	9
E. No reply	1	-	1	10	6	18
F. Quality same, quantity less	-	2	-	1	-	3
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. In the summer time, the last hours are best	1	-	-	-	-	1
The last hour's product is the best in quality and quantity	-	1	-	3	2	6
The piece workers produce about twenty per cent more the last hour of the day	-	-	-	-	1	1
We get more goods the last hour of the day than in the morning	-	-	-	1	-	1
In machinery it is about the same; a bystander says the last hour gives thirty per cent more	-	-	-	1	-	1
No difference, except that the last hour is always better than the first. I have tried to run overtime, and it did not prove profitable	-	-	-	-	1	1
B. The middle hour is the best; the last, poorest	-	-	-	-	1	1
Work more slack during the last hours,	-	-	-	-	2	2

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
In summer, last hour of day drags	-	-			1	1
Not so good; not even when we work overtime and pay extra wages	-				1	1
We get the most work off in the forenoon; the last hours are the poorest; The first and last hours produce less; virtually, we do not produce any thing the last hour in the week	-	-		-	1	1
The quantity of last hour somewhat reduced; work more in forenoon than afternoon; especially is this true of children's work	-			1	-	1
They are generally getting ready to stop work some time before, and it would probably be just the same with ten hours	-			-	1	1
Never compared them, but sure they are less; hands always begin to get uneasy during the last hours, and more or less of them will wash up, etc., before time to stop	-	1	-	-		1
C. About the same; the last hour is best for spinning	2	-	-	-		2
Not much difference; when looms run by gaslight, quality not so good		-	-	-	1	1
No difference; most important help work by the piece		-	1			1
No difference; we find that our dragging comes in the middle of the day, As a rule, it is fully as good; the mill is in better order — especially in winter — the last hour than the first,	-	-		1	1	2
D. The last part of the day the machinery runs easier	-	-		1	-	1
F. The quality we enforce, but believe we get less quantity during last hours, I do not know that there is any difference, except that quantity may be a little less the last hour, as the help get tired	-	1				1
Quality the same, quantity less; we have sometimes run overtime, but, after the first few days, we did not produce much more in thirteen hours than we usually did in eleven,		1		-	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Quality and quantity superior	1	11	12
B. Quality and quantity poorer	1	20	21
C. No difference	18	149	167
D. Did not answer definitely	-	9	9
E. No reply	16	18	34
F. Quality same, quantity less	-	3	3
Totals	36	210	246

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

If many large mills can be successfully run under 60 hours per week, are there any valid reasons why all cannot be so run?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	3	10	4	13	11	41
B. No	21	11	10	8	13	63
C. Depends on circumstances	6	2	2	5	4	19
D. Could not answer definitely	-	-	-	2	1	3
E. No reply	1	2	2	52	27	84
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Yes; large mills always have an advantage over small	2	9	3	2	4	20
Yes; outside competition and the desire of help to earn more	1	-	-	-	-	1
Yes; counting water against cost of steam	-	-	-	-	1	1
The small mill costs more per product for superintendence, and has not the conveniences of a large one	-	-	-	8	1	9
Small mills with old machinery cannot compete with others	-	-	-	1	-	1
Yes; large mills can buy stock better, and sell without commission	-	-	-	-	1	1
Yes; for in my opinion a small mill cannot be run at a profit under sixty hours per week	-	1	-	-	-	1
Yes; the proportion of expenses for running small mills is greater than large	-	-	-	-	2	2
There are mills with old machinery that cannot run at all unless they run twelve hours per day	-	-	-	-	1	1
Yes; because one may be successfully run, that is no reason that others can be; it depends on the kind of business and the type and class of people employed	-	-	-	-	1	1
Large mills are usually wealthy, and can put in more machinery and get the production, while small concerns cannot afford to increase their machinery, and it would drive small concerns to the wall	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. No; it is a mere matter of competition	-	-	-	1	-	1
No; for if we can compete on 66 hours there are no valid reasons why we could not with 60 hours	-	-	1	-	-	1
I do not see why a small mill cannot do as well as a large one	-	-	-	1	-	1
None except the fact that mills with old machinery cannot compete with new, because they can run from ten to twelve per cent faster	-	-	-	1	-	1
C. Only the difference in cost of freight	1	-	-	-	-	1
Only so far as regards competition with foreign goods	-	-	-	1	-	1
Possibly not; but unless consumers are willing to pay more for goods the help must be content with lower wages	1	-	-	-	-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Capacity in managing a mill is of more importance than the difference between ten and eleven hours . . .		-	-	-	1	1
Depends on what they manufacture; all large mills of this class (paper) run the whole time, except Sunday, with two sets of men . . .		-	1	-	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	-	41	41
B. No	17	63	80
C. Depends on circumstances	-	19	19
D. Could not answer definitely	-	3	3
E. No reply	19	84	103
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
B. I think all could be so run if the running time was the same in all the States	1		1

Does intemperance have any appreciable effect upon the product of the mill?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	2	4	8	25	20	59
B. No	29	21	9	51	31	141
C. Did not answer definitely	-	-	-	-	4	4
D. No reply	-	-	1	4	1	6
Totals	31	25	18	80	56	210
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Yes; never knew a mill run but what it did				1		1
It does, fearfully	-		-	1	-	1
Sometimes, after pay day			1		-	1
Yes; we have one spinner who goes on a three days' drunk semi-occasionally	1			-	-	1
It does; but I weed them out as fast as I can	-		-	-	2	2
Yes; it causes us to change our help oftener than otherwise	-		3	-		3
It does at times; we have to put up with it when help is scarce	-	1	-		-	1

STATEMENTS OF MANUFACTURERS — *Concluded.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
It has none on production, but cost of same is increased by this cause . . .	-		1	-	-	1
This mill employs three hundred men, and they are a good set of men, but it suffers to the extent of \$2,500, annually, from this cause . . .		-	-	1	-	1
B. No; we do not tolerate it, nor do we employ intemperate people . . .	1	3	6	-		10
No; if a man gets drunk his time is out . . .				2	-	2
I cannot say as it does, for if one man is out we fill his place with another, No; our people have to be straight when they are here, so we do not suffer . . .	-			1		1
				-	1	1

REPLIES. =	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	5	59	64
B. No	18	141	159
C. Did not answer definitely	-	4	4
D. No reply	13	6	19
Totals	36	210	246
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Intemperance has more or less effect	2	-	2
Yes; most of the time there are enough spare hands to substitute for those not at work; intemperance is a great curse to the operatives	1	-	1

Pages 6 to 94 have been devoted to the returns of manufacturers, such points as admitted of tabular presentation being given in the tables I. to IV. inclusive. In these tables, the same marginal figure, under each State, indicates the same establishment. For instance, line 20 under Maine, on page 6, gives the returns of a woollen factory as regards materials used in the manufacture of flannels; line 20, page 22, gives particulars concerning markets, transportation, and competition for the same establishment; line 20, page 38, information regarding employes, wages, and hours of labor; and line 20, page 50, completes the showing for this establishment by giving the product of looms and spindles. In a similar way, the returns for any one of the 246 establishments represented in the tables may be consolidated.

The statements of manufacturers, pages 62 to 94, are in part tabular, and in part text. The statements of manufacturers in Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, 210 in number, are given first in a condensed table, under each inquiry; then follow statements in detail, the figures in any column giving the number of manufacturers in any State who agreed in the nature of their replies. The opinions of the Massachusetts manufacturers, 36 in number, are then presented in a table with the other States, for purposes of comparison as regards each inquiry, followed by the opinions, in detail, of the Massachusetts manufacturers.

EMPLOYÉS.

TABLE V.—EMPLOYÉS. *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. MAINE.*

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
<i>Cotton.</i>									
1	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
2	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	.2	1	5
3	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	2		4
4	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2		-	2
5	Cloth hanler . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
6	Drawer in of warp . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
7	Laborer in card room . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
8	Loom fixer . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
9	Oiler . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
10	Picker . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	2	5
11	Picker . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
12	Picker . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
13	Section hand . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	2	1	5
14	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
15	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
16	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
17	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
18	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
19	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
20	Spinner . . .	Piece,	12	12	72	1	-	-	1
21	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
22	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	3		1	4
23	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2		-	2
24	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
25	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
26	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	2	4
27	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
28	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1		3
29	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2		-	2
30	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2		2	4
31	Weaver . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
32	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
33	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2		4
34	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1			1
35	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-		1
36	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-		1
37	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-		1
38	Weaver . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	1		2
39	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1			1
40	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-		1
41	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2		4
42	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-		1

TABLE V. — EMPLOYÉS. *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc.* - MAINE.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Totals.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total year-ly Ex-penses.	
- -	\$9 50	\$494	-	\$494	-	-	-	\$374	1
A few days. Sick- ness and rest.	9 50	494	\$200	694	-	-	-	700	2
Lost time from sick- ness	9 50	480	-	480	-	-	-	480	3
One week. Unem- ployed	9 60	480	480	960	-	-	-	600	4
- -	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	5
- -	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	\$3 00	-	6
- -	6 00	312	260	572	-	-	-	572	7
- -	9 50	475	-	475	-	-	-	300	8
- -	6 00	296	240	536	-	-	-	400	9
- -	8 00	400	300	700	-	-	-	500	10
- -	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	11
- -	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	12
- -	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	468	13
Two weeks. Vaca- tion	10 50	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	14
- -	9 50	500	300	800	-	-	-	600	15
Three months. Un- employed	9 00	324	-	324	-	-	-	-	16
- -	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	17
- -	5 00	250	-	250	-	-	-	250	18
One month. Unem- ployed	5 50	270	-	270	-	-	-	270	19
Two months. Unem- ployed	8 00	347	-	347	-	-	-	347	20
- -	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	21
Nine weeks. Unem- ployed	10 00	460	200	660	-	-	-	660	22
Three weeks. Sick- ness	9 75	550	-	550	-	-	-	550	23
Six weeks. Vaca- tion	9 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	24
Three weeks. Vaca- tion	9 50	450	-	450	-	-	-	450	25
- -	10 00	500	100	600	-	-	-	600	26
One month. Sick- ness	10 00	450	-	450	-	-	-	600	27
Two weeks. Vaca- tion	10 00	500	75	575	-	-	-	500	28
- -	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	500	29
- -	7 00	325	150	475	-	-	-	400	30
Six weeks. Sick- ness	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	31
One week	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	32
- -	7 00	350	200	550	-	-	-	550	33
- -	6 50	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	34
- -	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	35
One month. Sick- ness	6 75	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	36
Three weeks. Vaca- tion	6 25	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	37
- -	6 50	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	38
- -	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	39
- -	7 50	375	-	375	-	-	-	375	40
Six weeks. Sick- ness	8 50	400	200	600	-	-	-	300	41
Two months. Sick- ness	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	42

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. MAINE
— Concluded.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
	<i>Wool.</i>								
43	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	3	6
44	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
45	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
46	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	3	-	-	3
47	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
48	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
49	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
50	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
51	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
52	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
	<i>Paper.</i>								
53	Foreman in rag room .	Day .	12	12	72	2	1	-	3

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

	<i>Cotton.</i>								
1	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
2	Card grinder . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	3	-	5
3	Elevator man . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
4	Fireman . . .	Day .	11½	11½	69	2	2	-	4
5	Laborer, card room .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
6	Laborer, card room .	Day .	11	11	66	1	2	-	3
7	Loom fixer . . .	Day .	11½	8½	64¾	2	-	-	2
8	Loom fixer . . .	Day .	11½	8½	64¾	2	-	-	2
9	Loom fixer . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
10	Loom fixer . . .	Day .	11½	8½	64¾	2	-	-	2
11	Marker, cloth . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	2
12	Picker . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
13	Second hand . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
14	Slasher . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
15	Spinner . . .	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
16	Spinner . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
17	Spinner, mule . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
18	Warper . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
19	Weaver . . .	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
20	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
21	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	4	2	-	6
22	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
23	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
24	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
25	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11½	8½	64¾	2	1	-	3

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

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TABLE V. — *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc.* MAINE
— *Concluded.*

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.		EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
		Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Totals.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total year- ly Ex- penses.	
Six weeks.	Sick-	\$8 50	\$375	\$300	\$675	-			\$500	43
	ness	9 75	425	-	425	-			425	44
	-	9 00	450		450	-			450	45
	-	10 00	500		500	-			500	46
	-	10 00	400		400	-			400	47
Two weeks.	Vaca-	8 50	400		400	-			400	48
	tion	7 00	364	100	464	-			350	49
	-	7 00	364	250	614	-			450	50
	-	6 00	300		300	-			300	51
	-	11 00	500		500	-			500	52
	-	-	10 00	500		500	-			500

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

-	-	\$9 00	\$468	-	\$468	-			\$280	1
-	-	9 00	468		468	-			300	2
A short vacation	-	6 60	300		300	-			300	3
	-	9 60	500		-	-			450	4
-	-	6 00	312	\$312	624	-			624	5
-	-	6 60	343		343	-			300	6
-	-	11 10	577		577	-			577	7
-	-	10 50	546		546	-			400	8
-	-	9 60	498		498	-			-	9
-	-	11 40	593		593	-			550	10
A few weeks.	Sick-	13 50	690		690	-			690	11
	ness									
A few days.	Vaca-	7 50	375		375	-			350	12
	tion	12 00	600		600	-			500	13
	-	10 80	562	300	862	-			400	14
Two weeks.	Vaca-	12 00	600		600	-			400	15
Five weeks.	Vaca-	6 00	280		280	-			280	16
Seven weeks.	Vaca-	11 00	500		500	-			340	17
Three months.	Sick-	6 00	250		250	-			250	18
-	ness	6 60	343		343	-	\$2 50		225	19
Three weeks.	Sick-	9 00	400		400	-			-	20
	ness	8 00	408	270	678	-			-	21
Two weeks.	Death	8 50	400		400	-			-	22
Two months.	Sick-	8 82	385	200	585	-			350	23
Eight weeks.	Sick-	8 82	436		436	-			300	24
Two months and a half.	Sick-	6 00	312		312	-			312	25

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW HAMPSHIRE — Continued.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
26	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	64¾	1	1	1	3
27	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
28	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	4	-	3	7
29	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	1	5
30	Weaver	Piece,	11½	11½	69	2	1	-	3
31	Weaver	Piece,	11½	11½	69	1	-	-	1
32	Weaver	Piece,	11½	11½	69	2	2	-	4
33	Weaver	Piece,	11½	11½	69	1	-	-	1
34	Weaver	Piece,	11½	11½	69	1	-	-	1
35	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
36	Weaver	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
37	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	64¾	1	-	-	1
38	Weaver	Day .	11	11	66	3	2	1	6
39	Weaving room, section hand	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
40	Weaving room, section hand	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
41	Wool. West drawer	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
42	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
43	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
44	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
45	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
46	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
47	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
48	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
49	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
50	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
51	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
52	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
53	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
54	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	3	2	-	5
55	Press hand	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
56	Sorter	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
57	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
58	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
59	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
60	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
61	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
62	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
63	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	2	5
64	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
65	Warp dresser	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
66	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
67	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
68	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
69	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
70	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW HAMPSHIRE—Continued.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.		EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
		Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Totals.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total year-ly Ex-penses.	
-	-	\$6 15	\$320	-	\$320	-	-	-	\$320	26
Ten weeks.	Vaca-tion	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	27
-	-	9 00	468	\$260	728	-	-	-	500	28
-	-	9 00	459	100	559	-	-	-	300	29
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	-	350	30
One month.	Sick-ness	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	31
Three weeks.	Sick-ness	7 00	325	-	325	-	-	-	350	32
-	-	5 00	260	-	260	-	-	-	250	33
-	-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	34
Three months.	Sick-ness	7 00	280	-	280	-	-	-	280	35
Five weeks.	Sick-ness	6 60	310	213	523	-	-	-	-	36
Two months.	Vaca-tion	6 00	260	-	260	-	-	-	260	37
One week.	Sick-ness	6 10	185	616	801	-	-	-	730	38
-	-	9 60	480	-	480	-	-	-	360	39
Two weeks.	Vaca-tion	9 60	480	-	480	-	-	-	300	40
Two weeks.	Vaca-tion	6 00	300	400	700	-	-	-	561	41
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	375	42
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	43
-	-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	44
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	45
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	46
-	-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	47
-	-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	48
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	49
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	50
-	-	8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	51
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	52
-	-	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	53
-	-	8 50	440	-	440	-	-	-	400	54
-	-	7 50	360	-	360	-	-	-	300	55
A short vacation		8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	56
-	-	11 00	550	-	550	-	-	-	450	57
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	58
-	-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	59
-	-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	60
Six weeks.	Sick-ness	8 00	375	-	375	-	-	-	375	61
Two months.	Un- employed	8 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	62
-	-	8 00	416	150	566	-	-	-	425	63
-	-	8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	64
-	-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	65
-	-	9 00	460	-	460	-	-	-	400	66
Two months.	Sick-ness	9 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	67
-	-	7 50	360	-	360	-	-	-	360	68
Three months.	Sick-ness	8 00	300	100	400	-	-	-	350	69
-	-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	70

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW HAMPSHIRE—Concluded.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
71	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2		-	2
72	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	3	-	-	3
73	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
74	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
75	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2		4
76	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
77	Weaver, second hand .	Day .	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
<i>Hosiery.</i>									
78	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
79	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
80	Dyer	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
81	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
82	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
83	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
84	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1

MASSACHUSETTS.

<i>Cotton.</i>									
1	Carder	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	2	-	4
2	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
3	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
4	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
5	Drawer in	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
6	Drawer in	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	63	1	-	-	1
7	Drawer in	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
8	Drawer in	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
9	Drawer in	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
10	Drawer in	Piece,	10	11	61	1	-	2	3
11	Loom fixer	Piece,	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	2	1	5
12	Loom fixer	Day .	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	3		4
13	Loom fixer	Day .	10	10	60	2	1	1	4
14	Loom fixer	Day .	10	10	60	2	2		4
15	Loom fixer	Day .	10	10	60	2	3	-	5
16	Mopper	Day .	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	-	-	2
17	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	3	1	2	6
18	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	2	5
19	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
20	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
21	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
22	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	-	4
23	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
24	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
25	Spinner	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	63	2	1	1	4
26	Spinner	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	63	2	1	-	3

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW HAMPSHIRE—Concluded.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Totals.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Ex-penses.	
A few weeks. Sick-ness	\$8 00	\$400		\$400	-	-	-	\$400	71
-	9 50	460	-	460	-	-	-	350	72
-	7 00	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	73
A short vacation	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	74
-	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	75
-	9 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	76
-	12 00	600	-	600	-	-	-	500	77
Two months. Un-employed	7 00	300		300	-	-	-	300	78
A short vacation	7 50	375	-	375	-	-	-	300	79
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	80
-	9 00	450	-	450	-	-	-	400	81
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	82
-	8 75	425	-	425	-	-	-	375	83
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	84

MASSACHUSETTS.

Three weeks. Sick-ness	\$5 00	\$245	-	\$245	-	-	-	\$245	1
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	2
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	3
-	7 50	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	4
Four weeks. Sick-ness	5 00	240	-	240	-	-	-	240	5
One month. For health	4 50	200	-	200	-	-	-	-	6
One month. Sick-ness	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	7
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	8
-	5 50	225	-	225	-	-	-	200	9
-	6 00	312	-	312	-	-	-	450	10
Two months. Sick-ness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11
Six weeks. Sick-ness	10 00	460	-	460	-	-	-	460	12
-	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	13
Two weeks. Sick-ness	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	500	14
One month. Unemployed	10 00	480	-	480	-	-	-	500	15
-	5 00	260	\$312	572	-	-	-	520	16
-	7 50	390	156	546	-	-	-	500	17
-	10 00	520	200	720	-	-	-	400	18
-	10 00	520	-	520	-	-	-	350	19
-	5 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	20
-	8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	21
-	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	22
-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	-	250	23
-	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	24
Three months. Sick-ness	6 50	254	-	254	-	-	-	254	25
Two months. Sick-ness	8 00	328	-	328	-	-	-	328	26

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. MASSACHUSETTS — Continued.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
27	Spinner . . .	Piece,	10½	10½	62	2	-	-	2
28	Spinner . . .	Piece,	-	-	60½	2	2	-	4
29	Spinner . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	1	1	3	5
30	Spinner . . .	Piece,	10½	8½	61	2	3	-	5
31	Spinner . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
32	Spinner . . .	Piece,	10½	8½	61	2	-	1	3
33	Spooler . . .	Day .	10½	8½	61	1	-	-	1
34	Stripper and grinder .	Day .	10¾	-	-	2	3	-	5
35	Stripper and grinder .	Day .	10¾	10¾	61½	2	4	-	6
36	Picker . . .	Day .	-	-	62½	2	3	2	7
37	Picker . . .	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
38	Picker . . .	Day .	10½	10½	62	2	3	2	7
39	Picker . . .	Day .	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
40	Picker . . .	Day .	10½	8½	61	2	3	-	5
41	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
42	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	1	5
43	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	-	-	2	-	-	2
44	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	4	-	1	5
45	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	3	1	2	6
46	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
47	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	10¾	61½	2	3	1	6
48	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10½	8½	61	2	2	-	4
49	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	3	-	-	3
50	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	4	3	2	9
51	Weaver . . .	Piece,	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
52	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	3	4	9
53	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
54	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	-	4
55	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
56	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	3	-	-	3
57	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
58	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10½	7½	60	2	2	-	4
59	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	-	4
60	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	3	-	5
61	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
62	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	7¾	61½	2	1	-	3
63	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	7¾	61½	1	-	-	1
64	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	7¾	61½	3	-	-	3
65	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
66	Weaver . . .	Piece,	10¾	8¾	62	1	2	2	5

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. MASSACHUSETTS — Continued.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
One month. Unemployed	\$9 00	\$423		\$423	-	-	-	\$423	27
Two months. Unemployed	7 50	323		323	-	-	-	-	28
-	8 00	400	\$200	600	-	-	-	-	29
Three months. Worked half time.	9 50	-		-	-	-	-	-	30
-	9 20	478		478	-	-	-	468	31
-	9 00	468	468	936	-	-	-	520	32
Nine weeks. Unemployed	4 00	172		172		\$3 50	-	-	33
One month. Sickness	7 50	353		353	-	-	-	-	34
Two months. Sickness	6 75	290		290	-	-	-	290	35
Two months. Sickness	5 00	215	364	579	-	-	-	520	36
-	5 00	250		250	-	-	-	250	37
Three months. Unemployed	5 50	215	468	683	-	-	-	500	38
-	5 50	286		286	-	-	-	300	39
Two months. Unemployed	6 00	258		258	-	-	-	-	40
One month. Unemployed	6 50	300		300	-	-	-	300	41
Six weeks. Sickness	9 00	400	150	550	-	-	-	400	42
Nine weeks. Sickness	8 00	344		344	-	-	-	344	43
-	5 00	250	500	750	-	-	-	600	44
Two months. Unemployed	7 00	325		325	-	-	-	500	45
-	6 00	312		312	-	-	-	312	46
-	6 00	300	52	352	-	-	-	416	47
-	5 94	309		309	-	-	-	-	48
-	9 25	481		481	-	-	-	500	49
-	8 00	416	612	1,028	-	-	-	919	50
-	8 00	416	60	476	-	-	-	-	51
-	7 75	403	593	996	-	-	-	979	52
Two weeks. Sickness	8 00	400		400	-	-	-	350	53
-	8 50	442		442	-	-	-	300	54
One month. Sickness	7 00	329		329	-	-	-	300	55
-	9 00	468	260	728	-	-	-	-	56
A short time. Sickness	6 50	300		300	-	-	-	300	57
A short time	8 40	400		400	-	-	-	400	58
-	8 00	400		400	-	-	-	350	59
-	9 00	468		468	-	-	-	400	60
Two months. Sickness	7 00	325		325	-	-	-	325	61
Three months	6 00	234	208	442	-	-	-	-	62
Ten weeks. Sickness	9 02	379		379	-	-	-	360	63
Two months. Sickness	8 40	361	312	673	-	-	-	480	64
-	8 00	400		400	-	-	-	250	65
-	8 50	450		450	-	-	-	350	66

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. MASSACHUSETTS — Concluded.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
67	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	3	2	4	9
68	Weaver	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	62	1	2	2	5
69	Weaver	Piece,	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	-	3
70	Weaver	Piece,	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-
71	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
72	Weaver	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	4	1	7
73	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	-
74	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
75	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
76	Weaver	Piece,	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	61	2	2	5	9
77	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	-	4
78	Weaver	Day .	-	-	-	2	-	-	3
79	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
80	Weaver	Piece,	-	-	-	2	-	-	2
81	Weaver, third hand .	Day .	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
	<i>Worsted.</i>								
82	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	3	1	6
	<i>Wool.</i>								
83	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
84	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
85	Carder	Day .	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
86	Loom fixer	Day .	10	10	60	2	3	-	5
87	Press hand	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
88	Press hand	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
89	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
90	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
91	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
92	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
93	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	3	-	-	3
94	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	-	4
95	Spinner	Piece,	10	10	60	4	3	-	7
96	Warp dresser	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
97	Warp dresser	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
98	Warp dresser	Day .	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
99	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
100	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
101	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
102	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
103	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	1	3
104	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	-	-	2
105	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
106	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
107	Weaver	Piece,	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
108	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	3	-	5
109	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	2	1	5
110	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	1	-	-	1
111	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3
112	Weaver	Piece,	10	10	60	2	1	-	3

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

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TABLE V. — *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc.* MASSACHUSETTS — *Concluded.*

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	\$8 00	\$400	\$250	\$650	-	-	-	\$600	67
-	8 50	450	-	450	-	-	-	600	68
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	69
-	9 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	70
-	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	71
Five months. Unemployed	9 20	459	150	609	-	-	-	-	72
-	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	73
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	74
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	75
One month. Sickness	-	700	-	700	-	-	-	700	76
-	10 00	520	-	520	-	-	-	-	77
One month. On strike	8 00	376	-	376	-	-	-	-	78
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	400	79
-	8 50	432	-	432	-	-	-	468	80
Four months. Unemployed	7 00	238	156	494	-	-	-	480	81
One week	7 50	383	229	612	-	-	-	612	82
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	83
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	84
One month. Unemployed	7 00	325	-	325	-	-	-	275	85
-	9 00	460	-	460	-	-	-	400	86
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	87
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	88
-	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	89
-	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	275	90
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	91
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	92
One month. Sickness	8 50	400	100	500	-	-	-	400	93
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	94
-	8 00	400	300	700	-	-	-	500	95
Two months. Sickness	6 00	250	-	250	-	-	-	250	96
-	5 00	250	-	250	-	-	-	250	97
-	6 00	312	-	312	-	-	-	275	98
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	99
One month. Unemployed	5 00	230	-	230	-	-	-	230	100
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	101
-	7 50	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	102
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	103
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	275	104
-	5 50	250	-	250	-	-	-	250	105
-	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	106
-	8 00	400	200	600	-	-	-	350	107
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	108
-	7 00	350	50	400	-	-	-	325	109
-	6 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	110
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	111
A short time. Sickness	7 00	325	-	325	-	-	-	325	112

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. RHODE ISLAND.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
<i>Cotton.</i>									
1	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
2	Card grinder	Day .	11	11	66	2	2	—	4
3	Card stripper	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
4	Drawer in	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
5	Hauler, cloth	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
6	Laborer in card room	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
7	Laborer in card room	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
8	Loom fixer	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
9	Picker	Day .	11	11	66	2	—	—	2
10	Slasher	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
11	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	—	4
12	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
13	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
14	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	1	5
15	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	1	5
16	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	1	4
17	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	—	4
18	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	—	4
19	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
20	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	—	—	2
21	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
22	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	3	—	2	5
23	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
24	Weaver, section band	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
<i>Wool.</i>									
25	Laborer	Day .	11	11	66	2	2	—	4
26	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	2	6
27	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
28	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	3	—	5
29	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
30	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
31	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
32	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	3	2	—	5
33	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
34	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
<i>Worsted.</i>									
35	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
36	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
37	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
<i>Thread.</i>									
38	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
39	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	2	—	—	2
40	Packer	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
41	Ruler	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
42	Ruler	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
43	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	1	—	3
44	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
45	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. RHODE ISLAND.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	\$8 00	\$416	-	\$416	-	-	-	\$375	1
-	8 00	416	-	416	-	-	-	350	2
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	3
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	4
-	7 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	5
-	6 00	312	-	312	-	-	-	300	6
-	6 60	340	-	340	-	-	-	300	7
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	300	8
-	7 50	375	-	370	-	-	-	350	9
-	9 40	488	-	488	-	-	-	375	10
One month. Sick-	9 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	11
ness	8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	12
Short vacation	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	400	13
Two months. Sick-	9 00	400	\$75	475	-	-	-	400	14
ness	9 50	460	150	610	-	-	-	400	15
-	9 00	450	-	400	-	-	-	400	16
-	9 50	450	-	450	-	-	-	400	17
-	10 00	500	-	500	-	-	-	500	18
-	8 50	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	19
-	6 50	300	300	600	-	-	-	400	20
Six weeks. Sick-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	21
ness	9 00	468	250	718	-	-	-	400	22
-	5 00	260	-	260	-	-	-	260	23
-	9 00	460	-	460	-	-	-	400	24
-	6 00	312	75	387	-	-	-	300	25
-	6 50	320	350	670	-	-	-	400	26
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	27
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	28
One month	6 75	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	29
Two weeks	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	30
Two weeks. Vaca-	6 00	275	-	275	-	-	-	275	31
tion	8 50	400	200	600	-	-	-	450	32
Lost time from sick-	8 00	400	150	550	-	-	-	350	33
ness	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	250	34
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	400	35
-	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	350	36
Three months. Sick-	10 00	300	100	400	-	-	-	400	37
ness, partly	7 80	370	-	370	-	-	-	350	38
-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	350	39
-	9 00	450	-	450	-	-	-	400	40
Two weeks. Sick-	8 00	400	-	400	-	-	-	300	41
ness	8 00	416	-	416	-	-	-	416	42
-	7 00	340	-	340	-	-	-	340	43
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	44
-	6 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	45

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. RHODE ISLAND — Concluded.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10	Total.
46	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
47	Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	2	6
48	Winder	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
49	Winder	Piece,	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
<i>Paper.</i>									
50	Laborer	Day .	12	12	72	1	—	—	1
51	Paper maker (pulp machine)	Day .	12	12	72	3	—	—	3
52	Washing machine tender	Day .	12	12	72	1	—	—	1

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<i>Cotton.</i>									
1	Carder	Day .	11	11	66	1	—	—	1
2	Carpenter	Day .	11	11	66	—	—	—	—
3	Dresser	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	—	—	2
4	Finisher	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	2	—	4
5	Inspector of cloth	Day .	11	11	66	—	—	—	—
6	Lapper	Day .	11	11	66	4	—	1	5
7	Overseer, mill	Day .	12	9	69	2	—	—	2
8	Overseer, carding	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	—	—	1
9	Overseer, carding	Day .	12	9	69	6	2	1	9
10	Overseer, carding	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	3	—	5
11	Overseer, carding	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	1	1	4
12	Overseer, carding	Day .	11½	8½	64½	2	—	—	2
13	Overseer, carding and spinning	Day .	12	9	69	2	1	2	5
14	Overseer, spinning	Day .	11	11	66	3	1	1	5
15	Overseer, spinning	Day .	11½	8½	66	3	—	2	5
16	Overseer, spinning	Day .	11	5	60	2	3	2	7
17	Overseer, spinning	Day .	12½	9½	72	—	—	—	—
18	Overseer, spinning	Day .	11½	8½	66	—	—	—	3
19	Overseer, spinning	Day .	12	9	69	1	—	—	1
20	Overseer, spinning	Day .	11	5	60	5	—	—	5
21	Overseer, spinning	Day .	12	9	69	3	—	—	3
22	Overseer, spinning	Day .	12	9	69	3	3	—	6
23	Overseer, spinning	Day .	12	9	69	3	—	1	4
24	Overseer, spinning, mule	Day .	12	9	69	2	1	1	4
25	Overseer, spinning, mule	Day .	11½	8½	66	3	—	—	3
26	Overseer, spinning, mule and ring	Day .	12	9	69	2	—	—	2
27	Overseer, spinning, ring	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	2	—	4
28	Overseer, spooling	Day .	11½	8½	64½	1	—	—	1
29	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11½	8½	66	6	—	—	6
30	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11	11	66	2	—	—	2
31	Overseer, weaving	Day .	12	9	69	3	2	3	8
32	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11	5	60	2	3	2	7
33	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11	5	60	4	3	2	9

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. RHODE ISLAND — Concluded.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	\$7 50	\$350	-	\$350	-	-	-	\$300	46
-	8 00	400	\$300	700	-	-	-	550	47
Short vacation . . .	7 00	350	-	350	-	-	-	300	48
-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	-	275	49
Vacation for rest . . .	7 50	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	50
One month. Sick-ness . . .	10 00	450	200	650	-	-	-	500	51
Short vacation . . .	7 00	300	-	300	-	-	-	300	52

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-	-	-	-	-	-	\$3 70	-	-	1
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
-	-	\$9 00	\$468	\$468	-	-	-	-	3
-	-	13 50	702	702	\$102	-	-	-	4
-	-	5 40	280	280	-	-	-	-	5
-	-	6 00	312	\$480	801	-	-	-	6
Six weeks. Unemployed . . .	17 00	787	-	787	88	-	-	-	7
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
-	-	15 00	780	406	1,186	60	-	-	9
-	-	16 50	858	-	858	-	-	\$858	10
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	60	-	-	11
-	-	13 50	702	-	702	120	-	-	12
Seven weeks. Unemployed . . .	12 00	540	84	624	-	-	-	-	13
-	-	15 00	780	-	100	-	-	-	14
-	-	15 00	780	-	-	-	-	-	15
-	-	13 00	776	96	872	54	-	-	16
-	-	13 50	702	-	702	-	-	-	17
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	18
Two months. Sick-ness . . .	12 00	574	-	574	-	4 50	-	-	19
-	-	18 00	936	234	1,170	72	-	-	20
-	-	14 00	728	-	728	-	3 50	-	21
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22
-	-	10 75	540	624	1,164	60	-	-	23
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	24
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	25
-	-	21 36	1,100	-	1,100	-	-	-	26
-	-	16 50	858	-	858	100	-	-	27
-	-	12 00	624	-	624	-	4 50	-	28
-	-	17 08	888	-	888	-	-	-	29
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31
-	-	9 00	468	20	488	-	-	-	32
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	720	32
-	-	16 00	832	-	832	-	-	832	33

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CONNECTICUT — Continued.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
34	Overseer, weaving	Day .	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
35	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11½	8½	66	5	-	-	5
36	Overseer, weaving	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	2	-	4
37	Overseer, weaving	Day .	12	9	69	2	2	2	6
38	Overseer, weaving	Day .	12	9	69	3	-	1	4
39	Overseer, weaving and drawing in	Day .	11¾	7½	66	2	1	-	3
40	Packer	Day .	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
41	Repairer, knitting machines	Day .	11	10	65	1	-	-	1
42	Spinner	Piece,	12½	6	68½	2	3	1	6
43	Spinner	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	-	3
44	Spinner	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	2	-	4
45	Spinner	Piece,	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
46	Spinner	Piece,	12½	6	68½	2	4	-	6
47	Spinner	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	3	2	7
48	Spinner	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	2	-	4
49	Spinner	Piece,	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
50	Spinner, ring	Day .	11½	8½	66	-	-	-	-
51	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11¾	7¼	66	1	-	-	1
52	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11¾	7¼	66	4	-	-	4
53	Spinner, mule	Day .	11½	8½	66	3	-	-	3
54	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	-	-	2
55	Spinner, mule	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
56	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
57	Spinner, mule	Piece,	12	9	69	2	1	-	3
58	Spinner, mule	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	2	1	5
59	Spinner, mule	Piece,	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
60	Spinner, mule	Piece,	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
61	Spinner, mule	Piece,	11¼	8¼	64½	1	-	-	1
62	Spinner, mule	Piece,	12	9	69	2	-	-	2
63	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	2	3	-	5
64	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	4	-	-	4
65	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	-	-	-	-
66	Weaver	Day .	12	9	69	4	-	-	4
67	Weaver	Day .	12	9	69	2	2	1	5
68	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1
69	Weaver	Piece,	11¼	8¼	64½	2	-	-	2
70	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	2	1	-	3
71	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	-	-	2
72	Weaver	Piece,	12½	9½	72	1	-	-	1
73	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	3	-	1	4
74	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	2	2	1	5
75	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	1	1	4
76	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	1	1	4
77	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	-	-	-	-
78	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	-	-	-	-
79	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	3	-	-	3
80	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1
81	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	4	-	1	5
82	Weaver	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
83	Weaver	Piece,	12½	9½	72	1	-	1	2
84	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1
85	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1
86	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1
87	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
88	Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	1	-	-	1

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CONNECTICUT — Continued.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.		EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.			
		Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.
-	-	\$10 50	\$550	\$130	\$680	\$32	-	-	34
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	100	-	-	35
-	-	16 50	858	-	858	240	-	-	36
-	-	15 36	799	-	799	-	-	-	37
-	-	16 50	858	320	1,178	-	-	\$799	38
-	-	24 00	1,248	-	1,248	-	-	800	39
-	-	6 00	312	-	312	-	-	-	40
-	-	14 35	746	-	746	-	-	-	41
Four weeks.	Sick-	8 15	390	25	415	33	-	-	42
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43
-	-	8 75	455	-	455	40	-	-	44
-	-	8 75	455	-	455	-	-	-	45
-	-	8 50	435	-	435	-	-	435	46
-	-	10 00	520	156	676	-	-	676	47
-	-	10 00	520	-	520	-	-	-	48
-	-	8 50	442	-	442	-	\$3 00	-	49
-	-	11 00	572	-	572	45	-	-	50
-	-	8 00	416	-	416	-	3 25	-	51
-	-	8 00	416	598	1,014	420	-	-	52
-	-	9 00	468	-	468	50	-	-	53
-	-	10 00	520	-	520	-	5 25	-	54
-	-	9 50	494	-	494	-	3 00	-	55
-	-	9 50	494	-	494	-	4 50	-	56
-	-	7 50	390	-	390	-	-	390	57
-	-	9 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	58
-	-	9 50	494	-	494	36	-	-	59
-	-	9 00	468	-	468	33	-	-	60
Three months.	Un-	11 50	449	-	449	-	5 00	-	61
-	-	9 75	500	-	500	-	-	-	62
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	28	-	-	63
-	-	6 25	325	273	598	45	-	-	64
-	-	6 25	325	-	325	-	-	-	65
-	-	6 00	312	-	-	45	-	-	66
-	-	10 00	520	-	520	-	-	520	67
-	-	12 00	624	-	-	-	-	-	68
-	-	10 00	520	312	832	-	-	-	69
-	-	8 50	442	-	442	26	-	-	70
-	-	6 50	338	-	338	-	-	-	71
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	-	72
-	-	6 50	338	-	338	60	-	-	73
-	-	7 00	364	-	-	60	-	-	74
-	-	7 75	400	-	400	-	-	400	75
-	-	8 40	435	-	435	-	-	-	76
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	250	77
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	-	-	-	78
-	-	5 50	286	-	286	-	2 50	-	79
-	-	8 50	442	-	442	-	3 25	-	80
-	-	7 50	390	-	-	-	-	-	81
-	-	6 50	338	-	338	-	2 25	-	82
-	-	7 25	377	-	377	-	-	-	83
-	-	8 50	442	-	442	-	3 50	-	84
-	-	5 00	260	-	260	-	2 50	-	85
-	-	6 00	312	-	312	-	2 25	-	86
-	-	10 00	520	-	520	-	3 00	-	87
-	-	7 50	390	-	390	-	2 50	-	88

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CONNECTICUT — Continued.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Totals.
89	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
90	Weaver	Piece,	11¼	7¼	66	3	-	-	3
91	Weaver	Piece,	11½	8½	66	2	1	-	3
92	Weaver	Piece,	11¾	7¼	66	2	1	-	3
93	Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	2
94	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	3	1	6
95	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11	11	66	2	1	4	7
96	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
97	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11½	8½	66	4	-	-	4
98	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
99	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	2	1	5
100	Weaver, section hand.	Day .	12	9	69	-	-	-	-
	<i>Wool.</i>								
101	Carder	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
102	Dresser tender . . .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	3	1	1	5
103	Finisher	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	-	-	2
104	Foreman, web finishing	Day .	10	10	60	-	-	-	-
105	Fuller	Day .	11½	8½	66	4	2	2	8
106	Loom fixer	Day .	11½	9½	66	2	-	-	2
107	Overseer, mill	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	2	-	4
108	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
109	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	-	3	5
110	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	12	10½	70½	2	2	2	6
111	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	3	5	-	8
112	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
113	Overseer, carding . .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	3	-	1	4
114	Overseer, carding and spinning	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	1	1	4
115	Overseer, dye house .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	1	-	-	1
116	Overseer, finishing .	Day .	11	11	66	4	4	3	11
117	Overseer, finishing .	Day .	11½	10	67½	4	2	1	7
118	Overseer, finishing .	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	-	-	2
119	Overseer, finishing .	Day .	11½	8½	66	3	-	-	3
120	Overseer, finishing .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	1	-	-	1
121	Overseer, machine repairing	Day .	11	9½	64½	2	-	-	2
122	Overseer, sorting . .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	1	2	5
123	Overseer, spinning .	Day .	11½	8½	66	3	1	1	4
124	Overseer, spinning .	Day .	11	11	66	2	4	1	7
125	Overseer, spinning .	Day .	11	9½	64½	3	-	-	3
126	Overseer, spinning .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	2	-	4
127	Overseer, spinning .	Day .	12	11	71	2	-	-	2
128	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	1	-	3
129	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
130	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11½	8½	66	2	-	-	2
131	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11¼	9¾	66	2	-	-	2
132	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	12	10½	70½	1	-	-	1
133	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11	11	66	4	-	-	4
134	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11	11	66	3	2	1	6
135	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11	9½	64½	3	2	-	5
136	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	12	10	70	1	-	-	1
137	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11½	8½	66	1	-	-	1
138	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	12	11	71	2	3	-	5
139	Overseer, weaving .	Day .	11	11	66	2	-	-	2

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CONNECTICUT — Continued.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.		EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
		Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	-	\$8 50	\$442	-	\$442	-	\$2 25	-	-	89
One month.	Unemployed .	8 50	442	-	442	-	-	-	-	90
-	-	9 25	435	-	435	-	-	-	-	91
-	-	8 00	416	-	-	-	-	-	-	92
-	-	7 00	364	-	364	\$60	-	-	-	93
-	-	10 50	546	-	546	-	-	-	-	94
-	-	8 50	442	\$360	802	-	-	-	-	95
-	-	8 50	442	-	442	-	-	-	\$150	96
-	-	12 00	624	364	988	-	-	-	-	97
-	-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	260	98
-	-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	-	99
-	-	7 50	390	-	390	-	-	-	-	100
-	-	7 50	390	-	390	-	2 50	-	-	101
-	-	7 50	390	-	-	-	-	-	-	102
-	-	8 00	416	-	416	48	-	-	-	103
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	-	104
-	-	9 00	468	708	1,176	-	-	-	840	105
-	-	7 50	390	-	390	-	-	-	-	106
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	120	-	-	-	107
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	3 25	-	-	108
Two weeks.	Vacation .	21 00	1,050	-	1,050	-	-	-	-	109
-	-	18 00	936	-	-	-	-	-	-	110
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	780	111
-	-	10 50	546	-	546	-	2 32	-	-	112
-	-	24 00	1,248	-	1,248	-	-	-	-	113
-	-	19 50	1,014	-	-	-	-	-	700	114
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	3 50	-	-	115
-	-	24 00	1,248	450	1,698	-	-	-	-	116
-	-	12 00	624	480	904	-	-	-	-	117
-	-	10 50	585	-	585	-	-	-	-	118
-	-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	-	119
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4 00	-	-	120
-	-	17 31	900	-	900	-	-	-	-	121
-	-	16 50	858	-	858	60	-	-	-	122
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	700	123
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	-	124
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	700	125
Two weeks.	Vacation .	21 00	1,050	-	1,050	-	-	-	-	126
-	-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	-	127
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	128
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	-	129
-	-	13 50	702	-	702	-	-	-	-	130
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	131
-	-	18 00	936	-	936	-	3 50	-	-	132
-	-	18 00	936	390	1,326	-	-	-	-	133
-	-	15 00	780	312	1,092	-	-	-	1,092	134
-	-	16 50	858	216	1,074	-	-	-	1,074	135
-	-	13 50	800	-	800	-	3 25	-	-	136
-	-	14 00	728	-	728	-	3 25	-	-	137
-	-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	-	138
-	-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	-	139

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CON-
NECTICUT — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
		Five Days.	On Sat- urday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Child- ren under 10.	Child- ren above 10.	Total.
140 Overseer, weaving	Day	12	9	69	2	3	-	5
141 Repairer, card room	Day	11	11	66	2	-	1	3
142 Sorter	Day	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
143 Sorter	Day	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	57	2	-	2	4
144 Spinner	Day	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	66	4	-	-	4
145 Spinner	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	1	3
146 Spinner	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	-	-	2
147 Spinner, jack	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	2	5
148 Spinner, jack	Piece,	11	11	66	5	1	3	9
149 Spinner, jack	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	1	-	-	1
150 Spinner, jack	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	-	-	2
151 Spinner, mule	Piece,	12	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	1	6
152 Spinner, mule	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	1	1	5
153 Superintendent	Day	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
154 Weaver, second hand	Day	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	1	-	-	1
155 Weaver, second hand	Day	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	-	1	3
156 Weaver, section hand	Day	12	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	-	-	1
157 Weaver, section hand	Day	12	9	69	2	-	1	3
158 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	1	-	-	2
159 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	4	-	1	5
160 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
161 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	6	-	-	6
162 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
163 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	3	2	7
164 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	-	-	-	-
165 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	3	-	5
166 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	-	-	-	-
167 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	-	-	-	-
168 Weaver	Piece,	12	9	69	4	6	2	12
169 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
170 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	1	-	-	1
171 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	-	4
172 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	1	-	-	1
173 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	5	-	7
174 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	-	-	2
175 Weaver	Piece,	12	11	71	1	-	-	1
176 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	1	-	-	1
177 Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	1	-	-	1
178 Weaver	Piece,	12	11	71	1	-	-	1
179 Weaver	Piece,	11	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	2	7
180 Weaver	Piece,	11	11	66	2	2	2	6
181 Weaver	Piece,	12	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	-	-	1
182 Weaver	Piece,	12	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	-	-	1
<i>Hosiery.</i>								
183 Overseer, finishing	Day	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	-	-	-	-
184 Overseer, knitting	Day	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	2	2	6
185 Overseer, knitting and spinning	Day	10	10	60	-	-	-	-
<i>Twine.</i>								
186 Overseer, spinning	Day	12	9	69	2	4	1	7
<i>Not given.</i>								
187 Not given	Day	12	11	71	3	2	-	5

TABLE V. — Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. CONNECTICUT — Concluded.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.			
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.
-	\$16 20	\$845	-	\$845	-	-	-	-
-	11 50	598	-	598	-	-	-	\$450
-	10 50	546	-	546	-	-	-	141
-	16 50	858	\$240	1,098	-	-	-	142
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	143
-	10 75	546	-	-	\$24	-	-	144
-	8 00	416	-	-	72	-	-	145
-	11 75	600	-	600	72	-	-	146
-	9 00	468	832	1,300	-	-	-	147
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	\$3 50	-	148
-	8 75	455	-	455	30	-	-	149
-	9 00	468	80	548	-	-	-	150
-	9 00	468	396	864	84	-	-	151
-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	152
-	7 50	390	-	390	-	3 25	-	153
-	10 50	546	-	546	35	-	-	154
-	10 50	546	-	546	-	-	-	155
-	9 00	468	-	468	36	-	-	156
-	4 50	120	-	120	-	-	-	157
-	7 00	364	132	496	-	-	-	158
-	9 00	468	-	468	78	-	-	159
-	10 00	520	-	520	-	-	-	160
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	-	-	161
-	9 00	468	70	538	60	-	-	162
-	7 50	390	-	390	40	-	-	163
-	9 00	468	-	468	48	-	-	164
-	8 50	442	-	442	-	-	-	165
-	6 50	338	-	338	-	-	-	166
-	8 50	442	-	-	-	-	-	167
-	7 50	390	-	390	-	3 50	-	168
-	6 50	338	-	338	-	3 00	-	169
-	9 00	468	-	468	72	-	-	170
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	3 00	-	171
-	8 00	416	-	416	48	-	-	172
-	7 50	390	-	390	-	-	-	173
-	6 50	338	-	338	-	2 75	-	174
-	8 00	416	-	416	-	3 00	-	175
-	8 00	416	-	416	-	-	\$3 00	176
-	9 00	468	-	468	-	3 25	-	177
-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	178
-	8 50	442	216	658	-	-	-	624
-	7 50	390	-	390	-	3 00	-	658
-	9 00	416	-	416	-	-	3 50	181
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	182
-	17 31	900	-	900	-	-	-	183
-	16 50	858	-	858	-	-	-	184
-	21 00	1,092	-	1,092	144	-	-	185
Six weeks. Unemployed.	10 00	460	-	460	-	-	-	186
-	15 00	780	-	780	75	-	-	187

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW YORK.

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
<i>Cotton.</i>									
1	Carder	Day .	11*	10*	66	2	3	2	7
2	Dresser tender	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	1	4
3	Measnrer, cloth	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	—	—	2
4	Overseer	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	1	4
5	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	6	—	8
6	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	4	—	—	4
7	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	—	—	2
8	Overseer of mule room	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	4	—	—	4
9	Overseer of spinning	Piece,	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	4	4	1	9
10	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11†	8†	66	4	—	—	4
11	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	1	1	6
12	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	3	1	—	4
13	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	4	1	7
14	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11†	8†	66	2	2	—	3
15	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	—	—	2
16	Spinner	Piece,	11*	10*	66	2	2	—	4
17	Spinner	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	2	—	4
<i>Wool.</i>									
18	Dyer	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	4	3	3	10
19	Overseer	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	2	3	—	5
20	Overseer of carding	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	61 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	2	—	4
21	Overseer of carding	Day .	11	8	63	3	2	—	5
22	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	3	3	—	6
23	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	2	2	1	5
24	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	2	3	—	5
25	Overseer of carding	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	5	—	—	5
26	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	—	—	2
27	Overseer of carding	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	—	3
28	Overseer of carding and combing	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	2	—	—	2
29	Overseer of fulling and finishing	Day .	11	8	63	2	2	—	4
30	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	4	1	7
31	Overseer of spinning	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	3	—	—	3
32	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	—	—	2
33	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	2	—	—	2
34	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	6	—	1	7
35	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	6	2	2	10
36	Overseer of spinning	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	1	4
37	Overseer of spooling and dressing	Day .	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	2	—	—	2
38	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	—	1	3
39	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	3	—	—	3
40	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	4	—	6
41	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	7	—	—	7
42	Overseer of weaving	Day .	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	2	3	2	7
43	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	2	—	4
44	Overseer of weaving	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	3	—	5
45	Spinner	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	—	—	2
46	Spinner, jack	Piece,	11	8	63	3	2	1	6
47	Weaver	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	1	—	3
48	Weaver	Piece,	11	8	63	2	2	—	4

* One-sixth.

† Five-twelfths.

‡ Eleven-twelfths.

TABLE V.—Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc. NEW YORK.

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.	EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
	Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	\$7 12	\$370	\$168	\$538	\$84	-	-	\$538	1
-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	-	2
-	6 60	343	20	363	65	\$4 00	\$2 50	-	3
-	12 00	624	-	624	60	3 50	2 25	624	4
-	15 00	780	-	780	96	3 50	3 00	-	5
-	15 00	780	208	988	96	4 00	2 50	-	6
-	11 58	622	-	622	78	3 50	2 50	-	7
One week. Unemployed	12 00	600	260	860	-	-	-	-	8
-	13 50	702	312	1,014	60	3 50	2 50	914	9
-	19 50	1,014	234	1,248	65	-	-	-	10
-	19 50	1,014	572	1,586	96	3 75	2 25	-	11
-	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	-	12
-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	936	13
-	19 50	1,014	-	1,014	75	3 50	2 00	-	14
-	12 00	600	-	600	78	4 00	2 50	-	15
-	9 50	494	-	494	72	3 50	2 50	-	16
-	6 00	312	-	312	-	-	-	312	17
Three weeks. Unemployed	6 75	351	924	1,275	-	-	-	-	18
-	21 00	1,092	-	1,092	120	-	3 00	-	19
-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	-	20
-	12 00	624	-	624	54	-	-	-	21
-	21 00	1,000	-	1,000	84	-	-	-	22
-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	-	23
-	23 25	1,200	-	1,200	-	-	-	-	24
-	18 00	936	260	1,196	96	4 00	-	-	25
-	19 50	1,014	-	1,014	96	4 00	3 50	-	26
-	18 00	936	-	936	-	-	-	-	27
-	21 00	1,092	-	1,092	-	4 50	3 50	-	28
-	12 00	624	-	624	48	-	-	-	29
-	21 00	1,000	-	1,000	48	-	-	-	30
-	16 50	858	-	858	156	-	-	-	31
-	18 00	936	-	936	93	-	-	-	32
-	15 50	806	-	806	-	-	-	-	33
-	12 00	624	-	624	-	-	-	-	34
-	18 00	936	850	1,786	-	-	-	1,200	35
Two weeks. Unemployed	15 00	780	-	780	-	-	-	460	36
-	16 20	843	-	843	72	5 00	3 50	-	37
-	18 00	936	-	936	108	-	-	-	38
-	18 00	936	-	936	60	-	-	-	39
Three weeks. Unemployed	21 50	896	-	896	84	-	-	-	40
-	18 00	936	552	1,488	-	-	-	-	41
-	18 90	983	-	983	-	-	-	983	42
-	24 00	1,248	-	1,248	90	4 00	3 00	-	43
-	18 00	936	-	936	120	-	-	936	44
-	8 30	432	-	432	24	-	-	-	45
-	11 00	572	144	716	-	-	-	-	46
-	9 24	480	-	480	66	3 75	2 50	450	47
Ten weeks. Unemployed	10 00	468	-	468	48	-	-	-	48

TABLE V. — *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

	OCCUPATIONS.	Day or Piece Work.	HOURS OF LABOR.			NUMBER IN FAMILY.			
			Five Days.	On Saturday.	Per Week.	Adults.	Children under 10.	Children above 10.	Total.
49	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	—	—	1
50	Weaver . . .	Piece,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	2	1	5
<i>Worsted.</i>									
51	Overseer of weaving .	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{3}{4}$	1			1
<i>Carpets.</i>									
52	Overseer of weaving .	Day .	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	60	3	—		3
53	Overseer of weaving and finishing . .	Day .	11*	9	66	2	2		4
<i>Hosiery.</i>									
54	Overseer of carding .	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	3	—	5
55	Overseer of finishing .	Day .	11	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	—	3	5
56	Overseer of knitting .	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	66	2	—	—	2
57	Overseer of knitting .	Day .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	2	1	1	4

* Two-fifths.

TABLE V. — *Occupations, Earnings, Cost of Living, etc.* NEW YORK — *Concluded.*

TIME UNEMPLOYED DURING THE YEAR.		EARNINGS OF HEAD OF FAMILY AND OTHERS IN THE FAMILY.				COST OF LIVING.				
		Per Week.	Per Year.	Others.	Total.	Rent, per Year.	Men's Board, per Week.	Women's Board, per Week.	Total yearly Expenses.	
-	-	\$6 00	\$240	-	\$240	-	\$2 54	-	-	49
Three weeks.	Un- employed	8 50	415	-	415	\$60	-	-	-	50
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$2 50	51
-	-	24 00	1,200	-	1,200	-	-	-	-	52
-	-	30 00	1,500	-	1,500	96	4 00	\$3 00	-	53
-	-	20 00	1,040	-	1,040	96	-	-	-	54
-	-	12 00	624	\$108	732	108	4 00	2 54	-	55
-	-	24 00	1,248	-	1,248	-	5 00	2 75	\$6 00	56
-	-	18 90	982	-	982	-	3 75	2 75	-	57

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYEES.

What would be the effect upon wages of a law establishing the hours of labor at 60 per week?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Would raise wages	10	25	16	3	2	56
B. Would reduce wages	16	3	1	63	22	105
C. No permanent effect	25	52	29	72	26	204
D. Could not answer definitely	2	4	5	47	7	65
E. No reply	-	-	1	2	-	3
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Would raise wages	88	56	144
B. Would reduce wages	2	105	107
C. No permanent effect	1	204	205
D. Could not answer definitely	3	65	68
E. No reply	18	3	21
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. If the ten-hour law was extended to other States, it would raise wages at least ten per cent	3	-	3
D. There would not be so much stoppage, for the market would be better	1	-	1

What is the desire, if any, for a uniform system of laws on the hours of labor?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. A general desire	26	63	52	76	21	238
B. An individual desire	13	18	-	41	9	81
C. No desire	12	2	-	53	21	88
D. Could not answer definitely	2	-	-	15	5	22
E. No reply	-	1	-	2	1	4
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It would be a great deal better to have ten hours	-	-	-	1	-	1
A desire, if not accompanied with a reduction of wages	-	-	-	-	5	5

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
B. Would prefer ten hours, and take what could be earned		-	-	31	-	31
Think it would be a good thing		-	-	1	-	1
C. Do not know any thing about it		-	-	3	-	3
Satisfied with 66 hours per week, and with such pay as I can earn	-	-	-	1	-	1
As soon work as they are, as to have the ten-hour law		-	-	2	-	2
D. Ten hours enough for any one to work	-	-	-	3	-	3
If they could earn as much in ten hours as they could in eleven, would want ten		-	-	7	-	7
The operatives would be better satisfied		-	-	1	-	1
Part want ten and part eleven	-	-	-	1	-	1
Prefer the pay to the time		-	-	1	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. A general desire	92	238	330
B. An individual desire	8	81	89
C. No desire	-	88	88
D. Could not answer definitely	5	22	27
E. No reply	7	4	11
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Massachusetts operatives favor the ten-hour law because they feel the benefit of it, and should like it to be extended to other States	2	-	2
D. Would curtail production to such an extent that there would be a greater demand for the goods we are employed on	1	-	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

Does the ten-hour law of Massachusetts affect the employés in any way? If so, how?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Favorably	9	11	5	29	-	54
B. Unfavorably	15	11	3	1	-	30
C. No effect	18	43	29	67	1	158
D. Could not answer definitely	9	11	15	68	3	106
E. No reply	2	8		22	53	85
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. As an example	2			-		2
It causes many to leave here to work there	2	4		2		8
It has caused two of our boys to go there	-		-	2		2
Makes them feel uneasy, and talk of going there	-	-		2	-	2
Makes the best mechanics go there		1		-		1
Cannot keep them here if they can get work there	-		-	1		1
Operatives from there say they prefer to work there on account of less hours	-		-	3	-	3
I worked there, and when I came back I did not like it	-		-	1	-	1
It makes it hard to hire good hands here	-		-	1	-	1
Gives hopes of obtaining the law here,	2	6		-	-	8
It makes them discontented with our long hours	-	-		4	-	4
Makes them desire such a law here	3	-	3	4	-	10
They seem to think ten hours are better	-	-	-	8	-	8
They think the law would improve them socially	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. Makes them discontented	15	7	2	-	-	24
Crowds us by making the amount earned there in ten hours the standard here for eleven	-	3	-			3
Came from there, and earn more money here; more pay per cut	-	-	-	1	-	1
It causes the poorest help to come here and work for next to nothing	-	1	1	-	-	2
C. Does not make them any better	-	-	-	1	-	1
It don't now, but it did in the beginning	-	-	-	1	-	1
Are so far from the line, do not feel it,	-	-	-	1	-	1
D. Heard them talk about it considerably before we began ten hours	-	-	-	3	-	3
Ten hours is about all a man can stand	-	-	-	1		1
Employés can earn more there in ten hours than here in eleven	-	6	-	-		6
It affects the woollen more than the cotton operatives	-			1	-	1
Some operatives from there complain a good deal on Saturday	-	-		1		1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Favorably	42	54	96
B. Unfavorably	2	30	32
C. No effect	—	158	158
D. Could not answer definitely	5	106	111
E. No reply	63	85	148
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. We are better off every way	15	—	15
Gives us more time for rest and mental improvement	10	—	10
The people are healthier and farther advanced than in the twelve-hour States	1	—	1
B. It overstocks the labor market; by that means wages are lower than they would be if ten hours were adopted by every State	1	—	1
The only way it affects us is that we are overcrowded with help	1	—	1

Has the Massachusetts ten-hour law any influence upon the supply of skilled operatives? If so, how?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full</i>						
A. Increases wages and supply	—	—	—	3	—	3
B. Decreases wages and supply	17	29	5	29	—	80
C. No effect	25	37	31	24	—	117
D. Could not answer definitely	9	15	15	49	—	88
E. No reply	2	3	1	82	57	145
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. They come here because work is so much easier; don't speed up so, and can go out half-hour to get lunch	—	—	—	1	—	1
Know of operatives from there to come here because they could get more pay on account of having more hours	—	—	—	2	—	2
B. The best skilled operatives leave here to go there	13	29	—	19	—	61
Skilled operatives will not come here if they can get work there	—	—	1	—	—	1
The best spinners go there, where they have shorter hours and higher wages	—	—	3	—	—	3
Think it makes them more scarce here	—	—	1	4	—	5
It draws toward rather than from there	—	—	—	6	—	6
D. Spinners go both ways	—	—	—	1	—	1
Will go back there as soon as I can	—	—	—	1	—	1

STATEMENTS OF EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Know of some to come here, but whether for more pay I do not know	-	-	-	1	-	1
Notice that the best workmen come from there		1	-	-	-	1
Have known operatives to come from there because they could work more hours, etc., and have also known them to go there on account of less hours				1		1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Increases wages and supply	24	3	27
B. Decreases wages and supply	-	80	80
C. No effect	3	117	120
D. Could not answer definitely	15	88	103
E. No reply	70	145	215
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. Yes; skilled operatives are hard to be found where they work over ten hours	15	-	15
You will always find more skilled labor where they run shorter hours	1	-	1

Are your opportunities for employment good or poor?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Good	31	53	41	100	55	280
B. Poor	19	6	6	-	-	31
C. Fair	2	24	4	30	2	62
D. Could not answer definitely	-	-	1	-	-	1
E. No reply	1	1	-	57	-	59
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Good when there is water to run the mill; have lost time from low water	-	2	-	-	-	2
I could always find something to do	-	-	1	-	-	1
B. Should probably find it hard to get work if I should leave here or be discharged for any cause	-	3	-	-	-	3

STATEMENTS OF EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Good	33	280	313
B. Poor	36	31	67
C. Fair	31	62	93
D. Could not answer definitely	6	1	7
E. No reply	6	59	65
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. There is always work	16	—	16
B. Poor, if I get out of work	10	—	10
C. Sometimes good, sometimes bad	2	—	2

If hours are reduced, can you earn as much as now?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	31	69	44	41	17	202
B. No	17	4	—	37	13	71
C. Doubtful	—	4	—	15	4	23
D. Could not answer definitely	4	7	8	17	14	50
E. No reply	1	—	—	77	9	87
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. Eventually more	5	1	1	—	—	7
If machinery was speeded up	—	—	—	1	—	1
I could; I don't work more than ten hours on the average	—	—	1	—	—	1
B. Not at the present rate of wages, if they were reduced in proportion	1	2	—	5	1	9
D. Think I could on spinning	—	—	—	1	—	1
Don't think it could make any difference with my wages	—	—	—	1	—	1
It would depend on the manufacturers	—	—	—	—	2	2
If I did as much, I would earn as much	—	—	—	1	—	1
Perhaps not at first; after a little, if the pay was raised, think I might get more	—	—	3	6	—	9
Work 60 hours per week now	—	1	—	—	7	8

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	95	202	297
B. No	5	71	76
C. Doubtful	1	23	24
D. Could not answer definitely	2	50	52
E. No reply	9	87	96
Totals	112	433	545

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉES—Continued.

In the long run, can you accomplish as much in your line in 10 hours per day as in 11, other things being equal?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	34	81	46	82	27	270
B. No	15	2	2	50	22	91
C. Doubtful	-	-	2	28	-	30
D. Could not answer definitely	2	1	2	24	5	34
E. No reply	2	-	-	3	3	8
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. The shorter the hours, the more a man feels like work	-	-	-	1	-	1
I could weave as much in ten hours as in eleven	-	-	-	2	-	2
If operatives were rightly managed they would do just as much in ten as in eleven hours, for when we shorten the hours we increase the production	-	-	-	2	-	2
Yes; and in the year we could accomplish more	2	11	5	9	-	27
They can do about as much work in ten hours as they used to in eleven. (The informant works ten hours)	-	-	-	2	-	2
Could gain a part of the hour	-	-	-	-	1	1
Can do as much in eight hours as now in eleven	-	1	-	-	-	1
Can do all my work in whatever time the mill runs	-	-	1	-	-	1
Average more work in ten hours than in eleven or twelve and a half hours. (Works ten hours)	-	-	-	-	1	1
Produce more with eleven hours' work than when we worked twelve	-	-	-	1	1	2
We used to run eleven hours; we now run ten, and produce just about as much; the diminution is very slight. The operatives say they would work harder, and could afford to run with a little more speed, for the sake of the extra hour	-	-	-	2	-	2
B. No; but I could earn as much	1	-	-	6	-	6
Looms run now as fast as they can, and so weavers would lose the hour, not if we had work right along	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not on the same speed	-	-	-	1	-	1
C. It would probably make no difference unless speed was increased	-	-	1	3	-	4
Perhaps not; what then? I do more work now than I am paid for	-	-	1	-	-	1
D. Perhaps with steady work we might gain a little, but it depends entirely upon the speed of the machinery	1	1	1	4	-	7
Never tried it, so it is hard to say	-	-	-	1	-	1
I did as much in eleven hours as I was accustomed to do in twelve, but prefer to do it in twelve, and take it a little easier	-	-	-	1	-	1
Perhaps not; but I could earn as much as now	1	-	1	-	-	2

UNIFORM HOURS OF LABOR.

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STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Think it quite probable that we could, take the spinners on an average . . .	-	-		1	-	1
I think there is fully as much done now in ten hours as in eleven . . .				1		1
When we dress, we never worked more than nine or ten hours . . .			-	1		1
I should use every endeavor, and, though I might not accomplish as much at first, in the end I could do more . . .	-	-	-	3	1	4
(From an overseer.) When we first began with ten hours I was not troubled with my help; and, though we produced as much as we used to in eleven, now the help want to be out more, and we do not produce as much . . .	-	-	-	1	-	1

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	94	270	364
B. No		91	91
C. Doubtful	-	30	30
D. Could not answer definitely	4	34	38
E. No reply	14	8	22
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. We are doing a great deal more in ten than we ever did in eleven hours	7		7
D. They are not equal: we have higher speed	1	-	1

What disposition would be made of more leisure?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Make a good use of it	49	79	48	173	52	401
B. Make a poor use of it	1	-	1	6	3	11
C. Did not answer definitely	1	3	3	8	2	17
D. No reply	2	2		-		4
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. It would not be hard to find a good use for more leisure time	17	10	14	15	2	58
Work around the house, and improve its appearance	-	2	3	23	2	30
Spend the time with my family	6	13	7	17	5	48
Should work in my garden, and do any odd chores about the house	-	1	-	13	8	22
Should have more time to rest	1	2	1	8	-	12
Breathing the pure air, and looking about me to see what is going on	1	1	2	-	-	4
Read, study, and rest	5	12	11	15	1	44
Reading and visiting	-	1	-	1	-	2
Read and reflect	1	-	1	1	-	3
In recreation and reading	1	2	1	-	-	4
Study music, attend singing school, and other healthy amusements	-	2	-	2	1	5
The mill-owners propose establishing a reading room, and I should go there	-	-	-	1	-	1
Recreation, healthy out-door exercises, and evening amusements	1	1	1	12	5	20
Self-improvement and betterment of our condition	2	14	-	6	1	23
Should sew and mend my clothing and do my work at home (females), Mental, moral, physical, and social improvement	1	2	3	7	-	13
Sit down and have a smoke, read a paper, and rest myself	1	5	-	4	-	10
Could get to bed earlier; get through reading paper earlier	-	-	-	1	-	1
Could use it very profitably; could store my mind; now it is all work and sleep	-	-	-	1	-	1
Should have more time to work round the house, perhaps; too tired now	-	-	-	1	-	1
Should have more time to devote to the education of my children and increasing the pleasures of home	-	1	1	1	-	3
Would learn to play in the band	-	-	-	1	-	1
I should do my own sewing; ten hours would be the greatest boon that could be given the working classes (female)	-	-	-	1	-	1
I think if he were at home a little more with his family and children, it would do him good (female)	-	-	-	1	-	1
In the winter I should attend evening school	-	-	-	1	1	2
Should take comfort at home, and get rested for the next day's work	-	-	-	1	-	1
Might lie in bed a little more and have more time for dinner, and I could take care of my garden	-	-	-	1	-	1
Men of family would work in garden, saw wood, and such like, while the younger folks would go and enjoy themselves	-	-	-	1	-	1
I would be helping about the house; a good many would make a bad use; would be out on the street smoking; Americans would do better; half French here	-	-	-	1	-	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Very few would take any advantage; the most would use it for some kind of recreation	1	1		3		5
Some would mentally improve; boys would waste it, girls would improve it	-	-	-	1	-	1
Probably I should go out riding with my friends	-	-	-	1		1
My daughter would sew, and mend our clothing, and go to night school in the winter; my husband would work around the house, and probably get to rest a little sooner; many of the men are in the lager-beer saloons (female)			-	-	1	1
The women would sew, and the men would work in their gardens	-		-	1	1	2
The women and children would be better off, and half the men	-		1	-	1	2
The hour per day is used for recreation; girls do a great deal of sewing, are more neatly dressed. (Works 60 hours per week)	-	-		1		1
Should try to obtain a better education	1	-	-			1
Study and reading for me; operatives generally would make an innocent and fair use	1		-	-	1	2
Playing ball; girls walk about. (Works 60 hours per week)		-		1		1
Working at something, enjoy liberty		1	1	1		3
I read considerably. (Works ten hours now)	-	-	-	-	1	1
An hour for dinner; educate themselves, read the papers, and rest	-	-	-	-	1	1
Play ball, sit round the store, chore about the house, and read		-		-	2	2
Chore about the house; people would be less tired; fewer complaints about going to church on Sundays	-	-	-	-	1	1
They would pay more attention to education here than in England	-	-	-	-	1	1
I have nine acres of land, and when I have any time work for myself	-	-	-	-	1	1
Could find enough to do	-	-	-	1	-	1
Americans would make a good use; other nationalities would not	-	-	-	1	-	1
Beneficial to health	5	3			-	8
Some innocent, some bad: the good would prevail			-	-	1	1
I would get a little land, and have a garden			-	-	1	1
If I had more land, should try to improve that	-	-	-	1		1
More leisure would make us better every way and more independent		1	-	-		1
Those that have places take care of them. (Works ten hours now)	-		-	1		1
Should study the theory and principles of my business	-	3	-	-	-	3
Go to lodge and chapter two evenings in a week; read, visit, attend lectures, etc. (Works ten hours now),	-		-	-	1	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
The men would read, and educate themselves, and the women would keep house better, and look after their families more	-	-			2	2
Some in domestic work and some in pleasure; a great benefit to all	3		1	11	1	16
Some in the street; mostly married here, every one has a garden; young folks would be looking out for a chance to get married	-	-	-	1	-	1
More rest, and so more ambition to do his work in ten hours; a better man, and I believe he would live longer for the leisure			-		1	1
If I had a garden or little outside work, I would have plenty of time to do it in	-	-	-	1	-	1
Some would dress up and go visiting, some would improve their places, and some go to the gin-mill	-	-	-	1	-	1
Should do work for myself that I now have to hire done	1	1	-	1	1	4
Boys and girls would use it chiefly for recreation, the women would be at home, and the men — it is hard telling	-	-	-	1	-	1
Single women promenade, the married ones are at home; some of the young men hang around lager-beer saloons, some go to club-rooms, where they have games and reading. (Works ten hours now)	-	-	-		1	1
The mill-girls walk out evenings; some of the smaller ones go to evening schools,	-	-	-	-	1	1
The women would make a good use, but the male operatives would make a poor use	-	-	-	1	2	3
I could find use enough; cannot get to bed now until ten o'clock			-	1	-	1
They would find use for it; some work in gardens, play croquet, ball, etc. (Works ten hours now)	-			1	-	1
Families would have more time to sew, wash, etc., men to see to gardening; those inclined would put it to bad use just as they do now	-	-		2	-	2
The women employ their time at home; the larger part are young people, readers and musicians. (Female operative; works ten hours now)	-	-	-		1	1
Among the younger people, recreation; among the elder, with families, more time at home. (Works ten hours)	-	-	-	-	1	1
I am a great reader; go down the street, and look about me; not five per cent would get drunk				-	1	1
Garden is attended to; younger people play ball, and enjoy themselves; women do dressmaking that they had to hire done before; have more time for housework, and dress neater. (Works 60 hours per week),	-	-	-	1	-	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Those who use one hour about the house would use two hours the same; those who now spend one hour on the street would spend two hours the same	-	-	-	1	-	1
After I got my farming done, should have more time to read, and should not have to read after I got to bed, so should have more time to sleep	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. Waste it, what else?	1	-	-	-	-	1
Don't know; another man says he "would lay around"	-	-	-	1	-	1
Women would promenade and gossip, Nowhere to go to when out of mills; not much use	-	-	1	-	1	2
More sleep in the morning; in the evening boys waste time in mischief. (Works ten hours)	-	-	-	1	-	1
In such a place as this the more you give them the worse off they are	-	-	-	1	-	1
I fear it would not be improved to good advantage by the younger class, without homes	-	-	-	1	-	1
Two-thirds of the men would spend it where they could get something to drink	-	-	-	-	1	1
A good many would spend their time not to a very good purpose, picnics, etc., and some would want to go to the saloons	-	-	-	1	-	1
Loaf round the streets and at home same as I do now; an hour would not do me much good if I were out	-	-	-	1	-	1
C. Some one thing, some another	-	-	-	2	-	2
Should spend it as I chose	-	-	2	-	-	2
Not much acquainted with the habits of the operatives. (Works ten hours)	-	-	-	-	1	1
About the same as now	-	-	-	-	1	1
"If I did not have it in my pocket, should have it in my bones"	-	-	-	1	-	1
Have all the leisure I want; those who want more do not work much now	1	-	-	-	-	1
With my small help it is hard play; they play too hard, and keep too late hours. (From an overseer; works 60 hours per week)	-	-	-	1	-	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Make a good use of it	63	401	464
B. Make a poor use of it	—	11	11
C. Did not answer definitely	15	17	32
D. No reply	34	4	38
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. I believe in giving people opportunities; in the long run they will make good use of them	1	—	1
Use it in mental improvement, rest, education, and make a good use of it	30	—	30
Should attend night schools	3	—	3
It has been one of the best means of educating the operatives, and thereby making them better citizens and better neighbors	1	—	1
Enforced leisure in dull times is bad, but regular leisure by shortening the hours of labor is always good in the long run	1	—	1

Does intemperance prevail to any extent among the operatives in this town?

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>						
A. Yes	1	10	20	18	3	52
B. No	47	58	20	81	19	225
C. To a moderate degree	1	9	6	57	27	100
D. Did not answer definitely	2	7	6	30	8	53
E. No reply	2	—	—	1	—	3
Totals	53	84	52	187	57	433
<i>In detail, in part.</i>						
A. There are too many beer saloons supported by the operatives	—	—	1	—	—	1
Liquor selling is gaining ground	—	—	—	1	—	1
Thirteen or fourteen liquor shops for the 700 who live in this town	—	—	—	—	1	1
It does; fewer hours means less intemperance; long hours and poorly paid labor tend to brutalize	—	1	—	—	—	1
Greatly with those that are overworked; not so much among those who have more leisure	—	2	—	—	—	2
Full more than in Massachusetts	—	1	—	—	—	1
Only among the Irish operatives	—	—	1	—	—	1
To a much greater extent than it ought	—	2	3	—	—	5
More than most people think	1	—	—	—	—	1
Among the overworked and poorest paid I see the most. (Works ten hours)	—	2	—	—	—	2
Intemperance does prevail, and we think poverty causes much of it	—	1	—	—	—	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉS — *Continued.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
Many saloons around here; as many as in any town of its size in the country	-	-	-	1	-	1
B. No, sir; because the owners will not allow it	-	-	-	-	1	1
Not so much as formerly; employers here will not tolerate it	1	-	-	-	-	1
Not over a dozen out of three hundred operatives are thought to be inclined to get drunk	-	-	-	-	1	1
No; if a man is intemperate in our mill he is cautioned once; the second time discharged	1	-	-	-	-	1
There is no intemperance here; no place where liquor is sold	1	-	-	-	-	1
Very sober class in this mill. (Works ten hours)	-	-	-	-	1	1
(An overseer says) My help are very sober; mostly girls	-	-	-	-	1	1
Scarcely a man in this mill uses intoxicating drink	-	-	-	1	-	1
The operatives are very clear from it, for a factory place	-	-	-	1	-	1
Operatives do not have time nor even money enough to get drunk	-	1	-	-	-	1
The rules of the company prevent it to any extent; with ten hours would be even less	-	1	-	-	-	1
This is a temperance town; it is only at election time that everybody gets drunk	1	-	-	-	-	1
Not much chance here; many go to Providence and spend their Sundays in beer saloons	-	-	1	-	-	1
C. Most intemperance among those that work the most hours; long hours create a desire for stimulants	-	1	-	-	-	1
Only among the lower classes	-	-	1	-	-	1
If a man gets drunk, he goes; not more than one or two that drink in the mills	-	-	-	-	1	1
Not more than six or seven intemperate in 140; a large proportion of the operatives are Germans	-	-	-	-	1	1
Not more than one in ten drinks	-	-	-	-	2	2
Only two in 100 in my charge get drunk occasionally, not more than ten or twelve in all	-	-	-	-	1	1
Not much, but more than where they work ten hours	-	2	-	-	-	2
More in the town than in this mill	-	-	-	3	-	3
Very little; Irish predominate, Welsh pretty strong	-	-	-	-	1	1
Some drink when they can get a chance	-	-	-	1	-	1
From two to three per cent are intemperate sometimes	-	-	-	-	1	1
Not more than in other places	-	1	-	-	-	1
Once in a while an operative has what he calls a "little time"	-	-	-	-	1	1
To some extent, but not half so bad as in Fall River	-	-	1	-	-	1
Not very much; would be less if the hours were shorter	-	1	-	-	-	1

STATEMENTS BY EMPLOYÉES — *Concluded.*

REPLIES.	Me.	N. H.	R. I.	Conn.	N. Y.	Totals.
D. About as much here as elsewhere	1	3	6	2	1	13
A good many total abstainers here. I have seen it worse than here. (Works ten hours)					1	1
"How can we get drunk on nothing?"	-	1	-	-	-	1
Believe long hours induce intemperance; the short-hour laborer eats food; the long-hour laborer takes stimulants	-	1	-	-	-	1
They don't get enough to get drunk with. The weavers could not drink; they would be unfit for their work			-	-	1	1
Full as much as under ten hours; eleven hours brings a poorer class of help, therefore more intemperance	-	1				1
More among the English than Americans	-				1	1
French, Irish, and Germans will drink	-			1		1
Not as much as in Massachusetts	-			2		2
Have not seen any drunk within a month; there is no increase of frequenting saloons by working ten hours. (Works ten hours)				2		2

REPLIES.	Mass.	Other States.	Totals.
<i>Condensed, in full.</i>			
A. Yes	29	52	81
B. No	63	225	288
C. To a moderate degree	12	100	112
D. Did not answer definitely	1	53	54
E. No reply	7	3	10
Totals	112	433	545
<i>Massachusetts in detail, in part.</i>			
A. They are such a drunken set that they are able to support nearly four hundred rum shops	1	-	1
People are so run down that they resort to all kinds of beverages for strength	1	-	1
I think so; we have recently elected two drunkards to the legislature	1	-	1

The tables and accompanying statements from manufacturers and employes are so complete and exhaustive in themselves that an analysis of them is not necessary. It should be borne in mind that Massachusetts is the only ten-hour State in the Eastern cluster of textile districts.

From the tables and statements it is readily seen that the cost of cotton at the factory varies but little in the States specified, transportation showing more in the cost of raw material, and in getting products to market, in Maine and New Hampshire, than it does on the average in the other States; but wages on the whole are less in these two States than in most of the others. The chief differences in quantities produced arise from differences in grades.

It is apparent that Massachusetts with ten hours produces as much per man or per loom or per spindle, equal grades being considered, as other States with eleven and more hours; and also that wages here rule as high if not higher than in the States where the mills run longer time.

So far as the tables show, there is no reason why the mills in New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Maine, should not be run on the ten-hour basis in harmony with the system in successful operation in Massachusetts.

A report of the results of the investigation would be incomplete, without giving the experiences of the agents employed, so far as the testimony gained by them is concerned. Much collateral evidence was picked up by them, and in many respects forms the most valuable features of their work. It was natural that much important material should be collected by observing men through the conversations in which they engaged, both with manufacturers and operatives, when all, with entire unreserve, spoke their minds upon the matter in hand.

It is of course obviously impossible to convey by means of type any adequate sense of the impression produced upon one who for several weeks is hearing many times daily the very same views, frequently in about the same language, uttered by persons widely separated, and who had no consciousness of the fact that what they were saying had ever been heard by their listener before. But the listener would

after a while be sure that there were some facts which he knew. However, we can present in print the conclusions arrived at as the results of this experience. As one of these results we are convinced that there is a far greater sympathy on the part of the manufacturers with the operatives in all the real hardships of their lot, and especially in their desire for ten hours, than the operatives imagine or could be made to believe. The expressions of good-will towards this investigation, and the conclusions to which it naturally tends, have been too many and too hearty to leave this in doubt.

As another result, a vicious feature of our present industrial system is made plainly manifest in that it so places true men, who would show their good-will, that they cannot. A superintendent of a mill said, "I would gladly help these people to ten hours; but my situation is such that I cannot even let them know my feelings towards them. If I did, it would destroy me at once, without my being able to serve them in the least."

As yet another result equally manifest, we have learned how little the manufacturers sometimes understand the operatives. Not seldom has it happened, that after the manager of a mill has expressed his own view, and confidently declared it to be that of his employés also, our agent upon interviewing them has found their real view quite the opposite of that which their employer supposed. Perhaps no one impression is so deeply made as this wide and intense contrast of feeling which exists between the manufacturer and operative with reference to matters which intimately concern them both, as that contrast has struck across the mind of our agents upon going directly from the one to the other, and hearing them both speak their minds freely and fully upon the same subject.

As a further result, we have found that a large majority of the manufacturers would prefer ten hours to any greater number, "if only all would agree to it." Repeatedly has it occurred, when our agents have made known their errand, that almost the first words of the manufacturer would be, "It [ten hours] would be better for manufacturer and operative, if it could only be made universal;" and these words, always spoken so spontaneously as to show that they were

the expression of a settled conviction, may be fairly taken to express the united wisdom of the manufacturers of textile fabrics in New York and New England.

As one reason for this it was constantly said, that, if all worked but ten hours, then it would be the same for all, and so everybody would have just as fair a chance for success under ten as now under more hours.

As to the effect of a reduction of hours to ten upon the product, and upon the relation of the product to wages, two opinions appeared; both having foundation, and both worthy of attention.

Some manufacturers believe that they can make their mills produce so nearly as much in ten hours as in more, as to be practicably as profitable. On this point we present the following facts which we have gathered:—

One large cotton mill reduced time for four months a few years ago, and found by their books that from two to four tenths of an hour was gained. Had the experiment been continued for a year, an even greater gain might have been expected, as that period of time might fairly be required for the vital condition of the operatives to rise from the eleven to the ten hour level, and so for them to make the full gain of which they were capable.

Another point made by some who had adopted ten hours was, "We get a better class of help, and the improvement in this particular is worth quite as much to us as the eleventh hour." As illustrating this, we cite the fact that a silk firm in Connecticut, which, as one of the firm said, "cannot afford to run more than ten hours," is erecting a large mill in Massachusetts, a ten-hour State, instead of enlarging its works in Connecticut, an eleven-hour State.

Some mills have voluntarily adopted ten hours, and have achieved the result of accomplishing as much in that time as formerly in eleven. Such is the case with a large cotton mill employing several hundred operatives, and standing in the midst of eleven-hour mills. As a result, with some changes in machinery, with careful management, and with the stricter discipline which can be maintained under shorter hours, the superintendent finds his products so nearly what they were before, that the directors are satisfied; and, after a trial of a

year and a half, the experiment has become an established success.

Another case is that of a woollen mill in an eleven-hour State, which has been running but ten hours a day for ten years. It has been under the same management during the whole time, and its whole product comes in direct competition with eleven and eleven and a half hour mills. Yet in the judgment of the manager, who is also one of the largest owners, the product has been as great and the profit as large as if the mill had been run eleven hours.

In both the above cases the rate of pay which the operatives receive is just as large as in eleven-hour mills. The theory on which such facts, and others equally significant which we have yet to give, may be explained, and correctly, we think, is, that there is only so much work in a person, and that all the work there is in the great body of the operatives can be got out of them in ten hours, and no more for any considerable period can be got out of them in eleven; for no mill has yet been built in which the machinery is more than the man.

Another case is that of three woollen mills in an eleven-hour district, all owned by the same company, two of which were built many years ago, and at first ran twelve hours a day or more. A number of years since, the managers reduced the time to ten hours a day, and they have so continued up to the present; and both managers and operatives testified that, except in the carding room, the product was as great as in the longer hours.

Still another case is that of a carpet mill employing about seventeen hundred persons. Twenty-five years ago the hours were reduced directly from twelve to ten. At the outset a part of the owners feared that the result would be disastrous. But, on the contrary, the establishment has been run by the same management from then till now, without a break, and with great success; and yet the average pay in it is higher than in any other mill, with possibly one or two exceptions, which we found.

But perhaps the most emphatic testimony is that of another carpet mill employing about twelve hundred persons. This mill, which has been running but ten hours for sev-

eral years, and has during this period tried the experiment of running overtime, gives the following results. The manager said, "I believe, with proper management and supervision, the same help will produce as many goods, and of superior quality, in ten hours as they will in eleven. I judge so from the fact that during certain seasons, being pushed for goods, we have run up to nine o'clock; and for the first month the production was increased materially. After this, however, the help would grow listless, and the production would fall off, and the quality of the goods deteriorate."

That is, one of our largest and most perfectly equipped and thoroughly managed mills, having tried the experiment of running more than ten hours, finds that, although paying extra for the overtime, while during the first month adequate returns can be obtained, yet by the third month the whole production of the ten-hour day and overtime together cannot be made to be more than it was before the overtime began, "as the books will show." The reason is, the flesh and blood of the operatives have only so much work in them, and it was all got out in ten hours, and no more could be got out in twelve; and what was got extra in the first month was taken right out of the life of the operatives.

The Willimantic Linen Company of Connecticut ran its mills eleven hours per day till about two years ago, when it was determined as an experiment to run ten hours. During the first six months a loss in product of fifteen hundred pounds was experienced, but this loss the managers of the mills attribute as much to other causes, existing at the time, as to the reduction in hours; for since then there has been no loss in product, while wages have remained intact so far as the hours of labor are concerned.

Thus we have large mills, employing in the aggregate several thousand persons, which have voluntarily adopted ten hours in eleven-hour districts, bearing witness emphatically that they find the product of ten hours a day, in the long run, so nearly or quite the same as that of eleven hours, that their mills are as profitable to them under the shorter as under the longer time. In addition to this fact, and as partly explaining it, may be recorded the words of great wisdom spoken by the managers:—

“ Skill in management and thoroughness in discipline are more important than the eleventh hour in the product of a mill ; and thorough discipline is much more attainable under ten than under eleven hours. For men and women are flesh and blood, and they cannot be held up to such steady work during eleven hours as during ten ; and overseers are flesh and blood, and cannot hold them up.”

As incidentally illustrating the improvement that may be made by “ good management ” joined with a reduction of hours, we relate the experience of a manager of a cotton mill, as he gave it to us. He said, “ I took charge of this mill about fifteen years ago, having already purchased an interest in it. The mill had been running thirteen hours per day. Soon after I took charge, I persuaded the rest of the directors to allow me to reduce the hours to eleven. Before this the weekly product of the mill had been ninety thousand yards of print cloths. After it, with the same machinery, the weekly product rose to a hundred and twenty thousand yards.”

Now granting, as should doubtless be done, that a part of that increase was due to improved management, yet it is clear that this improvement could not have been made nearly so effective without the improved physical conditions which so great a reduction of the hours of labor afforded ; for it is impossible to secure as thorough order, steadiness, and efficiency of work, under thirteen as under eleven hours. Flesh and blood cannot endure the strain. And the same principal applies to a reduction to ten.

By far the larger portion of the manufacturers, however, considered that a reduction of hours to ten would result in a diminution of product ; but it was quite generally conceded that even if, at first, there was a reduction of wages, yet by a year’s time (only one person said more) the market would have re-adjusted itself, and the wages for ten hours would have become the same as they were before for eleven. A half owner of six mills stated the case thus : “ If all the mills would run but ten hours, there would be a diminution in the product of perhaps five per cent. That slight diminution would after a while so empty the market that prices would rise much more than five per cent, and so we could pay the

same prices for ten as now for eleven hours' work, and then make more money than we are now making." And the principle involved in this statement was very generally conceded by manufacturers; each one particularly saying, "If it [ten hours] was only a universal thing." That is, a large portion of the manufacturers have come to see, what is undoubtedly true, that the width of the margin between cost and price, and so the possible amount of wages which can be paid, are not so much determined by the volume of the product alone, as by the relation between the amount produced and the amount consumed. And they are convinced that as the capacities of the textile mills are to-day, and the markets of the world, a reduction of hours to ten would be a conservative movement, quite as beneficial to the manufacturer as to the operative, "*if only everybody would join in it.*"

As an illustration of the favorable circumstances under which such a change might be effected, we present some considerations drawn from the cotton rise of last spring. It appears that, at the prices then paid for cotton and labor, the cost of making a yard of print cloth goods was three and three-quarters cents; and it was freely acknowledged that, if all who were running more hours had come down to ten, and had diminished their production *pro rata*, that cost would not have risen to more than four cents. Now, for a time print cloths were above five cents, and once touched five and fifteen-sixteenths. Then all cotton factories running more hours could have reduced time to ten hours, and then would have had an abundant margin, more than a cent, for profit and contingencies. "And what an effect would such a reduction have had upon the market?" was asked; and the answer always came in substance, "It would have steadied the market, and resisted that descent which carried the price of print cloths down to the very edge of the margin." In such a case, then, a reduction of hours to ten would have been a conservative movement, from the merest commercial standpoint, quite as beneficial to the manufacturer's pocket-book as it would have been agreeable to the operative's feelings. Moreover, after the change had once been made, the new conditions could be maintained as easily as the old; for, as all would now be working on a ten-hour basis, the market would re-adjust itself

to that basis, though the change in prices (not more than a quarter of a cent, rather less if any thing) would be so slight as to be hardly noticeable, if at all, by the consumer.

In both the views which have now been presented, there is doubtless truth; and the two are not in conflict, but are complementary, and together cover the whole ground. In some mills there would be an improvement in the condition of the operatives and the steadiness of their work; so that in the long run — that is, take a year through — their product in the shorter would approximate closely to that of the longer day. In other mills there would be a diminution of product; but, as this in the aggregate affected the market, prices would rise, and so their profits would be kept good. Within a year's time the market would adjust itself entirely to the shorter day, the operatives would have as good a living with ten as now with eleven, eleven and a half, and twelve hours, and the slight ripple which such change might cause would hardly be recognized on the surface of the ocean of commerce; while the whole body of the factory operatives would have the great and permanent gain and relief of an hour of leisure for rest and recreation.

The question of ten hours is not merely, nor even mainly, an economic question. It is chiefly a human question. Not yet is the mill more than the man; and, if it ever comes to be, then society will begin to die. Therefore, for all humane people, the highest thought concerning even a cotton factory must be the welfare of the operatives.

But the welfare of the operatives cannot be secured without their own active co-operation. To seek for ten hours instead of eleven, eleven and a half, and twelve hours, is to seek for better conditions for the operatives. But better conditions will not make the persons better, without the persons appreciate the better conditions, and aspire to improve themselves by a fit use of them. The aspirations of men are the power by which society grows up to higher conditions, and a nobler state of existence; and this power which blossoms in efforts after a nobler state springs out of the greatest desire of their hearts. To know the greatest desire of men's hearts is to know what there is of good or ill, of hope or fear, for them in the future. What is the greatest

desire of the factory operatives? We reply, Beyond all question, one of the greatest desires of the factory operatives of America, relative to employment, is for ten hours. The investigations of the Bureau give us abundant evidence of this. We present the following points:—

1. The higher the intelligence and the better the position of the operatives, the more earnestly do they desire ten hours. We have examined hundreds, a large part of them overseers, and altogether the greater part of them are in favor of ten hours anyway, let the pay come as it will. And this leads to the next point.

2. Nearly all of the operatives who can bear a cut-down, and live, that is, those above five or six dollars a week, would prefer to take a *pro rata* loss of wage, if necessary, to get ten hours. Ten hours anyway, and run the risk of less pay, — this is the general position. The piece hands would spur themselves to more close attention to their work. Every one in the mill would expect and help maintain a more thorough discipline. To gain an hour a day, an hour and a half, and in the case of many hundreds two hours a day, year in and year out, what exertions would they not put forth? and whatever of the product of the time over ten hours they could not make up if the market went against them, so that the mill could not pay the full amount of the old wage, that small reduction they would rather submit to, than to work more than ten hours, for, as one of them most aptly said, “If we didn’t have it in our pockets, we’d have it in our bones.”

Any strong desire of large masses of people at some time finds extreme utterance through single individuals, so that the voice of all the multitude would be but the amen to their words. So it has been in this case.

Down towards the south-east corner of Connecticut, in a little factory village, our agent had occasion to call one evening upon a young woman, a weaver, at her father’s house, to present the questions provided to be asked the operatives; and in the course of the conversation she uttered these words, which it was plain sprang instinctively from her heart: “It [ten hours] would be the greatest boon that could be given to the factory operatives.” Two or three weeks after, at a

place diagonally across the State, well up towards the north-west corner, he found a cotton mill that had adopted ten hours. In pursuing his investigation he called upon the overseer of one of the weave rooms in his room, having been directed there by the manager. This overseer, after describing certain important improvements in the condition of the operatives which he had observed, uttered as instinctively almost the same words as the other, only changed according to the changed circumstances to which he referred, and said, "It [ten hours] is the greatest boon that could have been given to the operatives." Ten hours sought, ten hours obtained, these were deemed "the greatest boon." In these sayings, which sprang spontaneously to the lips of those who uttered them, the heart of the factory operatives of America voiced itself. Shall that voice be heard, and the prayer which it utters answered?

Another incident which occurred during our investigation bears strongly in the same direction. Our agent was in a factory village where were a print cloth mill, and print works owned by the same company; and of these two, while the print cloth mill ran eleven hours a day, the print works ran but ten. In fulfilling his duties he called upon an overseer of the print cloth mill at his house; and in the course of the evening's conversation, speaking for the operatives among whom he worked, this overseer said, "We have often asked ourselves why it is that we have to work eleven hours a day, while the operatives in the other mill, owned by the same company (and they are by hundreds the greater number), work but ten hours a day." Let us give this question a larger scope and fuller expression.

In our cotton mills especially the woman and children largely exceed the men, being often from two-thirds to five-sixths of the whole; and the proportion of them is steadily increasing. And what are these women and children, but the very weakest and most dependent of all the people? They have no disposition to agitate. They have no power to change any existing condition of society if they would, and their mind does not work in that range if they could. All that is possible to them is to toil and scrimp and bear. Now, for men, the strong, those who bear rule, the sovereigns of the

land, the hours of labor are but ten all over the country, in about every employment where they preponderate. But where the women and children preponderate, the hours of labor, as a rule, are eleven or more. And the question is, why is it, in this land which aims for equality and justice, that the weakest, the most helpless and dependent, are loaded with the burden of the more hours, while the strong, the able to bear, and the controlling, only have the less hours to work? And this question which an operative whispered in our ear in a private room we have taken the liberty to utter aloud.

In all our investigations we have found but three serious objections urged against the adoption of ten hours, and these we will now state.

The first is, in brief, the small mills. Their one voice has been, "Ten hours would destroy us." We have heard them too fully and earnestly explain their situation to us, not to sympathize with them warmly, and endeavor to measure that situation accurately. And upon this we would remark, —

The volume of the product of all these small mills is not sufficient greatly to affect the market. It is the large mills which make the market, and in this thing have no need to consider the small ones. Now the small mills run sixty-nine hours per week right alongside of sixty-six hour large mills, and then run at a disadvantage. Their machinery is old, and can be run only one hundred and thirty-eight picks a minute, against one hundred and seventy in the larger mills; and the expense of overseeing per yard is also greater in the smaller ones. So considerable is the disadvantage at which these mills run now, that their running more hours does not bring them up to a level with the larger ones. They may therefore, be left out of the account in the beginning of a ten-hour movement. When ten hours is established, they will inevitably come towards it as near as they are now towards eleven; and in any case they are, as some of them have said, but as drops in the bucket, so that what is needful in their case may easily be left to time and experience to determine.

The second objection may be stated in three words, Whiskey, Tobacco, Loafing. These three words, or rather what

they mean, were almost daily urged against ten hours. Take a single illustration. In a certain place a manufacturer, replying to the question, "What use would the operatives make of more leisure time?" said, "They would sit along there on the stone wall and smoke, or gather in the saloons and drink." Frequently in reply to the question, "What proportion of the operatives would make a good use of more leisure time?" the answer would come, "Not more than a quarter," and even "Not more than a tenth." And yet these same persons, upon being questioned in detail, would admit that all the women and children, and a part of the men, that is three-quarters and more of the whole, would make a fair use. How came their first answers, then, to be so widely incorrect? The explanation of this will show how great is this obstacle to ten hours in their minds.

The struggle of the manufacturers in the management of their mills is not with the well-behaved, but with the ill-behaved; and all of the ill-behaved have two, and most of them all three, of the evil traits we have mentioned. The thought of the manager is chiefly where his greatest strain and effort are; and these are to keep within bounds of use the ill-behaved. Hence his first thought concerning less hours is that it would only be an opportunity for his most troublesome employés to be more troublesome, and he is filled with the fear of this result. Hence his impulse is in self-protection to resist ten hours as he would an inundation of the sea. Until this feeling is abated, ten hours cannot be obtained.

Let no operative seek to belittle this difficulty. It is altogether the most deeply and generally felt objection to ten hours, of any thing we have found. It is not too much to say, that the sober, the industrious, and frugal operatives, and all who seek for better things for them, have to carry the loafers, the tipplers, and the saloon-keepers on their backs; that these are before all other things the greatest obstacle to ten hours; and that but for this hateful load piled high upon them, and which as things now are they cannot help but carry, the well-behaved operatives might have ten hours in a month.

But allowing all that the facts in the case will warrant, there is an answer so manifestly conclusive, that it has never been questioned when presented. It may be stated in the form of a question as follows: To which portion of the people should the general conditions of society be shaped, to the well-behaved or the ill-behaved? And there is not a manufacturer to whom this question has been put, but has answered without hesitation, "To the well-behaved, of course." And it was further acknowledged, that, if those conditions which are conducive to the welfare of the well-behaved work harm to the ill-behaved by reason of their misuse of them, nevertheless those conditions should be established, and the ill-behaved must suffer the consequences of their own misdoings, and it was also acknowledged that the well-behaved ought not to be punished by having conditions put upon them which hurt their welfare, for the sake of putting a restraint upon the ill-behaved.

Moreover, it was generally conceded by the manufacturers, and always claimed by the operatives, that ten hours would be better than eleven for the welfare of the well-behaved. The argument is conclusive, then; and the drinker, the smoker, and the loafer are no reason why the women and children who do neither should be made to bear the load of the eleventh hour.

But there is another view equally conclusive. That was the soundest judgment and the completest wisdom which those seven men uttered, standing around together in that old mill, when one said, "If a man wants to drink, he will, no matter how long he works: no length of day will hinder him," and they all approved; and when another said, "The longer the day that a man works, the more he is inclined to drink," and they all approved again. In these two sayings those factory operatives covered the whole ground, and exhausted the subject. And a plenty of facts have been brought to our notice illustrating and establishing this view.

The third objection to ten hours is the presence of the Canadian French. Wherever they appear, there their presence is urged as a reason why the hours of labor should not be reduced to ten. The reasons for this urgency are not far to find.

With some exceptions the Canadian French are the Chinese of the Eastern States. They care nothing for our institutions, civil, political, or educational. They do not come to make a home among us, to dwell with us as citizens, and so become a part of us; but their purpose is merely to sojourn a few years as aliens, touching us only at a single point, that of work, and, when they have gathered out of us what will satisfy their ends, to get them away to whence they came, and bestow it there. They are a horde of industrial invaders, not a stream of stable settlers. Voting, with all that it implies, they care nothing about. Rarely does one of them become naturalized. They will not send their children to school if they can help it, but endeavor to crowd them into the mills at the earliest possible age. To do this they deceive about the age of their children with brazen effrontery. They deceive also about their schooling, declaring that they have been to school the legal time, when they know they have not, and do not intend that they shall. And when at length they are cornered by the school officers, and there is no other escape, often they scabble together what few things they have, and move away to some other place where they are unknown, and where they hope by a repetition of the same deceits to escape the schools entirely, and keep the children at work right on in the mills. And when, as is indeed sometimes the case, any of them are so situated that they cannot escape at all, then the stolid indifference of the children wears out the teacher with what seems to be an idle task.

These people have one good trait. They are indefatigable workers, and docile. All they ask is to be set to work, and they care little who rules them or how they are ruled. To earn all they can by no matter how many hours of toil, to live in the most beggarly way so that out of their earnings they may spend as little for living as possible, and to carry out of the country what they can thus save: this is the aim of the Canadian French in our factory districts. Incidentally they must have some amusements; and, so far as the males are concerned, drinking and smoking and lounging constitute the sum of these.

Now, it is not strange that so sordid and low a people should awaken corresponding feelings in the managers, and

that these should feel that, the longer the hours for such people, the better, and that to work them to the uttermost is about the only good use they can be put to. Nor is it strange that this impression is so strong, that the managers overlook for the time being all the rest of the operatives, and think that every thing should be shaped to these lowest ones. Yet the same principle which we have stated as showing the right way of conduct in the former case should direct here also. Society should be shaped to the better portion of the people; and where the case requires it the laws should be so amended and enforced that these people will either be coerced to conform to our established ways, or else go where the already established ways of the country do please them.*

It thus appears, from a full survey of the whole field, that the objections urged against the universal adoption of a ten-hour day are not really serious obstacles. A little resolute energy, and some improvements in methods, and they will all vanish. It appears also that there is no economic hindrance to block the way of a ten-hour day. If all would act together, and make the change, then all will be in equally as good a condition for success as now. There is, therefore, but one real obstacle to a universal ten-hour day, and that is the inertia of men. The impulse to move, and the leadership to direct in large affairs, these are all that are needed to effect the change.

When a principle of conduct is acknowledged, and the time has come to work that principle out in the practical forms of life, then is the day for leaders of men. Leaders are they who by reason of the power they contain, and the place they occupy, are able to sway their fellow men in a desired direction. We have reached the time for leaders in the matter of ten hours. There are a few manufacturers of such native

* What is said above in relation to the Canadian French was written before the great progress now going on among them had fairly commenced. The use of the term "the Canadian French are the Chinese of the Eastern States" was entirely in an economical sense, and referred particularly to the old custom of the Canadian French of returning to Canada after a brief period of employment in the States. The successful efforts being made for the advancement of the Canadian French, not only in naturalization but in education and business matters, are well brought out in the article entitled "The Canadian French in New England," in the Thirteenth Annual Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, published in 1882.

power, and so placed, that, if they would agree together, the good result for which so many now wait would come into reality forthwith. The list of their names lies before us as we write. In number they are hardly more than a score; and it does not at this time, in our judgment, lie in the power of any twenty men in the land to effect another so great a good. To lift one hour a day, one hour and a half and two hours a day, for three hundred days in the year, from off the burden of toil which tens of thousands of men, women, and children are bearing, is to effect a work so large and grand and full of good cheer to men, that any man's heart may well bound at the thought of being permitted to bear any part, much more to lead, in achieving so noble a result. And the hearts of those thousands of the toilworn and weary are anxiously waiting and listening to hear if these few powerful ones, who hold their destiny in their hands, will grant them their "greatest boon."

The initiatory steps for such a voluntary movement should be taken by some manufacturer who has tried and who believes in ten hours. To any one who may desire to engage in a forward movement we shall be glad to furnish the names of the establishments which in our opinion can, if they will move in harmony, control the whole question, and secure without legislation the adoption of the ten-hour system in the textile manufactories of New York and New England.

We do not feel like closing this part of the report, without giving, for the encouragement of these employers who are trying to build up the moral tone of their operatives and the communities around them, a few facts which have come to us through this and other investigations.

Ten hours will be a great boon to the operatives, but there are many other boons which can come to them. Statistics will prove, that, wherever the best intelligence and the best morality prevail, there will be found, too, the best material prosperity. Right doing is only another name for, in fact, the best definition of righteousness; and the endeavors of some of the large-hearted manufacturers we know, to build up righteousness, are really converting their counting-rooms into pulpits.

In the city of Boston, firms of which R. H. White & Co.,

Macullar, Parker & Co., Jordan, Marsh & Co., are true representatives, are trying to show to their people that they are in some way parts of the establishment, and are convincing them in material ways that the firms believe in giving their people a share in their own prosperity. This is well illustrated by the last-named firm, in dedicating to the use of their saleswomen and sewing-girls a large hall, capable of seating seven hundred people, situated upon the corner of Washington and Avon Streets, and commanding a fine view of the city and harbor. This room, for mercantile purposes, would be worth at least twenty-five thousand dollars per annum; but Jordan, Marsh & Co. have shown their interest in their people by setting it apart for their use. The hall is open two hours at noon every day, and there one can find a bright and cheerful sight in watching the glad faces of the girls while they enjoy the music, the dance, the reading, or the social intercourse with their acquaintances. It was our good fortune recently to see one of the firm take the lead in organizing and conducting the amusements for the hour.

At Willimantic, Conn., will be found one of the grandest movements of the day. At the works of the Linen Company efforts are being made, and with success, to bring the operatives to understand that their interests are the interests of the concern. Libraries, reading-rooms, Sunday schools, drawing-schools, etc., are made free to all, while a new factory building has been arranged with all the regard for coloring, decoration, plant adornment, etc., that a refined taste can suggest. A new mill has been constructed, having over three hundred thousand square feet of floor surface, and all in one room, the building being but one story. All the shafting is in the basement, the journals being set in granite and the stone in the hard-pan of the earth. This avoids vibration, and gives to the women employed sure freedom from the trying physical ailments to their sex which result from standing upon vibrating floors. The company has just erected twenty small cottages, which will be let at an average of seven dollars per month to the operatives. These cottages have each about six thousand feet of land attached.

The experiments at Willimantic are telling upon the character of the place and upon all concerned, while the

stockholders can find no fault with dividends. Our own State presents Lawrence, Lowell, New Bedford, Taunton, and other places, as the scenes of kindred efforts. One of the longest, and at the same time most satisfactory experiences in this direction, has been that of the Cheney Brothers at their silk factory in South Manchester, Conn. The mills of this firm run ten hours, and have for many years; the firm changed from longer hours of their own accord, and are satisfied that ten-hour days are sufficient. The village of South Manchester is a beautiful place, quiet and orderly, its inhabitants sober, industrious, and intelligent. The interests of the operatives are looked after. The village is set in a park, and in the midst, a little distance apart, stand the two buildings which constitute the factories.

In the course of our investigations in Connecticut, we were naturally drawn to South Manchester. Although we were aware that ten hours constituted the work-day there, we were anxious to learn and understand the secret of the success of the work from an ethical as well as from an economical point of view. One of the Brothers Cheney showed us through the works and grounds, and gave us full information relative to the growth of the village and the causes which have produced it.

One of the most important forces which have produced the order of society existing at South Manchester is the strength of the family tie among the owners of the estate. One man who possessed a farm of some two hundred and forty acres had eight sons; six of them joined with their father in the manufacture of silk in the quiet little mill on the stream which ran through the farm; the other two sons were indirectly associated with their father. The great influence of this family association has been too palpable to be overlooked. The original farm is still one estate; for, although each heir has a separate dwelling of his own, no fences mark the lines, but the whole is continued in its unity, and each one enjoys the whole as a park which is composed of what is his own and what belongs to his kin. This really constitutes an ideal village.

The second element or force in creating the order which exists at South Manchester grows out of the first, and is to

be found in the fact that the members of the firm live among those whom they employ. One of the great and grievous evils which one cannot help but observe, as he examines our industrial system, is absenteeism. Even from the first look it is plain that to reap profits from the labor of a company of people, and then spend them away in other places, is a positive evil. A king is bound to reside in the midst of his subjects and devote his wisdom and his strength to their welfare; and it is just as true of industrial kings. At South Manchester, if one of the firm wishes to build a mansion, it is built where the wealth is produced which enables him to gratify his taste; and all those who had a share in producing the wealth have as much good from the lawns and adornments, according to their power to appreciate, as those who dwell in the fine house. The grounds are laid where all who work in the mills can see the fruits of their labors.

As the third force, the whole machinery of the community is consciously and deliberately worked by the managers to promote the welfare of those in their employ. Each one must do his share in keeping up his grounds and preserving the sobriety and integrity of the village. The managers carry on for the public good a hall, which is church, theatre, and platform, all in one. They consider it a part of their works, and that it is just as essential to their business success as the well-arranged departments of the manufacturing buildings.

Now, in all this there is nothing of charity. The whole establishment in all its parts is worked on business principles for business success, and the manifest well-being of all the "help" is considered essential to that success; and, as a result, there is scarcely a need for charity. Everybody works, and everybody is worked. The result is, as it will be everywhere where such principles prevail, that a high moral and intellectual tone prevails in all the departments, and this tone produces better workpeople and better work, and surer returns of profit to all, than when an opposite policy prevails. This factory village contains within itself so much of the forces and conditions of future progress, that it may be expected to keep pace with the advances of society

which are yet to take place ; and the most cheering hope we can have for our factory villages is that each one may speedily become a likeness of the one at South Manchester.

This order of society in industrial centres will come when we get over talking about the interests of capital and labor being identical, and comprehend them as reciprocal interests demanding from each a practical recognition of the force of the other, each vitalizing the latent power of the other.

4
REPRINT EDITION.

INFLUENCE OF INTEMPERANCE UPON CRIME.

[FROM THE TWELFTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS
OF LABOR, FOR 1881.]

BY

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

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With compliments of
Horace G. Madlin,

Chief of Bureau of Statistics of Labor.

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INFLUENCE OF INTEMPERANCE UPON CRIME.

INFLUENCE OF INTEMPERANCE UPON CRIME.

THE following exhibits of the influence of intemperance in the commission of crime, in the county of Suffolk, are in fulfilment of a promise made in our last year's report. It was then shown that 60 per cent of all sentences for crime in the Commonwealth, during the last twenty years, were for distinctively rum offences, such as the various classes of drunkenness and liquor offences.

For the purposes of comparison, and that the classification may be at hand, from which it was shown last year that 60 per cent of all crime in this State during twenty years belonged to rum absolutely, we have prepared the following table from the various exhibits presented in the Eleventh Report. In this table the offences marked with an asterisk are those which constitute the 60 per cent of all offences, the figures being: Total sentences in twenty years, 578,458; sentences for rum crimes, 340,814.

CLASSIFICATION OF OFFENCES.

[The sentences for murder and manslaughter, passed in the Supreme Judicial Court, are included.]

CLASSIFICATION.	Total Sentences. Twenty Years. 1860-1879.	CLASSIFICATION.	Total Sentences. Twenty Years. 1860-1879.
CLASS A.—Against the person feloniously.		CLASS B.—Against the person not feloniously.	
Abuse of female child	12	Assault with weapon	1,466
Assault, felonious	741	Assault on officer	3,240
Kidnapping	7	Assault, riotous, or riot . . .	189
Manslaughter	194	Assault, or assault and bat- tery	76,545
Murder	89		
Rape	89		
Robbery	524		
		Totals	81,440
Totals	1,656		

CLASSIFICATION OF OFFENCES — *Concluded.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Total Sentences. Twenty Years. 1860-1879.	CLASSIFICATION.	Total Sentences. Twenty Years. 1860-1879.
CLASS C. — Against property.		CLASS G. — Concluded.	
Burglary	556	Common drunkard *	21,859
Burglars' tools, having	6	Common nightwalker	3,497
Breaking and entering	3,748	Cruelty	1,924
Breaking glass	3,029	Disorderly house	681
Burning buildings	190	Disturbing meeting	624
Burning woods	12	Disturbing school	330
Larceny	40,574	Drunkenness *	271,482
Malicious mischief	4,319	Family, neglect of	168
Malicious trespass	2,168	Fornication	2,175
Receiving stolen goods	725	House of ill-fame	1,825
Totals	55,327	Indecent exposure	286
CLASS D. — Against the currency, and criminal frauds.		Indecent language	176
Cheating	217	Lewdness	859
Counterfeiting	121	Polygamy	113
Embezzlement	764	Profracty	215
False pretences	898	Sunday law, violating	11,837
Forgery	289	Vagabonds, and idle persons	13,528
Fraud	172	Totals	332,495
Totals	2,461	CLASS H. — Against the public policy.	
CLASS E. — Against public justice.		Gaming	2,947
Contempt	437	Liquor selling *	12,240
Escape	162	Liquor keeping *	26,423
Perjury	61	Liquor carrying *	636
Rescue	194	Liquor nuisance *	8,174
Totals	854	Peddling	1,070
CLASS F. — Against the public peace.		Totals	51,490
Disturbing the peace	17,458	CLASS J. — Not classified, and other offences.	
Totals	17,458	Abduction	1
CLASS G. — Against chastity, morality, and decency.		Cock-fight, present at	99
Abortion	26	Highway, defective	7
Adultery	890	Incest	11
Totals	916	Stubborn children	409
		Truancy	389
		Violating town or city by-laws	4,098
		Other offences	30,263
		Totals	35,277

RECAPITULATION.

CLASS A. — Against the person, feloniously	1,656	CLASS F. — Against the public peace	17,458
CLASS B. — Against the person, not feloniously	81,440	CLASS G. — Against chastity, morality, and decency	332,495
CLASS C. — Against property	55,327	CLASS H. — Against the public policy	51,490
CLASS D. — Against the currency, and criminal frauds	2,461	CLASS J. — Not classified, and other offences	35,277
CLASS E. — Against public justice	854	Totals	578,458

There were no sources of information from which we could ascertain the weight of the influence of intemperance in the commission of all crimes other than those indicated by an asterisk in the foregoing table, and our means would not allow us to canvass all the courts in the Commonwealth: we therefore instituted an investigation for the year current.

from Sept. 1, 1879, to Sept. 1, 1880, with a view to discover what that influence is, in the county of Suffolk, during the above year.

This investigation dealt exclusively with all sentences for offences other than the distinctive rum offences, made during the year above mentioned.

By this investigation, limited to one year, and one county of the Commonwealth, we did not expect to attain any certain knowledge as to the part intemperance played in the commission of the 40 per cent balance of crime for the twenty years which were the subject of our last year's report on the statistics of crime. The result attained, however, by this investigation, will supply an important basis for computation and conjecture as to its influence in the commission of this 40 per cent balance of crime, for the whole State.

For years there have been, among the temperance reformers of this country and Europe, much argument and eloquence based upon the more or less casual and scattered observations of private individuals as to the nature and extent of the influence which intemperance exerts in the commission of crime. The logic which the temperance advocate stands most in need of is the solid strength of facts collected and collated in a thorough and systematic manner within limits circumscribed as to time and territory.

This investigation was inaugurated and conducted in the interest of all who are a prey to the sin of intemperance, but more especially in the interest of the youth of our State, with the ardent hope of revealing to them, stripped of prejudice and sentiment, the naked proportions of an evil, prolific in poverty and prodigality, waste and want, the expense of which, while a burden to all classes, falls in a greater degree on the workers and chief consumers of society. Temperance and frugality will relieve them of the greater part of this burden.

The total number of sentences for the year of our investigation — the distinctive rum offences included — was 16,897. 12,289 were directly due to rum causes; 12,221 being for sentences for the various grades of drunkenness, and 68 for liquor keeping and liquor selling without license, etc.

Thus, for the year, the sentences for rum causes alone constitute 72+ per cent of the whole, leaving a small balance

of 27+ per cent. Now, to discover what was the influence of intemperance in the commission of this balance, formed the object of this investigation.

We sought to compass the object of our investigation by ascertaining the connection between rum and the criminal in five directions: 1. Whether the criminal was under the influence of liquor at the time the crime was committed; 2. Whether the criminal was in liquor at the time he formed the intent to commit the crime; 3. Whether the intemperate habits of the criminal were such as to lead to a condition which induced the crime; 4. Whether the intemperate habits of others led the criminal to a condition which induced the crime; 5. What were the drinking habits of the criminal, whether total abstainer, moderate drinker, or excessive drinker? And, for the purpose of enabling us to make this investigation as thorough and accurate as possible, we endeavored, through our agents, to acquaint ourselves with each criminal, his history, his friends, his neighborhood, his real name, and the exact name and nature of his offence; his residence, his occupation, his age and birthplace.

In each of the nine courts of criminal jurisdiction in the county of Suffolk, we had an agent, paid to investigate each case that appeared in the same.

It was the duty of these agents to interview each criminal separately, to hear his statements relative to the points of our inquiry; to follow the evidence offered in each case in open court; and to acquaint themselves, as far as practicable, with the circumstances connected with the past life of each criminal. The results of their several researches were transmitted, at the end of each month, to this office, where the returns were carefully canvassed. All those which were satisfactory were filed away for future use; those which were not complete were returned, with instruction that they be re-investigated and corrected. All the cases of appeal, and those held to await the action of the Grand Jury, were put under the immediate care of one of our staff, who watched the disposition made in each case, either in the Superior Criminal Court or by the Grand Jury. In every case where the sentence in the lower court became vacated by reason of the death, acquittal, etc., of the prisoner, or where the action of the Grand Jury was to discharge the accused, it

was so noted on the case, and the same filed away by themselves, not to be used in this investigation.

Mr. A. H. Grimké, a member of the Suffolk bar, who had immediate charge of the court work, and his assistants, received the most hearty encouragement and co-operation in their work from judges and clerks alike.

The facts thus gathered are presented in the following tabular statements. The number 4,608 represents the 27 + per cent balance of crime during the year of our investigation.

Table I. presents the gist of the investigation. It contains a schedule of all offences within the scope of this investigation, with the total number of sentences under each offence, and an analysis of the connection between rum and the criminal, with reference to the five directions pointed out as the lines this investigation has pursued.

It appears that 2,097 of the 4,608 — which constitutes the 27 + per cent balance of crime — were in liquor at the time of the commission of the various offences of which they were found guilty. This number is equal to 45 + per cent of the 27 + per cent balance, or to 12 + per cent of the sum of all offences for the year, the distinctively rum offences included; that 1,918 were in liquor at the time of the formation of the criminal intent; that the intemperate habits of 1,804 were such as to induce a moral condition favorable to crime; that 821 were led to a criminal condition through the contagion of intemperance; that, of the 4,608 convictions, the total abstainers numbered 1,158, the moderate drinkers 1,918, and the excessive drinkers 1,317.

The complicity of rum in the commission of the offences contained in this table becomes more marked and flagrant by a particular examination as to the condition of the criminals at the time of the commissions in the assault and battery and the larceny cases. The sentences for assault and battery were 1,498, and those for larceny 1,115. The sum of these two offences alone is equal to 56 + per cent of the total number of all offences which were the subject of this investigation.

Now, at the time of the commission of these two offences, 1,275 of the criminals were in liquor, — a number equivalent to 48 + per cent of the total sentences for these two offences, or to 27 + per cent of the aggregate of sentences under all offences contained in this table.

In the higher offences contained in this table, consisting of robbery, rape, felonious assault, and manslaughter, together comprising 28 convictions, 17 of the criminals were in liquor at the time the offences were committed; and in the higher offences against property, consisting of breaking and entering and burglary, (123 sentences,) 33 of the criminals were in liquor at the time the offences were committed: the number in liquor at the time of the commission of the higher crimes against the person being equal to 60+ per cent, and the number of those in liquor at the time of the commission of the higher offences against property 26+ per cent, of their respective totals.

Again, the number in liquor at the time of the commissions of the lesser offences against the person contained in the schedule, viz., assault and battery, assault on officer, and assault with weapon, was 859, in a total of 1,534, — a number equal to very nearly 56 per cent of the whole; while, on the other hand, the number in liquor at the time of the commissions of the several offences of embezzlement, larceny, and malicious mischief, the minor offences against property, the number was 525, out of a sum of 1,294. This number is equal to 40+ per cent of the aggregate of sentences for these three offences. There is something striking and significant in these sums and ratios.

Again, in robbery, rape, felonious assault, and manslaughter, there were 1 total abstainer, 17 moderate drinkers, and 10 excessive drinkers. In assault and battery, assault on officer, and assault with weapon, there were 239 total abstainers, 715 moderate drinkers, and 489 excessive drinkers; the number of total abstainers being equal to 15+ per cent, and the number of excessive drinkers to 31+ per cent, of the whole number of sentences for these seven offences against the person.

In breaking and entering, and burglary, there were 45 total abstainers, 45 moderate and 28 excessive drinkers; and in embezzlement, larceny, and malicious mischief, there were 384 total abstainers, 499 moderate and 347 excessive drinkers; the number of total abstainers being equal to 30+ per cent, and the number of excessive drinkers alone to 26+ per cent, of the sum of sentences for these five offences against property.

And finally, in the grand total of sentences for all offences within the scope of this investigation, the whole

number of total abstainers constitutes 25+ per cent, while that of the excessive drinkers alone is equal to 28+ per cent.

Table II. exhibits the connection between rum and the criminal; and the facts are classified with reference to his condition at the time the offence was committed, whether sober or in liquor, and also whether native or foreign born. Of the 4,608 sentenced, 2,638 were native, and 1,813 foreign born. While there were 1,064 native criminals in liquor at the time of the commissions of their respective offences, there were 969 of foreign born criminals in liquor also at the time of the commissions of their respective offences; i.e., 40+ per cent of the native criminals and 53+ per cent of the foreign born criminals were under the influence of liquor at the time they became such.

It is a singular and suggestive fact, that all the criminals in the manslaughter cases were foreign born, and also in liquor at the time their high crime was perpetrated.

Table III. presents the connection between rum and crime, the facts being classified with reference to the nativity and drinking habits of the criminal, whether native or foreign born, and whether total abstainer, moderate drinker, or excessive drinker.

Of the native criminals 862 were total abstainers, and 621 excessive drinkers. Of the foreign born criminals, on the other hand, 256 were total abstainers, and 669 excessive drinkers. The number of the native total abstainers is equal to 32+ per cent of the whole number of criminals born in this country, and the number of the native excessive drinkers to 23+ per cent of the same; while the number of the total abstainers of those criminals born out of the country is equal to 14+ per cent of all the foreign born, and the number of the excessive drinkers of foreign birth to 36+ per cent of the same. So that the native total abstainers sentenced for crime are 18 per cent *pro rata* in excess of the total abstainers of foreign birth sentenced for crime; while the excessive drinkers of foreign birth sentenced for crime exceed *pro rata* the excessive drinkers born in this country and sentenced for crime, by 13 per cent.

Table IV. contains a schedule of offences classified with reference to the specific occupations of the criminals under

each offence, and Table V. a schedule of occupations classified with reference to the drinking habits of the criminals under each, whether total abstainers, moderate drinkers, or excessive drinkers.

These two tables are chiefly interesting as tending to illustrate the extent and character of this investigation, and its prime importance to the laboring classes.

They may be of some value also to the sociologist in his speculations upon the comparative influence which certain occupations and habits exert in the commission of particular offences. We must content ourselves, however, at this time, with a presentation of facts simply as we discover them.

Table VI. exhibits a schedule of offences classified with reference to the age and nativity of the criminals.

Massachusetts furnished 2,115 to swell the grand total of crime; other parts of the country, 526; the British Empire, 1,628, — the contribution of Ireland alone to this sum being 1,182. Three of the four criminals in the manslaughter cases were born in Ireland, and one in England.

The birthplaces of 161 could not be ascertained, and the birthplaces of the balance, 53, were located in other foreign countries, not specified.

Thus it is seen that Massachusetts is wholly responsible for a sum that is equal to but 45+ per cent of the aggregate offences which we have investigated.

Table VII. contains a classification of offenders according to ages; the ages ranging from 6 to 79 years.

The crime area proper, however, appears to lie between and include the ages of 18 and 45; for, of the total 4,608 sentences, 3,497 were committed within this criminal belt. This number is equal to 75+ per cent of the whole.

It is interesting to note that this area becomes disproportionately enlarged at the age of 19; the maximum number of offences having been committed at that point located in the life of the criminal on the verge of legal infancy and responsible manhood and womanhood.

Table VIII. contains a schedule of all offences, and the dispositions made of all sentences under each, classified according to the nativity and sex of the criminals.

Of the 2,638 native criminals, 344 were females; and, of the 1,813 foreign born criminals, 491 were females. The number

of the native female criminals is equal to 13+ per cent of the total number of native criminals; while the number of foreign born female criminals is equal to 27+ per cent of the total of foreign born criminals, — more than double *pro rata* the native female criminals. This is a highly significant fact.

Table IX. exhibits the sentences classified according to the duration of the imprisonments, and the amount of the fine imposed.

The imprisonments ranged from five days to 16 years, and the fines from one cent to one hundred dollars; 1,909 were sentenced to pay fines; of this number 856 failed to do so, and were incarcerated for terms corresponding to the amount of their respective fines, and were consequently fed and kept at the public expense. Among the 1,909 who were fined, the costs of court were added in the case of 956, — 832 men and 124 women. Of the balance, 448 were placed on probation, and sundry other dispositions made in the cases of the remaining 183.

The above figures indicate the enormity of rum's share in the 27+ per cent balance of criminal cases in Suffolk County for the year of our investigation. They show that to the 72+ per cent for distinctively rum crimes must be added 12+ per cent, representing the criminals who were in liquor at the time of committing other crimes, — making a total of 84+ per cent of all criminal cases due directly or indirectly to the influence of liquor.

These figures paint a picture, at once the most faithful and hideous, of the guilt and power of rum. Men and women, the young, the middle-aged, and the old, father and son, husband and wife, native and foreign born, the nightwalker and manslayer, the thief and adulterer, — all testify to its ramified and revolting tyranny. Therefore the result of this investigation, in view of the disproportionate magnitude of the exclusively rum offences, and considered in connection with the notorious tendency of liquor to inflame and enlarge the passions and appetites, to import chaos into the moral and physical life, to level the barriers of decency and self-respect, and to transport its victims into an abnormal and irresponsible state, destructive and degrading, calls for earnest and immediate attention at the bar of the public opinion and the public conscience of Massachusetts.

TABLE I. — *Influence of Intemperance upon Crime; Drinking Habits of Criminals.*

OFFENCES.		Was the Criminal under the influence of liquor at the time the Crime was committed?				Was the Criminal in liquor when the intent to commit the Crime was formed?			
		Yea.	No.	Not Ans.	To-tala.	Yea.	No.	Not Ans.	To-tala.
1	<i>Abduction</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
2	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
3	<i>Abortion</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
4	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
5	<i>Adulterating milk</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
6	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
7	<i>Adultery</i>	3	10	-	13	1	12	-	13
8	Males	3	7	-	10	1	9	-	10
9	Females	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3
10	<i>Assault, or assault and battery</i>	829	588	81	1,498	791	592	115	1,498
11	Males	772	468	58	1,298	736	473	89	1,298
12	Females	57	120	23	200	55	119	26	200
13	<i>Assault, felonious</i>	4	1	-	5	4	1	-	5
14	Males	3	1	-	4	3	1	-	4
15	Females	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
16	<i>Assault on officer</i>	13	2	2	17	12	2	3	17
17	Males	13	1	2	16	12	1	3	16
18	Females	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
19	<i>Assault with weapon</i>	17	-	2	19	17	-	2	19
20	Males	17	-	2	19	17	-	2	19
21	<i>Breaking and entering</i>	32	84	6	122	31	85	6	122
22	Males	31	83	6	120	30	84	6	120
23	Females	1	1	-	2	1	1	-	2
24	<i>Breaking glass</i>	33	11	1	45	33	11	1	45
25	Males	31	6	1	38	31	6	1	38
26	Females	2	5	-	7	2	5	-	7
27	<i>Burglary</i>	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
28	Males	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
29	<i>Carrying concealed weapons</i>	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
30	Males	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
31	<i>Committing nuisance</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
32	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
33	<i>Common rattle and brawler</i>	7	3	1	11	7	3	1	11
34	Females	7	3	1	11	7	3	1	11
35	<i>Concealing mortgaged or leased property</i>	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3
36	Males	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
37	Females	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
38	<i>Contempt</i>	1	2	-	3	1	2	-	3
39	Males	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
40	Females	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
41	<i>Cruelty</i>	13	48	-	61	13	48	-	61
42	Males	13	48	-	61	13	48	-	61
43	<i>Disorderly house</i>	14	5	3	22	9	9	4	22
44	Males	4	2	1	7	3	3	1	7
45	Females	10	3	2	15	6	6	3	15
46	<i>Disturbing a meeting</i>	1	8	-	9	1	8	-	9
47	Males	1	8	-	9	1	8	-	9

TABLE I.—*Influence of Intemperance upon Crime; Drinking Habits of Criminals.*

Did the intemperate habits of the Criminal lead to a condition which induced the Crime?				Did the intemperate habits of others lead the Criminal to a condition which induced the Crime?				Habits of the Criminal as regards liquor drinking.					
Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Total Ab-stainer.	Moderate Drinker.	Excessive Drinker.	Not Answered.	Totals.	
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	2
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	3
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	4
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	5
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	6
3	10	-	13	1	12	-	13	4	6	2	1	13	7
3	7	-	10	1	9	-	10	2	5	2	1	10	8
-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3	2	1	-	-	3	9
693	707	98	1,498	273	1,069	156	1,498	238	702	472	86	1,498	10
639	582	77	1,298	238	935	125	1,298	189	612	433	64	1,298	11
54	125	21	200	35	134	31	200	49	90	39	22	200	12
4	1	-	5	4	1	-	5	1	-	4	-	5	13
3	1	-	4	3	1	-	4	1	-	3	-	4	14
1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	15
11	3	3	17	3	10	4	17	1	9	4	3	17	16
11	2	3	16	3	9	4	16	-	9	4	3	16	17
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	18
13	2	4	19	4	10	5	19	-	4	13	2	19	19
13	2	4	19	4	10	5	19	-	4	13	2	19	20
36	82	4	122	19	98	5	122	45	45	27	5	122	21
35	81	4	120	18	97	5	120	45	44	26	5	120	22
1	1	-	2	1	1	-	2	-	1	1	-	2	23
33	11	1	45	11	33	1	45	7	15	22	1	45	24
31	6	1	38	11	26	1	38	3	14	20	1	38	25
2	5	-	7	-	7	-	7	4	1	2	-	7	26
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	27
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	28
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	29
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	30
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	31
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	32
7	3	1	11	6	4	1	11	-	2	8	1	11	33
7	3	1	11	6	4	1	11	-	2	8	1	11	34
-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3	2	1	-	-	3	35
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	1	1	-	-	2	36
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	37
1	2	-	3	1	2	-	3	-	2	1	-	3	38
1	2	-	2	1	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	39
1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	40
12	49	-	61	8	52	1	61	14	37	9	1	61	41
12	49	-	61	8	52	1	61	14	37	9	1	61	42
15	4	3	22	13	5	4	22	-	8	13	1	22	43
6	1	-	7	6	-	1	7	-	2	5	-	7	44
9	3	3	15	7	5	3	15	-	6	8	1	15	45
-	9	-	9	1	8	-	9	6	3	-	-	9	46
-	9	-	9	1	8	-	9	6	3	-	-	9	47

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE I. — Continued.

OFFENCES.		Was the Criminal under the influence of liquor at the time the Crime was committed?				Was the Criminal in liquor when the intent to commit the Crime was formed?			
		Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.
1	<i>Disturbing a school</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
2	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
3	<i>Disturbing the peace</i>	176	35	4	215	160	38	19	215
4	Males	121	25	2	148	112	25	11	148
5	Females	55	10	2	67	48	11	8	67
6	<i>Embezzlement</i>	12	24	1	37	12	22	3	37
7	Males	11	22	1	34	11	20	3	34
8	Females	1	2	-	3	1	2	-	3
9	<i>Enticing seamen to desert</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
10	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
11	<i>Escape</i>	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4
12	Males	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4
13	<i>Evading car fare</i>	11	24	1	36	11	24	1	36
14	Males	11	24	1	36	11	24	1	36
15	<i>False pretences</i>	6	13	1	19	4	14	1	19
16	Males	5	13	1	19	4	14	1	19
17	<i>Forgery</i>	-	7	-	7	-	7	-	7
18	Males	-	7	-	7	-	7	-	7
19	<i>Fornication</i>	10	38	-	48	7	41	-	48
20	Males	4	16	-	20	2	18	-	20
21	Females	6	22	-	28	5	23	-	28
22	<i>Fraud</i>	2	5	1	8	2	5	1	8
23	Males	2	5	1	8	2	5	1	8
24	<i>Gaming laws, violating</i>	4	41	-	46	3	42	-	45
25	Males	4	41	-	45	3	42	-	45
26	<i>House of ill-fame</i>	2	7	-	9	-	9	-	9
27	Males	1	3	-	4	-	4	-	4
28	Females	1	4	-	5	-	5	-	5
29	<i>Idle and disorderly persons</i>	85	62	7	154	55	90	9	154
30	Males	25	40	3	68	20	44	4	68
31	Females	60	22	4	86	35	46	5	86
32	<i>Indecent exposure</i>	3	5	-	8	2	5	1	8
33	Males	3	5	-	8	2	5	1	8
34	<i>Indecent language</i>	15	3	1	19	14	3	2	19
35	Males	10	2	1	13	10	2	1	13
36	Females	5	1	-	6	4	1	1	6
37	<i>Keeping unlicensed dog</i>	-	8	-	8	-	8	-	8
38	Males	-	6	-	6	-	6	-	6
39	Females	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
40	<i>Larceny</i>	446	616	63	1,115	429	623	63	1,115
41	Males	366	508	42	916	355	610	51	916
42	Females	80	108	11	199	74	113	12	199
43	<i>Lewdness</i>	1	22	-	23	1	22	-	23
44	Males	1	9	-	10	1	9	-	10
45	Females	-	13	-	13	-	13	-	13
46	<i>Malicious mischief</i>	67	73	2	142	62	75	5	142
47	Males	65	67	1	123	50	69	4	123
48	Females	12	6	1	19	12	6	1	19
49	<i>Malicious trespass</i>	3	29	-	32	3	28	1	32
60	Males	3	27	-	30	3	26	1	30
61	Females	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2

TABLE I. — *Continued.*

Did the intemperate habits of the Criminal lead to a condition which induced the Crime?				Did the intemperate habits of others lead the Criminal to a condition which induced the Crime?				Habits of the Criminal as regards liquor drinking.					
Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Total Ab-stainer.	Moderate Drinker.	Excessive Drinker.	Not An-swered.	Totals.	
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	2
167	37	11	215	87	91	37	215	13	97	99	6	215	3
115	27	6	148	67	71	20	148	11	72	61	4	148	4
52	10	5	67	30	20	17	67	2	25	38	2	67	5
9	27	1	37	5	31	1	37	8	18	8	3	37	6
9	24	1	34	5	28	1	34	8	15	8	3	34	7
-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	-	3	8
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	9
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	10
-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	3	1	-	-	4	11
-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	3	1	-	-	4	12
7	28	1	36	21	13	2	36	17	15	3	1	36	13
7	28	1	36	21	13	2	36	17	15	3	1	36	14
8	11	-	19	3	18	-	19	4	10	5	-	19	15
8	11	-	19	3	18	-	19	4	10	5	-	19	18
2	5	-	7	-	7	-	7	5	1	1	-	7	17
2	5	-	7	-	7	-	7	5	1	1	-	7	18
5	43	-	48	2	46	-	48	20	22	5	1	48	19
1	19	-	20	-	20	-	20	8	11	1	-	20	20
4	24	-	28	2	26	-	28	12	11	4	1	28	21
3	4	1	8	1	6	1	8	2	2	3	1	8	22
3	4	1	8	1	6	1	8	2	2	3	1	8	23
2	43	-	45	2	43	-	45	31	12	2	-	45	24
2	43	-	45	2	43	-	45	31	12	2	-	45	25
-	9	-	9	9	-	-	9	2	7	-	-	9	26
-	4	-	4	4	-	-	4	2	2	-	-	4	27
-	5	-	5	5	-	-	5	-	5	-	-	5	28
77	69	8	154	60	84	10	154	21	52	75	6	154	29
26	40	2	68	14	50	4	68	12	30	23	3	68	30
51	29	6	86	46	34	6	86	9	22	52	3	86	31
2	5	1	8	-	7	1	8	1	4	2	1	8	32
2	5	1	8	-	7	1	8	1	4	2	1	8	33
16	2	1	19	11	6	2	19	10	4	5	-	19	34
11	1	1	13	7	5	1	13	10	2	1	-	13	35
5	1	-	6	4	1	1	6	-	2	4	-	6	36
-	8	-	8	-	8	-	8	3	4	-	1	8	37
-	6	-	6	-	6	-	6	1	4	-	1	6	38
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	2	-	-	-	2	39
359	692	64	1,115	131	892	92	1,115	324	434	298	59	1,115	40
296	570	50	916	101	742	73	916	260	386	245	45	916	41
68	122	14	199	30	150	19	199	64	68	53	14	199	42
-	23	-	23	4	18	1	23	12	10	-	1	23	43
-	10	-	10	1	8	1	10	2	7	-	1	10	44
-	13	-	13	3	10	-	13	10	3	-	-	13	45
54	86	2	142	15	121	6	142	52	47	41	2	142	46
45	77	1	123	12	107	4	123	48	42	32	1	123	47
9	9	1	19	3	14	2	19	4	5	9	1	19	48
5	27	-	32	5	27	-	32	18	9	1	4	32	49
5	25	-	30	5	25	-	30	16	9	1	4	30	50
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	2	-	-	-	2	51

TABLE I. — *Continued.*

	OFFENCES.	Was the Criminal under the influence of liquor at the time the Crime was committed?				Was the Criminal in liquor when the intent to commit the Crime was formed?			
		Yea.	No.	Not Ana.	To-tala.	Yea.	No.	Not Ana.	To-tala.
1	<i>Manslaughter</i>	4	-	-	4	4	-	-	4
2	Malea	2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2
3	Femalea	2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2
4	<i>Neglect of child</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
5	Femalea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
6	<i>Nightwalker, common</i>	38	76	12	126	18	96	12	126
7	Malea	1	1	-	2	1	1	-	2
8	Femalea	37	75	12	124	17	95	12	124
9	<i>Obstructing or resisting officer</i>	6	-	-	6	6	-	-	6
10	Malea	6	-	-	6	6	-	-	6
11	<i>Peddling</i>	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4
12	Malea	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4
13	<i>Perjury</i>	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
14	Malea	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
15	<i>Polygamy</i>	1	3	-	4	-	4	-	4
16	Malea	1	2	-	3	-	3	-	3
17	Femalea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
18	<i>Profanity</i>	73	21	1	95	70	21	4	95
19	Malea	66	18	-	84	63	18	3	84
20	Femalea	7	3	1	11	7	3	1	11
21	<i>Rape</i>	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
22	Malea	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
23	<i>Receiving stolen goods</i>	3	10	1	14	2	10	2	14
24	Malea	3	10	1	14	2	10	2	14
25	<i>Refusing to assist officer</i>	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
26	Malea	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
27	<i>Rescue</i>	19	3	1	23	19	3	1	23
28	Malea	19	1	1	21	19	1	1	21
29	Femalea	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2
30	<i>Robbery</i>	8	8	2	18	8	8	2	18
31	Malea	8	8	-	16	8	8	-	16
32	Femalea	-	-	2	2	-	-	2	2
33	<i>Runaway</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
34	Malea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
35	<i>Selling tobacco without license</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
36	Malea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
37	<i>Selling unwholesome provisions</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
38	Malea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
39	<i>Stubborn children</i>	1	10	-	11	1	10	-	11
40	Malea	1	7	-	8	1	7	-	8
41	Femalea	-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3
42	<i>Sunday law, violating</i>	-	49	-	49	-	49	-	49
43	Malea	-	48	-	48	-	48	-	48
44	Femalea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
45	<i>Tampering with witness</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
46	Femalea	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
47	<i>Threats</i>	25	11	1	37	21	12	4	37
48	Malea	24	7	1	32	20	8	4	32
49	Femalea	1	4	-	5	1	4	-	5

TABLE I. — *Continued.*

Did the intemperate habits of the Criminal lead to a condition which induced the Crime?				Did the intemperate habits of others lead the Criminal to a condition which induced the Crime?				Habits of the Criminal as regards liquor drinking.					
Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Total Abstainer.	Moderate Drinker.	Excessive Drinker.	Not Answered.	Totals.	
4	-	-	4	4	-	-	4	-	2	2	-	4	1
2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	2
2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	2	3
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	4
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	5
22	92	12	126	25	89	12	126	49	46	25	6	126	6
1	1	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	2	7
21	91	12	124	25	87	12	124	49	45	24	6	124	8
5	1	-	6	1	4	1	6	-	5	1	-	6	9
5	1	-	6	1	4	1	6	-	5	1	-	6	10
-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	2	1	-	1	4	11
-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	2	1	-	1	4	12
1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	13
1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	14
1	3	-	4	1	3	-	4	-	3	1	-	4	15
1	2	-	3	1	2	-	3	-	2	1	-	3	16
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	17
66	27	2	95	20	69	6	95	7	50	35	3	95	18
60	23	1	84	18	61	5	84	7	45	32	-	84	19
6	4	1	11	2	8	1	11	-	5	3	3	11	20
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	21
1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	22
4	9	1	14	2	10	2	14	3	6	4	1	14	23
4	9	1	14	2	10	2	14	3	6	4	1	14	24
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	25
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	26
16	6	1	23	10	11	2	23	-	11	11	1	23	27
16	4	1	21	10	9	2	21	-	9	11	1	21	28
-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	29
7	9	2	18	8	8	2	18	-	14	4	-	18	30
7	9	-	16	8	8	-	16	-	12	4	-	16	31
-	-	2	2	-	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	2	32
-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	33
-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	34
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	35
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	36
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	37
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	38
1	10	-	11	1	10	-	11	8	2	1	-	11	39
1	7	-	8	1	7	-	8	5	2	1	-	8	40
-	3	-	3	-	3	-	3	3	-	-	-	3	41
1	48	-	49	4	45	-	49	29	19	-	1	49	42
1	47	-	48	4	44	-	48	29	18	-	1	48	43
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	44
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	45
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	46
22	12	3	37	6	27	4	37	4	11	22	-	37	47
20	9	3	32	5	23	4	32	3	8	21	-	32	48
2	3	-	5	1	4	-	5	1	3	1	-	5	49

TABLE I. — *Concluded.*

	OFFENCES.	Was the Criminal under the influence of liquor at the time the Crime was committed?				Was the Criminal in liquor when the intent to commit the Crime was formed?			
		Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.
1	<i>Truancy</i>	-	53	-	53	-	53	-	53
2	Males	-	53	-	53	-	53	-	53
3	<i>Unlawful appropriation</i>	2	2	-	4	2	2	-	4
4	Males	2	2	-	4	2	2	-	4
5	<i>Vagabonds</i>	74	32	3	109	50	58	3	109
6	Males	55	30	2	87	37	48	2	87
7	Females	19	2	1	22	13	8	1	22
8	<i>Violating game laws</i>	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
9	Males	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
10	<i>Violating town or city by-laws</i>	30	241	5	276	28	238	10	276
11	Males	30	237	5	272	28	234	10	272
12	Females	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4
13	AGGREGATES	2,097	2,318	193	4,808	1,918	2,414	278	4,808
14	Males	1,732	1,892	133	3,757	1,828	1,928	203	3,757
15	Females	365	426	60	851	292	488	73	851

TABLE I. — *Concluded.*

Did the intemperate habits of the Criminal lead to a condition which induced the Crime?				Did the intemperate habits of others lead the Criminal to a condition which induced the Crime?				Habits of the Criminal as regards liquor drinking.					
Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Yes.	No.	Not Ans.	Totals.	Total Ab-stainer.	Moderate Drinker.	Excessive Drinker.	Not An-swered.	Totals.	
-	53	-	53	2	46	5	53	46	7	-	-	53	1
-	53	-	53	2	46	5	53	46	7	-	-	53	2
2	2	-	4	1	3	-	4	-	3	1	-	4	3
2	2	-	4	1	3	-	4	-	3	1	-	4	4
76	27	6	109	18	83	8	109	8	22	75	4	109	5
57	26	4	87	12	69	6	87	7	21	56	3	87	6
19	1	2	22	6	14	2	22	1	1	19	1	22	7
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	8
-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	9
29	241	6	276	17	249	10	276	135	121	11	9	276	10
29	237	6	272	17	245	10	272	134	120	10	8	272	11
-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	1	1	1	1	4	12
1,804	2,566	238	4,808	821	3,404	383	4,608	1,158	1,918	1,317	215	4,608	13
1,495	2,092	170	3,757	611	2,860	286	3,757	940	1,611	1,047	159	3,757	14
309	474	68	851	210	544	97	851	218	307	270	56	851	15

TABLE II.—*Criminals Sober, or in Liquor, at time Crime was committed; Native or Foreign Born; Sex.*

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Abduction</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Abortion</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adulterating milk,</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adultery</i>	7	2	9	2	1	3	1	-	1	10	3	13
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	2	-	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	3
<i>Sober . . .</i>	5	2	7	1	1	2	1	-	1	7	3	10
<i>Assault, or assault</i>	643	59	702	600	137	737	65	4	59	1,298	200	1,498
<i>and battery</i>												
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	378	17	395	364	40	404	24	4	24	766	57	823
<i>Sober . . .</i>	237	38	275	214	79	293	22	4	26	473	121	594
<i>Not answered . . .</i>	28	4	32	22	18	40	9	-	9	59	22	81
<i>Assault, felonious,</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	1	-	1	4	1	5
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	1	-	1	3	1	4
<i>Sober . . .</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Assault on officer .</i>	10	-	10	5	1	6	1	-	1	16	1	17
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	9	-	9	3	-	3	1	-	1	13	-	13
<i>Sober . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Not answered . . .</i>	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Assault with weap-</i>	9	-	9	9	-	9	1	-	1	19	-	19
<i>on</i>												
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	8	-	8	8	-	8	1	-	1	17	-	17
<i>Not answered . . .</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Breaking and enter-</i>	81	-	81	20	2	22	9	-	9	120	2	122
<i>ing</i>												
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	22	-	22	6	1	7	3	-	3	31	1	32
<i>Sober . . .</i>	63	-	63	14	1	15	6	-	6	83	1	84
<i>Not answered . . .</i>	6	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	6
<i>Breaking glass</i>	22	4	26	14	2	16	2	1	3	38	7	45
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	17	1	18	12	1	13	2	-	2	31	2	33
<i>Sober . . .</i>	5	3	8	2	1	3	-	1	1	7	5	12
<i>Burglary</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Carrying concealed</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>weapons</i>												
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Committing nui-</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>sance</i>												
<i>Sober . . .</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Common railer and</i>	-	1	1	-	10	10	-	-	-	-	11	11
<i>brawler</i>												
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	-	1	1	-	6	6	-	-	-	-	7	7
<i>Sober . . .</i>	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	-	-	-	3	3
<i>Not answered . . .</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Concealing mort-</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>gaged or leased</i>												
<i>property</i>												
<i>Sober . . .</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Contempt</i>	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>In liquor . . .</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Sober . . .</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2

TABLE II. — Continued.

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Cruelty</i>	35	-	35	24	-	24	2	-	2	61	-	61
In liquor	4	-	4	8	-	8	1	-	1	13	-	13
Sober	31	-	31	16	-	16	1	-	1	48	-	48
<i>Disorderly house</i>	5	8	13	2	6	8	-	1	1	7	15	22
In liquor	3	5	8	1	5	6	-	1	1	4	11	15
Sober	2	2	4	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	3	5
Not answered	-	1	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Disturbing a meet-</i> <i>ing</i>	7	-	7	2	-	2	-	-	-	9	-	9
In liquor	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sober	7	-	7	1	-	1	-	-	-	8	-	8
<i>Disturbing a</i> <i>school</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sober	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Disturbing the</i> <i>peace</i>	90	9	99	48	55	103	10	3	13	148	87	215
In liquor	69	7	76	43	45	88	9	3	12	121	55	178
Sober	20	2	22	4	8	12	1	-	1	25	10	35
Not answered	1	-	1	1	2	3	-	-	-	2	2	4
<i>Embezzlement</i>	22	1	23	9	2	11	3	-	3	34	3	37
In liquor	7	-	7	3	1	4	-	-	-	10	1	11
Sober	14	1	15	6	1	7	3	-	3	23	2	25
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Enticing seamen to</i> <i>desert</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sober	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Escape</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
Sober	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Evasion car fare</i>	29	-	29	7	-	7	-	-	-	36	-	36
In liquor	7	-	7	4	-	4	-	-	-	11	-	11
Sober	22	-	22	2	-	2	-	-	-	24	-	24
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>False pretences</i>	15	-	15	4	-	4	-	-	-	19	-	19
In liquor	4	-	4	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	-	5
Sober	10	-	10	3	-	3	-	-	-	13	-	13
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Forgery</i>	5	-	5	2	-	2	-	-	-	7	-	7
Sober	5	-	5	2	-	2	-	-	-	7	-	7
<i>Fornication</i>	15	13	28	5	14	19	-	1	1	20	28	48
In liquor	4	3	7	-	4	4	-	-	-	4	7	11
Sober	11	10	21	5	10	15	-	1	1	16	21	37
<i>Fraud</i>	4	-	4	4	-	4	-	-	-	8	-	8
In liquor	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Sober	4	-	4	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	-	5
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Gaming laws, vio-</i> <i>lating</i>	15	-	15	30	-	30	-	-	-	45	-	45
In liquor	1	-	1	3	-	3	-	-	-	4	-	4
Sober	14	-	14	27	-	27	-	-	-	41	-	41
<i>House of ill-fame</i>	2	4	8	2	1	3	-	-	-	4	5	9
In liquor	-	1	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
Sober	2	3	5	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	4	7
<i>Idle and disor-</i> <i>derly persons</i>	51	52	103	16	33	49	1	1	2	68	86	154
In liquor	20	32	52	6	28	34	-	-	-	26	60	86
Sober	30	18	48	8	4	12	1	-	1	39	22	61
Not answered	1	2	3	2	1	3	-	-	-	3	4	7

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE II. — Continued.

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Indecent exposure,</i>	3	-	3	4	-	4	1	-	1	8	-	8
In liquor . . .	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
Sober . . .	2	-	2	2	-	2	1	-	1	5	-	5
<i>Indecent language,</i>	12	-	12	1	6	7	-	-	-	13	6	19
In liquor . . .	10	-	10	1	5	6	-	-	-	11	5	16
Sober . . .	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Keeping unlicensed</i>												
<i>dog . . .</i>	2	1	3	3	1	4	1	-	1	6	2	8
Sober . . .	2	1	3	3	1	4	1	-	1	6	2	8
<i>Larceny . . .</i>	634	77	711	260	121	381	22	1	23	916	199	1,115
In liquor . . .	225	21	246	132	57	189	6	-	6	363	78	441
Sober . . .	380	50	430	118	59	175	16	1	17	512	110	622
Not answered . . .	29	6	35	12	5	17	-	-	-	41	11	52
<i>Lewdness . . .</i>	7	10	17	2	2	4	1	1	2	10	13	23
In liquor . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sober . . .	6	10	16	2	2	4	1	1	2	9	13	22
<i>Malicious mischief,</i>	98	8	104	23	13	36	2	-	2	123	19	142
In liquor . . .	38	2	40	17	11	28	1	-	1	56	13	69
Sober . . .	59	3	62	6	2	8	1	-	1	66	5	71
Not answered . . .	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Malicious trespass,</i>	26	2	28	3	-	3	1	-	1	30	2	32
In liquor . . .	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
Sober . . .	23	2	25	3	-	3	1	-	1	27	2	29
<i>Manlaughter</i>	-	-	-	2	2	4	-	-	-	2	2	4
In liquor . . .	-	-	-	2	2	4	-	-	-	2	2	4
<i>Neglect of child</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Sober . . .	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Nightwalker, com-</i>	-	80	80	2	42	44	-	2	2	2	124	126
In liquor . . .	-	22	22	1	15	16	-	-	-	1	37	38
Sober . . .	-	51	51	1	22	23	-	2	2	1	75	76
Not answered . . .	-	7	7	-	5	5	-	-	-	-	12	12
<i>Obstructing or re-</i>												
<i>sisting officer . . .</i>	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
In liquor . . .	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
<i>Peddling</i>	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4
Sober . . .	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Perjury . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
In liquor . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Polygamy . . .</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	1	4
In liquor . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sober . . .	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Profanity . . .</i>	51	3	54	33	8	41	-	-	-	84	11	95
In liquor . . .	41	2	43	25	6	31	-	-	-	66	8	74
Sober . . .	10	-	10	8	2	10	-	-	-	18	2	20
Not answered . . .	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Rape . . .</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
In liquor . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Receiving stolen</i>												
<i>goods . . .</i>	9	-	9	5	-	5	-	-	-	14	-	14
In liquor . . .	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
Sober . . .	5	-	5	5	-	5	-	-	-	10	-	10
Not answered . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1

TABLE II. — *Concluded.*

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Refusing to assist officer</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Sober</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Rescue</i>	15	-	15	6	2	8	-	-	-	21	2	23
<i>In liquor</i>	15	-	15	4	-	4	-	-	-	19	-	19
<i>Sober</i>	-	-	-	1	2	3	-	-	-	1	2	3
<i>Not answered</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Robbery</i>	14	2	16	2	-	2	-	-	-	16	2	18
<i>In liquor</i>	7	-	7	1	-	1	-	-	-	8	-	8
<i>Sober</i>	7	-	7	1	-	1	-	-	-	8	-	8
<i>Not answered</i>	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
<i>Runaway</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling tobacco without license</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling unwholesome provisions</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Stubborn children</i>	6	3	9	2	-	2	-	-	-	8	3	11
<i>In liquor</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober</i>	6	3	9	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	3	10
<i>Sunday law, violating</i>	32	-	32	15	1	16	1	-	1	48	1	49
<i>Sober</i>	32	-	32	15	1	16	1	-	1	48	1	49
<i>Tampering with witness</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Sober</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Threats</i>	9	1	10	19	3	22	4	1	5	32	5	37
<i>In liquor</i>	5	-	5	16	1	17	3	-	3	24	1	25
<i>Sober</i>	4	1	5	3	2	5	-	1	1	7	4	11
<i>Not answered</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Truancy</i>	51	-	51	1	-	1	1	-	1	53	-	53
<i>Sober</i>	51	-	51	1	-	1	1	-	1	53	-	53
<i>Unlawful appropriation</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>In liquor</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Sober</i>	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Vagabonds</i>	20	5	25	66	17	83	1	-	1	87	22	109
<i>In liquor</i>	14	4	18	41	15	56	-	-	-	55	19	74
<i>Sober</i>	5	1	6	24	1	25	-	-	-	29	2	31
<i>Not answered</i>	1	-	1	1	1	2	1	-	1	3	1	4
<i>Violating game laws</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sober</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Violating town or city by-laws</i>	201	1	202	52	3	55	19	-	19	272	4	276
<i>In liquor</i>	17	-	17	11	-	11	3	-	3	31	-	31
<i>Sober</i>	181	1	182	40	3	43	15	-	15	236	4	240
<i>Not answered</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	1	-	1	5	-	5
AGGREGATES	2,294	344	2,638	1,322	491	1,813	141	16	157	3,757	851	4,608
<i>In liquor</i>	946	118	1,064	724	245	969	56	4	60	1,726	367	2,093
<i>Sober</i>	1,274	202	1,476	552	213	765	73	11	84	1,899	426	2,325
<i>Not answered</i>	74	24	98	46	33	79	12	1	13	132	58	190

TABLE III. — *Drinking Habits of Criminals; Native or Foreign Born; Sex.*

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Abduction</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Abortion</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adulterating milk</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adultery</i>	7	2	9	2	1	3	1	-	1	10	3	13
Total abstainers	2	1	3	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	2	4
Moderate drinkers,	3	1	4	2	-	2	-	-	-	5	1	6
Excessive drinkers,	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Not answered	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Assault, or assault and battery</i>	643	59	702	800	137	737	55	4	59	1,298	200	1,498
Total abstainers	115	19	134	64	28	92	10	2	12	189	49	238
Moderate drinkers,	293	26	319	299	63	362	21	-	21	613	89	702
Excessive drinkers,	206	9	215	216	31	247	11	1	12	433	41	474
Not answered	29	5	34	21	15	36	13	1	14	63	21	84
<i>Assault, felonious</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	1	-	1	4	1	5
Total abstainers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Excessive drinkers,	1	-	1	-	1	1	1	-	1	2	1	3
<i>Assault on officer</i>	10	-	10	5	1	6	1	-	1	16	1	17
Total abstainers	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Moderate drinkers,	6	-	6	1	-	1	1	-	1	8	-	8
Excessive drinkers,	3	-	3	2	-	2	-	-	-	5	-	5
Not answered	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
<i>Assault with weapon</i>	9	-	9	9	-	9	1	-	1	19	-	19
Moderate drinkers,	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Excessive drinkers,	6	-	6	6	-	6	1	-	1	13	-	13
Not answered	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Breaking and entering</i>	91	-	91	20	2	22	9	-	9	120	2	122
Total abstainers	37	-	37	7	-	7	-	-	-	44	-	44
Moderate drinkers,	31	-	31	6	1	7	8	-	8	45	1	46
Excessive drinkers,	18	-	18	7	1	8	1	-	1	26	1	27
Not answered	5	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	5
<i>Breaking glass</i>	22	4	26	14	2	16	2	1	3	38	7	45
Total abstainers	4	2	6	-	1	1	-	1	1	4	4	8
Moderate drinkers,	8	1	9	5	-	5	-	-	-	13	1	14
Excessive drinkers,	10	1	11	9	1	10	1	-	1	20	2	22
Not answered	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Burglary</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Excessive drinkers,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Carrying concealed weapons</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Committing nuisance</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Common railer and brawler</i>	-	1	1	-	10	10	-	-	-	-	11	11
Moderate drinkers,	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
Excessive drinkers,	-	1	1	-	7	7	-	-	-	-	8	8
Not answered	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1

TABLE III. — Continued.

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Concealing mortgaged or leased property</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
Total abstainers	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Contempt</i>	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Excessive drinkers,	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Cruelty</i>	35	-	35	24	-	24	2	-	2	61	-	61
Total abstainers	13	-	13	1	-	1	-	-	-	14	-	14
Moderate drinkers,	18	-	18	18	-	18	1	-	1	37	-	37
Excessive drinkers,	4	-	4	5	-	5	-	-	-	9	-	9
Not answered	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Disorderly house</i>	5	8	13	2	6	8	-	1	1	7	15	22
Moderate drinkers,	2	3	5	-	3	3	-	-	-	2	6	8
Excessive drinkers,	3	4	7	2	3	5	-	1	1	5	8	13
Not answered	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Disturbing a meeting,</i>	7	-	7	2	-	2	-	-	-	9	-	9
Total abstainers	6	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	6
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
<i>Disturbing a school.</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Total abstainers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Disturbing the peace,</i>	90	9	99	48	55	103	10	3	13	148	67	215
Total abstainers	9	1	10	2	1	3	-	-	-	11	2	13
Moderate drinkers,	49	3	52	16	21	37	6	1	7	71	25	96
Excessive drinkers,	30	5	35	29	31	60	3	2	5	62	38	100
Not answered	2	-	2	1	2	3	1	-	1	4	2	6
<i>Embezzlement</i>	22	1	23	9	2	11	3	-	3	34	3	37
Total abstainers	6	-	6	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	-	7
Moderate drinkers,	9	1	10	7	2	9	-	-	-	16	3	19
Excessive drinkers,	6	-	6	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	-	7
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	3	4	-	4
<i>Enticing seamen to desert.</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Escape</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
Total abstainers	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
Moderate drinkers,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Evading car fare</i>	29	-	29	7	-	7	-	-	-	36	-	36
Total abstainers	16	-	16	1	-	1	-	-	-	17	-	17
Moderate drinkers,	10	-	10	5	-	5	-	-	-	15	-	15
Excessive drinkers,	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>False pretences</i>	15	-	15	4	-	4	-	-	-	19	-	19
Total abstainers	4	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	4
Moderate drinkers,	9	-	9	1	-	1	-	-	-	10	-	10
Excessive drinkers,	2	-	2	3	-	3	-	-	-	5	-	5
<i>Forgery</i>	5	-	5	2	-	2	-	-	-	7	-	7
Total abstainers	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Moderate drinkers,	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Excessive drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Fornication</i>	15	13	28	5	14	19	1	1	20	28	48	
Total abstainers	5	6	11	3	5	8	-	1	1	8	12	20
Moderate drinkers,	9	6	15	2	5	7	-	-	-	11	11	22
Excessive drinkers,	1	1	2	-	3	3	-	-	-	1	4	6
Not answered	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1

TABLE III. — *Continued.*

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Fraud</i>	4	-	4	4	-	4	-	-	-	8	-	8
Total abstainers	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Excessive drinkers	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Gaming laws, violating</i>	15	-	15	30	-	30	-	-	-	45	-	45
Total abstainers	5	-	5	26	-	26	-	-	-	31	-	31
Moderate drinkers	10	-	10	2	-	2	-	-	-	12	-	12
Excessive drinkers	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>House of ill-fame</i>	2	4	6	2	1	3	-	-	-	4	5	9
Total abstainers	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Moderate drinkers	1	4	5	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	5	7
<i>Idle and disorderly persons</i>	51	52	103	16	33	49	1	1	2	68	86	154
Total abstainers	9	8	17	2	1	3	-	-	-	11	9	20
Moderate drinkers	24	16	40	3	6	9	-	-	-	27	22	49
Excessive drinkers	17	25	42	10	26	36	-	1	1	27	52	79
Not answered	1	3	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	3	3	6
<i>Indecent exposure</i>	3	-	3	4	-	4	1	-	1	8	-	8
Total abstainers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers	3	-	3	2	-	2	-	-	-	5	-	5
Excessive drinkers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not answered	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Indecent language</i>	12	-	12	1	6	7	-	-	-	13	6	19
Moderate drinkers	9	-	9	1	3	4	-	-	-	10	3	13
Excessive drinkers	2	-	2	-	3	3	-	-	-	2	3	5
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Keeping unlicensed dog</i>	2	1	3	3	1	4	1	-	1	6	2	8
Total abstainers	-	1	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	1	2	3
Moderate drinkers	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Not answered	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Larceny</i>	634	77	711	260	121	381	22	1	23	916	199	1,115
Total abstainers	219	39	258	39	24	63	4	1	5	262	64	326
Moderate drinkers	244	19	263	112	49	161	10	-	10	366	68	434
Excessive drinkers	143	14	157	97	40	137	3	-	3	243	54	297
Not answered	28	5	33	12	8	20	5	-	5	45	13	58
<i>Lewdness</i>	7	10	17	2	2	4	1	1	2	10	13	23
Total abstainers	2	9	11	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	10	12
Moderate drinkers	4	1	5	2	1	3	1	1	2	7	3	10
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Malicious mischief</i>	98	6	104	23	13	36	2	-	2	123	19	142
Total abstainers	44	2	46	2	2	4	1	-	1	47	4	51
Moderate drinkers	34	2	36	8	3	11	-	-	-	42	5	47
Excessive drinkers	19	1	20	13	8	21	1	-	1	33	9	42
Not answered	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Malicious trespass</i>	26	2	28	3	-	3	1	-	1	30	2	32
Total abstainers	16	2	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	2	18
Moderate drinkers	6	-	6	3	-	3	-	-	-	9	-	9
Excessive drinkers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not answered	3	-	3	-	-	-	1	-	1	4	-	4
<i>Manlaughter</i>	-	-	-	2	2	4	-	-	-	2	2	4
Moderate drinkers	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Excessive drinkers	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
<i>Neglect of child</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Moderate drinkers	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1

TABLE III. — Continued.

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Nightwalker, common</i>	-	80	80	2	42	44	-	2	2	2	124	126
Total abstainers	-	33	33	-	14	14	-	1	1	-	48	48
Moderate drinkers	-	28	28	1	16	17	-	1	1	1	45	46
Excessive drinkers	-	15	15	1	10	11	-	-	-	1	25	26
Not answered	-	4	4	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	6	6
<i>Obstructing or resisting officer</i>	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
Moderate drinkers	2	-	2	1	-	1	1	-	1	4	-	4
Excessive drinkers	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Peddling</i>	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4
Total abstainers	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Moderate drinkers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Perjury</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Polygamy</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	1	4
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
Excessive drinkers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Profanity</i>	51	3	54	33	8	41	-	-	-	84	11	95
Total abstainers	6	-	6	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	-	7
Moderate drinkers	26	-	26	22	5	27	-	-	-	48	5	53
Excessive drinkers	19	2	21	10	3	13	-	-	-	29	5	34
Not answered	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Rape</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Receiving stolen goods</i>	9	-	9	5	-	5	-	-	-	14	-	14
Total abstainers	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Moderate drinkers	2	-	2	3	-	3	-	-	-	5	-	5
Excessive drinkers	4	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	4
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Refusing to assist officer</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Rescue</i>	15	-	15	6	2	8	-	-	-	21	2	23
Moderate drinkers	7	-	7	2	2	4	-	-	-	9	2	11
Excessive drinkers	8	-	8	3	-	3	-	-	-	11	-	11
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Robbery</i>	14	2	16	2	-	2	-	-	-	16	2	18
Moderate drinkers	11	2	13	1	-	1	-	-	-	12	2	14
Excessive drinkers	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Runaway</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Not answered	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling tobacco without a license</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Total abstainers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling unwholesome provisions</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Stubborn children</i>	6	3	9	2	-	2	-	-	-	8	3	11
Total abstainers	6	3	9	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	3	10
Excessive drinkers	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sunday law, violating</i>	32	-	32	15	1	16	1	-	1	48	1	49
Total abstainers	28	-	28	1	-	1	-	-	-	29	-	29
Moderate drinkers	4	-	4	13	1	14	1	-	1	18	1	19
Not answered	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

TABLE III. — *Concluded.*

OFFENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Tampering with witness</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Total abstainers . . .	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Threats</i>	9	1	10	19	3	22	4	1	5	32	5	37
Total abstainers . . .	2	1	3	1	1	1	-	-	-	3	1	4
Moderate drinkers,	1	-	1	7	2	9	-	1	1	8	3	11
Excessive drinkers,	6	-	6	11	1	12	4	-	4	21	1	22
<i>Truancy</i>	51	-	51	1	-	1	1	-	1	53	-	53
Total abstainers . . .	51	-	51	1	-	1	1	-	1	53	-	53
<i>Unlawful appropriation</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
Moderate drinkers,	2	-	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	3
Excessive drinkers,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Vagabonds</i>	20	5	25	66	17	83	1	-	1	87	22	109
Total abstainers . . .	4	2	6	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	2	7
Moderate drinkers,	3	-	3	18	1	19	-	-	-	21	1	22
Excessive drinkers,	13	3	16	44	15	59	1	-	1	58	18	76
Not answered . . .	-	-	-	3	1	4	-	-	-	3	1	4
<i>Violating game laws,</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Moderate drinkers,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Violating town or city by-laws</i>	201	1	202	52	3	55	19	-	19	272	4	276
Total abstainers . . .	109	1	110	8	1	9	14	-	14	131	2	133
Moderate drinkers,	80	-	80	39	-	39	4	-	4	123	-	123
Excessive drinkers,	6	-	6	4	1	5	-	-	-	10	1	11
Not answered . . .	6	-	6	1	1	2	1	-	1	8	1	9
AGGREGATES . . .	2,294	344	2,638	1,322	491	1,813	141	16	157	3,757	851	4,608
Total abstainers . . .	732	130	862	173	83	256	30	6	36	935	219	1,154
Moderate drinkers,	939	113	1,052	621	189	810	54	4	58	1,614	306	1,920
Excessive drinkers,	540	81	621	481	188	669	27	5	32	1,048	274	1,322
Not answered . . .	83	20	103	47	31	78	30	1	31	160	52	212

TABLE IV. — Occupations of Criminals, with Sex.

[Females are designated by an "f."]

OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
<i>Abduction</i>	1	Engineer	7	Pawnbroker	3
Coachman	1	Engraver	1	Peddler	32
<i>Abortion</i>	1	Errand-boy	1	Peddler, <i>f.</i>	1
Teamster	1	Expresman	4	Perfumier	1
<i>Adulterating milk</i>	1	Factory-girl, <i>f.</i>	2	Piano-maker	2
Not given	1	Farmer	3	Plasterer	5
<i>Adultery</i>	13	File-cutter	1	Plumber	6
Baker	1	Finisher	4	Pocket-book man- ufacturer	1
Bricklayer	1	Fireman	5	Polisher	1
Domestic, <i>f.</i>	2	Fish-dealer	2	Porter	4
Hostler	1	Fisherman	5	Printer	5
Laborer	2	Fruit-dealer	1	Printer	5
None	2	Furniture-maker	1	Provision-dealer	1
None, <i>f.</i>	1	Gas-fitter	1	Real-estate husi- ness	1
Plasterer	1	Glassblower	1	Rigger	3
Tailor	1	Glasemaker	2	Roofer	1
Teamster	1	Glazier	2	Ropemaker	1
<i>Assault or assault and battery</i>	1,498	Grocer	5	Saddler	1
Actor	1	Groom	4	Safemaker	1
Agent	1	Harness-maker	2	Sailmaker	2
Baggage-master	1	Hatter	2	Sailor	43
Baker	7	Hod-carrier	1	Saloon-keeper	7
Barber	14	Hostler	10	Schoolboy	1
Bartender	5	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	63	Sculptor	1
Bill-poster	1	Insurance-agent	1	Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	2
Blacksmith	6	Iron-founder	2	Servant, <i>f.</i>	2
Boatbuilder	2	Iron-moulder	1	Shoemaker	15
Boller-maker	6	Iron-worker	1	Slatier	2
Bookbinder	1	Jeweller	2	Solicitor	1
Boothlack	3	Jig-sawyer	1	Stable-keeper	1
Boot-finisher	1	Junkman	10	Steam-fitter	1
Bootmaker	1	Laborer	434	Stevadore	1
Bottler	1	Laborer, <i>f.</i>	1	Stone-cutter	7
Boxmaker	3	Lampighter	2	Storekeeper	1
Brakeman	5	Lather	1	Stove-mounter	1
Brewer	2	Laundress, <i>f.</i>	1	Street-musician	1
Bricklayer	3	Ledgeman	1	Student	9
Bronzer	1	Lighterman	1	Tailor	12
Butcher	8	Liquor-dealer	8	Tailor, <i>f.</i>	2
Cabinet-maker	6	Liquor-dealer, <i>f.</i>	1	Tanner	1
Carpenter	22	Loafer	7	Teamster	69
Carver	1	Locksmith	1	Tile-layer	1
Cattle-driver	1	Longshoreman	10	Tinamith	6
Cattleman	1	Lumber-dealer	1	Trader	11
Cattle-shipper	1	Lumper	1	Trunkmaker	2
Chairmaker	1	Machineiat	9	Undertaker	1
Chair-painter	1	Machine-crimper	1	Upholaterer	5
Cigar-dealer	1	Manufacturer	1	Varnisher	1
Clerk	31	Marble-worker	5	Waiter	6
Clog-dancer	1	Marble-worker, <i>f.</i>	1	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	2
Coachman	2	Marketman	3	Washerwoman, <i>f.</i>	4
Coal-heaver	1	Mason	12	Watchmaker	1
Confectioner	4	Mate	1	Watchman	2
Contractor	2	Mechanic	2	Weaver	1
Cook	4	Melter	1	Whitewasher	1
Cook, <i>f.</i>	1	Milk-dealer	1	Wood-carrier	1
Cooper	1	Milkman	2	Wood-cutter	1
Currier	4	Miller	1	Wood-turner	1
Cutter	1	Mill-operative	2	<i>Assault, felonious</i>	5
Domestic, <i>f.</i>	30	Morocco-worker	4	Clerk	1
Dreammaker, <i>f.</i>	3	Moulder	5	Laborer	1
Dyer	1	Mueician	1	Loafer	1
Employed in fish store	1	Nailmaker	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	1
Employed in forge works	1	Newshoy	1	Printer	1
Employed in junk store	1	None	78	<i>Assault on officer</i>	17
Employed in oll works	1	None, <i>f.</i>	28	Bookbinder	1
		Not given	132	Carpenter	1
		Not given, <i>f.</i>	56	Clerk	1
		Organ-maker	1	Currier	1
		Packer	1	Laborer	7
		Painter	28		
		Paper-cutter	1		
		Paper-hanger	4		

TABLE IV. — Continued.

OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
Not given	5	<i>Common railer and brawler</i>	11	Harness-maker	1
Not given, <i>f.</i>	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	2	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	18
<i>Assault with weapon,</i>	19	Laundress, <i>f.</i>	1	Laborer	66
Butcher	1	None, <i>f.</i>	1	Laborer, <i>f.</i>	1
Glassehlower	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	7	Liquor-seller	1
Laborer	8	<i>Concealing mort- gaged or leased property</i>	3	Mason	1
Not given	3	Clerk	1	Morocco-finisher	2
Peddler	4	Fruit-dealer	1	Newboy	1
Sailor	1	Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	1	None	14
Teamster	1	<i>Contempt</i>	3	None, <i>f.</i>	13
<i>Breaking and en- tering</i>	122	Laborer	2	Not given	21
Barber	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	33
Beer-bottler	1	<i>Cruelty</i>	61	Packer	1
Carpenter	1	Butcher	1	Painter	2
Clerk	2	Clerk	1	Peddler	5
Cooper	2	Coal-dealer	1	Pickle-preserver	1
Druggist	1	Contractor	1	Plumber	1
Engraver	1	Carrier	1	Rag-sorter, <i>f.</i>	1
Errand-boy	1	Expressman	4	Rope-factory op- erative	2
Fisherman	1	Farmer	1	Schoolboy	1
Fruit-dealer	1	Fish-dealer	1	Servant, <i>f.</i>	1
Furniture-packer,	1	Fish-peddler	2	Shoemaker	2
Hostler	1	Foreman	1	Trackman	1
Hotel-keeper	1	Hackman	2	Trader	2
Iron-moulder	1	Horas-dealer	6	Teamster	7
Laborer	15	Laborer	8	Wheelwright	1
Machinist	1	Liquor-dealer	3	<i>Embezzlement</i>	37
None	57	Milkman	3	Agent	2
None, <i>f.</i>	1	Not given	1	Bartender	1
Not given	14	Peddler	7	Bellhanger	1
Not given, <i>f.</i>	1	Schoolboy	2	Book-agent	1
Organ-grinder	1	Stable-keeper	3	Book-keeper	1
Painter	1	Stonemason	1	Carriage-driver	1
Peddler	3	Teamster	13	Clerk	3
Porter in store	2	<i>Disorderly house</i>	23	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	1
Ropemaker	1	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	1	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	2
Shoemaker	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	9	Driver	2
Slater	1	Laborer	2	Expressman	1
Teamster	3	Longshoreman	2	Hack-driver	1
Tin-roofer	1	None	2	Laborer	2
Tinmith	1	None, <i>f.</i>	1	Measman	1
Varnisher	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	3	Newboy	1
Waiter	1	Servant, <i>f.</i>	1	None	1
<i>Breaking glass</i>	45	Teamster	2	Not given	4
Barber	1	<i>Disturbing a meet- ing</i>	9	Painter	1
Boiler-maker	1	Carriage-trimmer,	1	Peddler	1
Carpenter	1	None	6	Printer	1
Hostler	1	Not given	1	Sailor	1
Jewelry-polleher,	1	Waiter	1	Salesman	1
Laborer	12	<i>Disturbing a school,</i>	1	Silver-plater	1
Loafer	2	Schoolboy	1	Tailorress, <i>f.</i>	1
Machinist	1	<i>Disturbing the peace,</i>	215	Teamster	4
Night-watchman	1	Baker	1	Tinmith	1
None	7	Barber	2	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	1
None, <i>f.</i>	2	Boatbuilder	1	<i>Enticing seamen to desert</i>	1
Not given	2	Boiler-maker	1	Boarding-house runner	1
Not given, <i>f.</i>	5	Butcher	1	<i>Escape</i>	4
Oil finisher	1	Carpenter	1	Laborer	1
Peddler	1	Clerk	1	None	3
Schoolboy	1	Cracker-baker	1	<i>Evading car fare</i>	36
Shoemaker	1	Cracker-packer	1	Brakeman	1
Teamster	4	Currier	1	Butcher	2
<i>Burglary</i>	1	Fruit-seller	1	Harness-maker	1
None	1	Furniture-maker,	1	Iron-worker	1
<i>Carrying concealed weapons</i>	1	Furniture-packer,	1	Laborer	5
Stone-cutter	1	Furniture-polleher,	1	None	18
<i>Committing nul- lance</i>	1	Laborer	1	Not given	5
Laborer	1			Sailor	1
				Shoemaker	2

TABLE IV. — *Continued.*

OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
<i>False pretences</i>	19	Laborer	1	Barber	8
Baker	1	Weaver	1	Bartender	4
Carpenter	1			Bedmaker	1
Clerk	1	<i>Idle and disorderly persons</i>	154	Blacksmith	6
Commercial traveller	1	Advertising agent	1	Boiler-maker	3
Gardeboer	1	Barber	2	Book-agent	1
Hack-driver	1	Boiler-maker	1	Bookbinder	1
Laborer	4	Carriage-driver	1	Book-keeper	1
Machioist	1	Carriage-painter	1	Bootblack	1
Merchant	1	Clerk	2	Bootmaker	3
Not given	1	Cloth-sponger	1	Boxmaker	1
Office-boy	1	Cobbler	1	Bracket-maker	1
Painter	1	Corice-maker	1	Brakeman	1
Peddler	2	Corset-maker, <i>f.</i>	1	Brass-polisher	1
Saleaman	1	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	22	Brass-worker	1
Teamster	1	Fisherman	1	Bricklayer	3
		Hackman	1	Bundle-boy	1
<i>Forgery</i>	7	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	4	Butcher	2
Barrel-maker	1	Hostler	3	Cabinet-maker	4
Clerk	2	Laborer	10	Carder	1
Loafer	1	Loafer	2	Carpenter	10
None	2	Mattress-maker	1	Cashier	1
Saleaman	1	Milkman	1	Cattle-driver	2
		Nooe	20	Cattle-tender	1
<i>Fornication</i>	48	Nooe, <i>f.</i>	48	Chairmaker	2
Advertising agent	1	Not given	4	Charwoman, <i>f.</i>	1
Artiat	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	4	Clerk	27
Book-keeper	1	Painter	1	Coachman	2
Cook, <i>f.</i>	1	Plumber	1	Confectioner	3
Domestic, <i>f.</i>	12	Quarryman	1	Cook	4
Expressman	1	Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	2	Cook, <i>f.</i>	4
Farmer	1	Shoemaker	2	Cooper	4
Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	4	Slatar	1	Corset-maker, <i>f.</i>	1
Laborer	4	Stonemason	1	Cracker-packer	1
Machinist	2	Tailor, <i>f.</i>	1	Currier	5
None, <i>f.</i>	5	Teamster	5	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	52
Not given, <i>f.</i>	2	Tinsmith	1	Dreamaker, <i>f.</i>	2
Printer	1	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	3	Driver on horse-car	1
Sailor	1	Washerwoman, <i>f.</i>	1	Employed in shoe store	1
Saleaman	1	Watchman	1	Engineer	1
Tailor, <i>f.</i>	2			Errand-boy	5
Teamster	3	<i>Indecent exposure</i>	8	Expressman	1
Waiter	2	Gas-fitter	1	Fancy-goods dealer	1
Waiter, <i>f.</i>	2	Laborer	1	Farmer	1
Wood-sawyer	1	Machinist	1	Fisherman	4
		Mattress-maker	1	Fish-peddler	1
<i>Fraud</i>	8	None	2	Framemaker	1
Canvaaser	1	Sailor	1	Fresco-painter	1
Chairmaker, helper	1	Trunkmaker	1	Fruit-peddler	1
Clerk	1			Furniture-finisher	1
Manufacturer	1	<i>Indecent language,</i>	19	Furniture-polisher	1
Merchant	1	Brakeman	1	Furniture-varnish-er	1
None	1	Cigar-maker	1	Gardener	2
Not given	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1	Gas-fitter	2
Saleaman	1	Laborer	7	Gas-engraver	1
		Loafer	1	Glazier	2
<i>Gaming laws, violating</i>	45	None	1	Grainer	1
Barber	2	Not given, <i>f.</i>	4	Hack-driver	2
Clerk	2	Teamster	1	Harness-maker	1
Laborer	2	Trader	1	Harness-maker's apprentice	1
Laundryman	26			Hostler	10
None	8	<i>Keeping unlicensed dog</i>	8	Housekeeper	1
Not given	1	Baker	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	38
Peddler	2	Carpenter	1	Iron-founder	1
Teamster	1	Commercial traveller	1	Janitor	2
Wood and coal dealer	1	Engraver	1	Jeweller	1
		Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	2	Junk-gatherer	7
<i>House of ill-fame</i>	9	None	1	Laborer	197
Clairvoyant, <i>f.</i>	1	Oil-vender	1	Lamplighter	1
Farmer	1			Laundress, <i>f.</i>	1
Housekeeper	1	<i>Larceny</i>	1,115		
Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	4	Actress, <i>f.</i>	1		
		Baker	4		

TABLE IV. — Continued.

OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
Liquor-dealer	1	Machinist	1	Nightwalker, com-	126
Loafer	8	Milliner, <i>f.</i>	1	mon	
Loogshoreman	7	None, <i>f.</i>	9	Cloakmaker, <i>f.</i>	1
Machinist	8	Not given	4	Copyist, <i>f.</i>	1
Marble-worker	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	1	Corset-maker, <i>f.</i>	1
Mason	3	Plumber	1	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	29
Mechanic	2	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	1	Dressmaker, <i>f.</i>	5
Milk-dealer	3			Fur-sewer, <i>f.</i>	1
Mill-hand	3	<i>Malicious mischief,</i>	142	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	10
Milliner, <i>f.</i>	1	Actor	1	Landress, <i>f.</i>	1
Musician	1	Agent	1	Nooe	2
Newsboy	1	Artist	1	None, <i>f.</i>	42
Newsman	1	Barber	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	18
Newspaper mailer,	1	Blacksmith	2	Saleswoman, <i>f.</i>	1
None	213	Bottle	1	Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	5
None, <i>f.</i>	32	Butcher	1	Tailoress, <i>f.</i>	3
Not given	102	Caody-maker	1	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	3
Not given, <i>f.</i>	36	Carpenter	2	Washerwoman, <i>f.</i>	2
Oysterman	2	Clerk	4	Wood-painter, <i>f.</i>	1
Painter	17	Cook, <i>f.</i>	1		
Paper-cutter	1	Domestic, <i>f.</i>	2	<i>Obstructing or re-</i>	
Paper-dealer	1	Driver of a brew-		<i>sisting officer</i>	6
Paper-hanger	3	ery team	1	Cabinet-maker	1
Pattern-worker	1	Fruit-dealer	1	Farmer	1
Paver	2	Hostler	1	Laborer	2
Pawnbroker	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	5	Seaman	1
Peddler	9	Laborer	31	Teamster	1
Peddler, <i>f.</i>	1	Lather	1		
Piano-maker	1	Loafer	2	<i>Peddling</i>	4
Pipelayer	1	Longshoreman	1	Peddler	4
Plumber	5	Machinist	1		
Polisher	1	Marketman	1	<i>Perjury</i>	1
Porter	3	Morocco-dresser	1	Bartender	1
Press-feeder	1	None	36		
Printer	9	None, <i>f.</i>	4	<i>Polygamy</i>	4
Robemaker	2	Not given	8	None, <i>f.</i>	1
Sailor	25	Not given, <i>f.</i>	6	Painter	1
Salesman	5	Office-boy	1	Sailor	1
Saleswoman, <i>f.</i>	2	Oil-finisher	1	Teamster	1
Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	3	Paloter	1		
Schoolboy	1	Paper-hanger	1	<i>Profanity</i>	95
Schoolgirl, <i>f.</i>	2	Roofor	1	Carpenter	1
Servant, <i>f.</i>	10	Sailor	1	Clerk	5
Shoe-cutter	1	Saleswoman, <i>f.</i>	1	Contractor	1
Shoe-fitter	1	Schoolboy	7	File-cutter	1
Shoemaker	11	Shoemaker	1	Grocer	1
Soldier	1	Tailor	1	Hostler	1
Stair-builder	1	Teamster	4	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1
Stevadore	1	Undertaker	1	Laborer	40
Stone-cutter	3	Waiter	2	Laborer, <i>f.</i>	1
Store-boy	1	Wheelwright	1	Loafer	2
Student	1			Machinist	1
Tailor	1	<i>Malicious trespass</i>	32	Newshoy	1
Tailoress, <i>f.</i>	6	Bar-room loafer	1	None	7
Teamster	48	Clerk	1	None, <i>f.</i>	5
Telegraph opera-		Clerk, <i>f.</i>	1	Not given	7
tor	2	Farmer	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	3
Telephone work-		Laborer	2	Painter	1
man	1	None	5	Peddler	3
Timekeeper	1	None, <i>f.</i>	1	Plasterer	1
Tinsmith	2	Not given	13	Seaman	1
Trader	2	Ruuner	1	Teamster	8
Travelling agent	1	Sailor	3	Trader	1
Upholsterer	9	Schoolboy	1	Waiter	1
Waiter	11	Student	1	Washerwoman, <i>f.</i>	1
Washerwoman, <i>f.</i>	6	Teamster	1		
Wheelwright	2			<i>Rape.</i>	1
Wire-worker	1	<i>Man slaughter</i>	4	Horse-car driver,	1
Vinegar-maker	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1		
		Laborer	1	<i>Receiving stolen</i>	
		Laundress, <i>f.</i>	1	<i>goods.</i>	14
<i>Leviness.</i>	23	None	1	Bartender	1
Car-driver	1			Butcher	1
Caulker	1	<i>Neglect of child</i>	1	Errand-boy	1
Domestic, <i>f.</i>	1	Servant, <i>f.</i>	1	Laborer	5
Laborer	2				

TABLE IV. — *Concluded.*

OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	OFFENCES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
None	3	Machine-operator	1	Tramp	4
Not given	1	Newdealer	1	Vagrant	1
Storekeeper	1	None	17		
Teamster	1	Not given	1	<i>Violating game laws</i>	1
<i>Refusing to assist officer.</i>	2	Salesman	2	Laborer	1
Coachman	1	Saloon-keeper	2		
Machinist	1	Schoolboy	7	<i>Violating town or city by-laws</i>	276
<i>Rescue</i>	23	Shopkeeper	1	Advertising agent	1
Cigar-maker	1	Shopkeeper, <i>f.</i>	1	Barber	1
Clerk	1	Teamster	2	Bill-poster	1
Engineer	2	Trader	2	Book-keeper	1
Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1	<i>Tampering with witness</i>	1	Brass-finisher	1
Junk-dealer	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1	Butcher	1
Laborer	11	<i>Threats</i>	37	Candy-dealer	1
Lamp-lighter	1	Cigar-maker	1	Clerk	10
Law-student	1	Clerk	1	Coal-dealer	1
None	1	Currier	2	Cobbler	1
Nooe, <i>f.</i>	1	Gardener	1	Composition-roofer	1
Not given	1	Hardware-dealer	1	Contractor	2
Teamster	1	Laborer	15	Conveyancer	1
<i>Robbery</i>	18	Lather	1	Cooper	2
Brakeman	1	Longshoreman	1	Employed in printing office	1
Clerk	1	Machinist	2	Expressman	1
Hostler	1	None, <i>f.</i>	1	Farmer	2
Laborer	2	Not given	1	Filleher	2
None	5	Not given, <i>f.</i>	3	Hackman	2
Not given, <i>f.</i>	2	Seaman	2	Horse-car driver	1
Painter	1	Tailor	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1
Plumber	1	Tin-peddler	1	Junk-dealer	1
Pressman	1	Trader	1	Laborer	54
Printer	1	Waiter, <i>f.</i>	1	Liquor-dealer	1
Spring-bed maker	1	Watchman	1	Loafer	3
Stereotypor	1	<i>Truancy</i>	53	Lumper	1
<i>Runaway</i>	1	None	44	Mechanic	1
Not given	1	Not given	8	Merchant	6
<i>Selling tobacco without a license</i>	1	Schoolboy	1	Messenger	1
Peddler	1	<i>Unlawful appropriation</i>	4	Milkman	1
<i>Selling unwholesome provisions</i>	1	Laborer	2	Minor	4
Milk-vender	1	Teamster	2	Morocco-dresser	1
<i>Stubborn child</i>	11	<i>Vagabonds</i>	109	Newaman	1
None	3	Blacksmith	2	None	47
None, <i>f.</i>	3	Chair, cane-seater	1	None, <i>f.</i>	1
Not given	5	Domeatic, <i>f.</i>	1	Not given	49
<i>Sunday law, violating</i>	49	Farmer	3	Organ-grinder	3
Cabinet-maker	1	Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	1	Painter	2
Clerk	3	Laborer	8	Peddler	5
Engineer	1	Longshoreman	1	Printer	3
Factory operative	1	Machinist	2	Sailor	1
Fresco-painter	1	Minister	1	Schoolboy	13
Glassworker	1	None	44	Schoolgirl, <i>f.</i>	1
Grocer	1	None, <i>f.</i>	14	Shoemaker	1
Laborer	2	Not given	7	Silk-merchant	1
Liquor-dealer	1	Not given, <i>f.</i>	4	Tallow-chandler	1
		Painter	2	Teamster	26
		Paper-hanger	1	Telegraph foreman	1
		Peddler	1	Tobacco-factory employé	1
		Seaman	3	Trader	5
		Seamstress, <i>f.</i>	3	Wood and coal dealer	1
		Shoemaker	5	Wood-cutter	1
		Tailor	1		
		Tailoress, <i>f.</i>	1		

TABLE V. — Occupations and Drinking Habits of Criminals, with Sex.

[Females are designated by an "f."]

OCCUPATIONS.	Total Abatainera.	Moderate Drinkera.	Excessive Drinkera.	Not Answered.	Totals. Both Sexes.
Actor	-	2			2
Actress, f.	1	-			1
Advertising agent	1	2	-	-	3
Agent	1	3	1	1	6
Artist	-	2	2	-	2
Baggage-master	-	1	-	-	1
Baker	1	11	3	-	15
Barber	5	16	10	1	32
Barrel-maker	1	-	-	-	1
Bar-room loafer	-	1	-	-	1
Bartender	-	8	4	-	12
Bedmaker	-	1	-	-	1
Beer-bottler	-	-	1	-	1
Bellhanger	1	-	-	-	1
Bill-poster	-	2	-	-	2
Blacksmith	-	11	5	-	16
Boarding-house runner	-	1	-	-	1
Boatbuilder	-	3	-	-	3
Boiler-maker	1	3	8	-	12
Book-agent	-	1	-	1	2
Bookbinder	-	1	2	-	3
Book-keeper	2	1	1	-	4
Bootblack	2	1	1	-	4
Boot and shoe maker	5	23	22	-	50
Bottler	-	1	1	-	2
Boxmaker	2	2	-	-	4
Bracket-maker	1	-	-	-	1
Brakeman	-	7	2	-	9
Braas-worker	-	2	1	-	3
Brewer	-	2	-	-	2
Bricklayer and masoo	3	12	7	1	23
Bronzer	-	1	-	-	1
Bundle-boy	1	-	-	-	1
Butcher	2	10	6	-	18
Cabinet-maker	1	7	4	-	12
Candy-dealer	-	1	-	-	1
Candy-maker	1	-	-	-	1
Canvasser	-	-	1	-	1
Carpenter	4	19	18	-	41
Carriage-trimmer	-	1	-	-	1
Carver	-	-	1	-	1
Cashier	-	1	-	-	1
Cattle driver, tender, etc.	1	2	3	-	6
Caulker	-	1	-	-	1
Chair, cane-seatar	1	-	-	-	1
Chairmaker	-	3	-	-	3
Chairmaker, helpar	-	1	-	-	1
Chair-painter	1	-	-	-	1
Charwoman, f.	1	-	-	-	1
Cigar-dealer	-	1	-	-	1
Cigar-maker	-	2	1	1	4
Clairvoyant, f.	-	1	-	-	1
Clerk	32	55	14	1	102
Clark, f.	1	-	-	-	1
Cloakmaker, f.	-	-	1	-	1
Clog-dancer	-	1	-	-	1
Cloth-spongar	1	-	-	-	1
Coachman	2	2	2	-	6
Coal-dealer	2	-	-	-	2
Coal-heaver	1	-	-	-	1
Cobbler	-	1	1	-	2
Commercial traveller	1	-	-	1	2
Confectioner	-	2	5	-	7
Contractor	-	5	1	-	6
Cooveyancer	-	-	-	1	1
Cook	1	2	5	-	8
Cook, f.	1	3	3	-	7
Cooper	1	4	4	-	9
Copyist, f.	-	1	-	-	1
Cornice-maker	-	-	1	-	1

TABLE V. — *Continued.*

OCCUPATIONS.	Total Abstainers.	Moderate Drinkers.	Excessive Drinkers.	Not Answered.	Totals. Both Sexes.
Corset-maker, <i>f.</i>	1	2			3
Cracker-baker		1			1
Cracker-packer	-	2			2
Currier	5	4	4	1	14
Cutter	1	-	-	-	1
Domestic, <i>f.</i>	52	57	43	1	153
Dressmaker, <i>f.</i>	5	5	-	-	10
Driver, horse-car, etc.	2	5	-	-	7
Druggist	-	-	1	-	1
Dyer		-	1		1
Employed in fish store		1	-		1
Employed in forge works	-	1			1
Employed in junk shop	1	-			1
Employed in oil works	-	1			1
Employed in printing office	1	-			1
Employed in shoe store	1	-			1
Engineer	3	8	-		11
Engraver	-	2	1		3
Errand-boy	5	3			8
Expressman	5	7	-		12
Factory operative	3	4	2		9
Factory operative, <i>f.</i>	-	2	-		2
Fancy-goods dealer	-	1	-		1
Farmer	3	9	3		15
File-cutter	1	1	-		2
Finisher	1	5	-		6
Fireman	1	4	-		5
Fish-dealer	-	1	2		3
Fisherman	3	8	-		11
Fish-peddler	1	-	2		3
Foreman on horse-railroad	1	-	-		1
Frame-maker	-	1			1
Fresco-painter	-	2	-		2
Fruit-dealer	1	3	2		6
Furniture-maker	-	1	2		3
Furniture-packer	-	1	1		2
Furniture-polisher	1	2	-		3
Fur-sewer, <i>f.</i>	1	-	-		1
Gardener	-	1	3		4
Gas-fitter		3	1		4
Glass-engraver	-	-	1		1
Glassmaker	2	1	2		5
Glazier	-	3	1		4
Grainer		1	-		1
Grocer	-	4	2	1	7
Groom	4	-	-		4
Hack-driver	1	9	1		11
Hardware-dealer	1	-	-		1
Harness-maker, apprentice	1	-	-		1
Harness-maker	-	4	1		5
Hatter		1	1		2
Hod-carrier		-	1		1
Horse-dealer		6	-		6
Hostler	4	15	10		29
Hotel-keeper	1	-	-		1
Housekeeper	-	2	-		2
Housekeeper, <i>f.</i>	45	75	41	5	166
Insurance-agent	-	1	-		1
Iron-worker	1	4	3		8
Janitor	-	-	2		2
Jeweller	1	2	-		3
Jewelry-polisher	-	1	-		1
Jig-sawyer	1	-	-		1
Junk-dealer	-	3	3		6
Junk-gatherer	2	4	7		13
Laborer	92	486	376	15	969
Laborer, <i>f.</i>	1	-	2		3
Lamplighter	1	2	1		4
Lather	-	1	2		3
Landress, <i>f.</i>	1	1	3		5
Laundryman	26	-	-		26
Law-student		1	-		1
Ledgeman		-	1		1
Lighterman		-	1		1
Liquor-dealer	-	6	7		13
Liquor-dealer, <i>f.</i>		1			1

TABLE V. — *Continued.*

OCCUPATIONS.	Total Abstainers.	Moderate Drinkers.	Excessive Drinkers.	Not Answered.	Totals. Both Sexes.
Loafer	3	17	9		29
Locksmith	-	1	-		1
Longshoresman	1	11	9		21
Lumber-dealer	-	1	-		1
Lumper	1	1	-	-	2
Machinist	5	17	8	1	31
Manufacturer	1	1	-	-	2
Marble-worker	2	3	1		6
Marble-worker, <i>f.</i>	-	1	-		1
Marketman	1	2	1		4
Mattress-maker	1	-	1		2
Mechanic	2	4	-		6
Merchant	7	1	-		8
Messenger	-	1	-	-	1
Milk-dealer	2	1	-		3
Milkman	3	4	1		8
Miller	1	-	-		1
Millicer, <i>f.</i>	2	-	-		2
Minister	-	-	1		1
Morocco-worker	1	5	2		8
Moulder	-	3	2		5
Musician	1	1	-		2
Nailmaker	-	1	-	-	1
Newsboy	1	2	1	1	5
Newsdealer	2	1	-	-	3
Newspaper mailer	-	1	-	-	1
Night-watchman	-	-	1	-	1
None	349	167	136	4	656
None, <i>f.</i>	51	68	95	1	215
Not given	127	89	73	115	404
Not given, <i>f.</i>	30	49	68	45	192
Office-boy	-	2	-	-	2
Oil-finisher	-	1	-	-	1
Oil-vender	-	1	-	-	1
Organo-grinder	1	3	-	-	4
Organo-maker	1	-	-	-	1
Oysterman	-	2	-	-	2
Packer	1	1	-	-	2
Palmer	8	29	23		60
Paper-cutter	-	2	-	-	2
Paper-dealer	1	-	-	-	1
Paper-hanger	2	1	6	-	9
Pattern-worker	-	1	-	-	1
Paver	-	-	2	-	2
Pawnbroker	2	2	-	-	4
Peddler	19	35	20	4	78
Peddler, <i>f.</i>	-	1	1	-	2
Perfumer	1	-	-	-	1
Pisoc-maker	-	3	-	-	3
Pickle-preserver	-	1	-	-	1
Pipelaye	-	1	-	-	1
Plasterer	-	2	5	-	7
Plumber	3	9	3	-	15
Pocket-book manufacturer	1	-	-	-	1
Polisher	-	1	1	-	2
Porter	1	7	1	-	9
Press-feeder	-	1	-	-	1
Pressman	-	-	1	-	1
Provision-dealer	1	-	-	-	1
Printer	3	11	7	-	21
Quarryman	-	-	1	-	1
Rag-sorter, <i>f.</i>	-	1	-	-	1
Real-estate business	-	-	1	-	1
Rigger	-	3	-	-	3
Robemaker	2	-	-	-	2
Roofer	-	2	1	-	3
ROPemaker	1	2	1	-	4
Ruiner	-	1	-	-	1
Saddler	-	1	-	-	1
Safemaker	-	1	-	-	1
Sallmaker	-	1	1	-	2
Sallor	12	31	44	5	92
Salesman	1	8	3	-	12
Saleswoman, <i>f.</i>	3	1	-	-	4
Saloon-keeper	1	5	3	-	9

TABLE V. — *Concluded.*

OCCUPATIONS.	Total Abstainers.	Moderate Drinkers.	Excessive Drinkers.	Not Answered.	Totals. Both Sexes.
Schoolboy	35	1			36
Schoolgirl, f.	3	-			3
Sculptor	-	1			1
Seamstress, f.	10	3	1	-	14
Servant, f.	2	10	2	1	15
Shopkeeper	-	3	-		3 } 1 } 4
Shopkeeper, f.	-	1			1
Silk-merchant	1	-			1
Silver-plater		1	-		1
Sister		1	3		4
Soldier		-	-	1	1
Solicitor		-	1	-	1
Spring-bed maker	-	1	-		1
Stable-keeper	2	1	1	-	4
Stairbuilder	-	-	1		1
Steam-fitter	-	1	-		1
Stereotypier	-	1	-		1
Stevadore,	-	2	-		2
Stone-cutter	1	8	2		11
Stonemason	-	2			2
Store-boy	1		-		1
Stove-mounter	-	-	1		1
Street-musician	-	1	-		1
Student	10	1	-		11
Tailor	2	11	4		17
Tailoress, f.	3	8	5		16
Tallow-chandler	-	1	-		1
Tanner	-	1	-		1
Teamster	28	127	56		211
Telegraph operator	1	1	1		3
Telephone workman			-	1	1
Tile-lsyer	1	-			1
Timekeeper	-	1	-		1
Tinsmith	1	7	3		11
Tin-roofer		1	-		1
Tobacco-factory employé	-	1			1
Trackman	1	-	-		1
Trsder	2	20	3		25
Tramp	-	-	4		4
Travelling agent		1	-		1
Trunkmaker		2		1	3
Undertaker	-	2	-		2
Upholsterer	2	6	6		14
Vagrant		-	1		1
Varnisher	1	1			2
Vinegar-maker	-	1	-		1
Waiter	10	9	5		24 } 13 } 37
Wsiter, f.	4	5	4		13 }
Washerwoman, f.	-	9	5		14
Watchmaker	1	-	-		1
Watchman	2	-	2		4
Wheelwright	1	1	2		4
Whitewasher	-	1			1
Wire-worker	-	1			1
Wood and coal dealer	1	-	-	1	2
Wood-carrier		1	-		1
Wood-cntter		-	1	1	2
Wood-painter, f.	-		1		1
Wood-sawyer	1		-		1
Wood-tnrner	-		1		1
Aggregates } Males	935	1,606	1,056	160	3,757
Aggregates } Females	218	305	275	53	851
Totals	1,153	1,911	1,331	213	4,608

TABLE VI. — *Nativities of Criminals, with Sex and Age.* BORN IN MASSACHUSETTS.

	OFFENCES.	AGES.					
		15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
		M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1	Abortion	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Adultery	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Assault, or assault and battery	32	1	33	126	4	130
4	Assault, felonious	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Assault on officer	2	-	2	2	-	2
6	Assault with weapon	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Breaking and entering	27	-	27	23	-	23
8	Breaking glass	3	3	6	8	-	8
9	Common railer and brawler	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Concealing mortgaged or leased property	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	Cruelty	1	-	1	-	-	-
12	Disorderly house	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	Disturbing a meeting	1	-	1	3	-	3
14	Disturbing a school	1	-	1	-	-	-
15	Disturbing the peace	5	-	5	39	2	41
16	Embezzlement	1	-	1	2	-	2
17	Escape	3	-	3	-	-	-
18	Evading car fare	14	-	14	10	-	10
19	False pretences	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	Forgery	-	-	-	2	-	2
21	Fornication	-	-	-	2	2	4
22	Fraud	-	-	-	-	-	-
23	Gaming laws, violating	-	-	-	1	-	1
24	House of ill-fame	-	-	-	-	1	1
25	Idle and disorderly persons	1	-	1	19	7	26
26	Indecent exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	Indecent language	-	-	-	6	-	6
28	Keeping unlicensed dog	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	Larceny	110	9	119	147	11	158
30	Lewdness	-	3	3	1	1	2
31	Malicious mischief	27	-	27	24	-	24
32	Malicious trespass	13	1	14	3	-	8
33	Nightwalker, common	-	-	-	-	6	6
34	Obstructing or resisting officer	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	Perjury	-	-	-	-	-	-
36	Polygamy	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	Profanity	1	-	1	18	-	18
38	Receiving stolen goods	2	-	2	3	-	3
39	Refusing to assist officer	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	Rescue	-	-	-	2	-	2
41	Robbery	-	-	-	2	-	2
42	Runaway	-	-	-	1	-	1
43	Selling unwholesome provisions	-	-	-	1	-	1
44	Stubborn children	5	1	6	-	1	1
45	Sunday law, violating	22	-	22	6	-	6
46	Tbreats	-	-	-	1	-	1
47	Truancy	49	-	49	-	-	-
48	Unlawful appropriation	-	-	-	1	-	1
49	Vagabonds	-	-	-	2	-	2
50	Violating town or city by-laws	73	1	74	61	-	61
	Totals	393	19	412	521	35	556

BORN IN OTHER STATES.

51	Abduction	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	Adulterating milk	-	-	-	-	-	-
53	Adultery	-	-	-	-	-	-
54	Assault, or assault and battery	1	-	1	13	3	16
55	Assault on officer	-	-	-	1	-	1
56	Assault with weapon	-	-	-	-	-	-
57	Breaking and entering	3	-	3	5	-	5

TABLE VI. — *Nativities of Criminals, with Sex and Age.* BORN IN MASSACHUSETTS.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	2
4	2	6	-	-	-	4	2	6	4
349	38	385	1	-	1	508	41	549	3
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	4
5	-	5	-	-	-	9	-	9	5
7	-	7	-	-	-	7	-	7	6
25	-	25	-	-	-	75	-	75	7
9	1	10	-	-	-	20	4	24	8
-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2	9
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	10
29	-	29	-	-	-	30	-	30	11
2	7	9	-	-	-	2	7	9	12
1	-	1	-	-	-	5	-	5	13
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	14
34	6	40	-	-	-	78	8	86	15
13	1	14	-	-	-	16	1	17	16
-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3	17
4	-	4	-	-	-	28	-	28	18
11	-	11	-	-	-	11	-	11	19
3	-	3	-	-	-	5	-	5	20
7	7	14	-	-	-	9	9	18	21
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	22
10	-	10	-	-	-	11	-	11	23
1	3	4	-	-	-	1	4	5	24
23	25	48	-	-	-	43	32	75	25
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	26
6	-	6	-	-	-	12	-	12	27
2	1	3	-	-	-	2	1	3	28
242	40	282	-	-	-	499	60	559	29
3	3	6	-	-	-	4	7	11	30
36	3	39	-	-	-	87	3	90	31
2	-	2	-	-	-	23	1	24	32
-	30	30	-	-	-	-	38	36	33
4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4	34
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	35
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	36
34	1	35	-	-	-	53	1	54	37
1	-	1	-	-	-	6	-	6	38
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	39
12	-	12	-	-	-	14	-	14	40
4	-	4	-	-	-	6	-	6	41
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	42
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	43
1	-	1	-	-	-	6	2	8	44
2	-	2	-	-	-	30	-	30	45
5	1	6	-	-	-	6	1	7	46
-	-	-	-	-	-	49	-	49	47
2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3	48
13	3	16	-	-	-	15	3	18	49
54	-	54	-	-	-	188	1	189	50
974	172	1,146	1	-	1	1,889	226	2,115	

BORN IN OTHER STATES.

1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	51
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	52
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	53
121	15	136	-	-	-	135	18	153	54
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	55
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	56
8	-	8	-	-	-	16	-	16	57

TABLE VI. — BORN IN OTHER STATES — Concluded.

OFFENCES.	AGES.					
	15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1 Breaking glass			-			
2 Carrying concealed weapons			-			-
3 Contempt			-	1		1
4 Cruelty			-			-
5 Disorderly house	-		-			-
6 Disturbing a meeting	1		1			-
7 Disturbing the peace	1		1	1		1
8 Embezzlement			-	1		1
9 Evading car fare	-	-	-			-
10 False pretences			-			-
11 Fornication			-	1	3	4
12 Fraud			-			-
13 Gaming laws, violating			-			-
14 House of ill-fame			-			-
15 Idle and disorderly persons			-	3	3	6
16 Larceny	11	2	13	25	-	25
17 Lewdness		1	1			1
18 Malicious mischief	3	-	3	1	-	1
19 Malicious trespass	1		1		1	1
20 Nightwalker, common			-		7	7
21 Polygamy			-			-
22 Profanity			-			-
23 Rape		-	-			-
24 Receiving stolen goods			-			-
25 Rescue			-			-
26 Robbery			-	1	1	2
27 Stubborn children		1	1			-
28 Sunday law, violating		-	-			-
29 Threats			-			-
30 Truancy	2		2			-
31 Vagabonds			-	1		1
32 Violating town or city by-laws	1		1	2		2
Totals	24	4	28	56	18	74

BORN IN ENGLAND.

33 Assault, or assault and battery				7	1	8
34 Assault on officer				-	-	-
35 Breaking and entering				-		-
36 Breaking glass						-
37 Common railer and brawler						-
38 Cruelty	-	-	-			-
39 Disturbing the peace	1		1			-
40 Evading car fare	-	-	-			-
41 Fornication			-		1	1
42 House of ill-fame			-			-
43 Idle and disorderly persons	-		-		1	1
44 Larceny	3	-	3	4		4
45 Lewdness			-			-
46 Malicious mischief			-			-
47 Manslaughter			-			-
48 Nightwalker, common			-		1	1
49 Profanity			-			-
50 Refusing to assist officer			-			-
51 Tampering with witness			-			-
52 Threats	-		-			-
53 Vagabonds	1		1			-
54 Violating town or city by-laws	1		1			-
Totals	6		6	11	4	15

TABLE VI. — BORN IN OTHER STATES — Concluded.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
2		2				2		2	1
1		1				1		1	2
-		-				1		1	3
5	-	5				5	-	5	4
3	1	4				3	1	4	5
1	-	1				2	-	2	6
10	1	11				12	1	13	7
5	-	5				6	-	6	8
1		1				1		1	9
4		4				4		4	10
5	2	7	-			6	5	11	11
1	-	1				1	-	1	12
4		4	-			4		4	13
1		1	-			1	-	1	14
4	17	21	1		1	8	20	28	15
98	13	111	-		-	184	15	149	16
3	2	5				3	3	6	17
7	3	10		-		11	3	14	18
3	-	3		-		4	1	5	19
-	35	35				-	42	42	20
1	-	1				1	-	1	21
1	2	3				1	2	3	22
1	-	1				1	-	1	23
3		3				3		3	24
1	-	1	-			1	-	1	25
7	1	8		-		8	2	10	26
-	-	-				-	1	1	27
2		2				2	-	2	28
4		4				4		4	29
-	-	-				2	-	2	30
5	2	7				6	2	8	31
10	-	10				13	-	13	32
329	94	423	1		1	410	116	526	

BORN IN ENGLAND.

50	15	65				57	16	73	33
1	-	1				1	-	1	34
3		3				3		3	35
3		3				3		3	36
-	1	1				-	1	1	37
3	-	3				3	-	3	38
3	2	5				4	2	6	39
1		1				1	-	1	40
1		1				1	1	2	41
1	-	1				1	-	1	42
1	5	6				1	6	7	43
29	10	39				36	10	46	44
1	1	2	-		-	1	1	2	45
4	1	5	1		1	5	1	6	46
-	1	1	-		-	-	1	1	47
1	10	11				1	11	12	48
1	-	1				1	-	1	49
1		1				1		1	50
-	1	1				-	1	1	51
1		1	-		-	1	-	1	52
9	1	10	1		1	11	1	12	53
4	-	4	-		-	5	-	5	54
118	48	166	2		2	137	52	189	

TABLE VI.—BORN IN IRELAND.

OFFENCES.	AGES.					
	15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1 Adultery	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Assault, or assault and battery	-	-	-	14	1	15
3 Assault, felonious	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Assault on officer	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 Assault with weapon	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Breaking and entering	2	-	2	1	-	1
7 Breaking glass	-	-	-	1	-	1
8 Burglary	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 Committing nuisance	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 Common railer and brawler	-	-	-	-	-	-
11 Contempt	-	-	-	-	-	-
12 Cruelty	1	-	1	-	-	-
13 Disorderly house	-	-	-	-	-	-
14 Disturbing a meeting	-	-	-	-	-	-
15 Disturbing the peace	-	-	-	2	-	2
16 Embezzlement	-	-	-	1	-	1
17 Escape	-	-	-	-	-	-
18 Evading car fare	-	-	-	-	-	-
19 False pretences	-	-	-	-	-	-
20 Fornication	-	-	-	-	-	-
21 Fraud	-	-	-	-	-	-
22 House of ill-fame	-	-	-	-	-	-
23 Idle and disorderly persons	-	-	-	2	-	2
24 Indecent exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-
25 Indecent language	-	-	-	-	-	-
26 Keeping unlicensed dog	-	-	-	-	-	-
27 Larceny	5	-	5	10	1	11
28 Lewdness	-	-	-	-	-	-
29 Malicious mischief	1	-	1	1	-	1
30 Malicious trespass	1	-	1	-	-	-
31 Manslaughter	-	-	-	-	-	-
32 Neglect of child	-	-	-	-	-	-
33 Nightwalker, common	-	-	-	-	-	-
34 Peddling	-	-	-	-	-	-
35 Polygamy	-	-	-	-	-	-
36 Profanity	-	-	-	1	-	1
37 Receiving stolen goods	-	-	-	1	-	1
38 Rescue	-	-	-	-	-	-
39 Stubborn children	-	-	-	2	-	2
40 Sunday law, violating	-	-	-	-	-	-
41 Threats	-	-	-	-	-	-
42 Truancy	1	-	1	-	-	-
43 Unlawful appropriation	-	-	-	-	-	-
44 Vagabonds	-	-	-	-	-	-
45 Violating game laws	-	-	-	-	-	-
46 Violating town or city by-laws	3	-	3	2	-	2
Totals	14	-	14	38	2	40

BORN IN SCOTLAND.

47 Adultery	-	-	-	-	-	-
48 Assault, or assault and battery	-	-	-	-	-	-
49 Breaking glass	-	-	-	-	-	-
50 Disturbing the peace	-	-	-	-	-	-
51 Embezzlement	-	-	-	-	-	-
52 Fornication	-	-	-	-	-	-
53 Idle and disorderly persons	-	-	-	-	-	-
54 Larceny	1	-	1	2	-	2
55 Nightwalker, common	-	-	-	-	1	1
56 Receiving stolen goods	-	-	-	1	-	1
57 Sunday law, violating	-	-	-	1	-	1
58 Threats	-	-	-	-	-	-
59 Vagabonds	-	-	-	-	-	-
60 Violating town or city by-laws	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	1	-	1	4	1	5

TABLE VI. — BORN IN IRELAND.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	1
412	105	517	2	-	2	428	106	534	2
-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	1	3
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	4
5	-	5	-	-	-	5	-	5	5
7	2	9	-	-	-	10	2	12	6
6	1	7	-	-	-	7	1	8	7
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	8
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	9
-	8	8	-	-	-	-	8	8	10
1	1	2	-	-	-	1	1	2	11
19	-	19	-	-	-	20	-	20	12
2	6	8	-	-	-	2	6	8	13
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	14
39	46	85	1	2	3	42	48	90	15
3	2	5	-	-	-	4	2	6	16
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	17
4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4	18
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	19
3	7	10	-	-	-	3	7	10	20
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	21
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	22
8	14	22	-	-	-	10	14	24	23
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	24
1	6	7	-	-	-	1	6	7	25
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	26
119	73	192	5	4	9	139	78	217	27
1	1	2	-	-	-	1	1	2	28
10	11	21	1	-	1	13	11	24	29
1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2	30
2	1	3	-	-	-	2	1	3	31
-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	32
-	10	10	-	-	-	-	10	10	33
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	34
-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	35
26	7	33	-	-	-	27	7	34	36
3	-	3	-	-	-	4	-	4	37
4	2	6	-	-	-	4	2	6	38
-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	39
10	1	11	-	-	-	10	1	11	40
14	3	17	-	-	-	14	3	17	41
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	42
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	43
30	14	44	2	1	3	32	15	47	44
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	45
31	2	33	2	1	3	38	3	41	46
781	325	1,106	13	9	22	846	336	1,182	

BORN IN SCOTLAND.

-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	47
5	3	8	-	-	-	5	3	8	48
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	49
1	2	3	-	-	-	1	2	3	50
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	51
-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	52
-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	53
11	4	15	-	-	-	14	4	18	54
-	5	5	-	-	-	-	6	6	55
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	56
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	57
1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	58
2	-	2	-	-	2	4	-	4	59
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	60
24	17	41	2	-	2	31	18	49	

TABLE VI.—BORN IN WALES.

	OFFENCES.	AGES.					
		15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
		M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1	Assault, or assault and battery					-	
2	Vagabonds						
	Totals			-			

BORN IN CANADA.

3	Assault, or assault and battery	1	-	1	5		5
4	Assault on officer	-	-	-	-		-
5	Assault with weapon						-
6	Breaking and entering				2		2
7	Breaking glass				-		-
8	Concealing mortgaged or leased property						-
9	Cruelty				-		-
10	Disturbing a meeting				1		1
11	Disturbing the peace				-		-
12	Embezzlement						-
13	Evading car fare						-
14	False pretences				-		-
15	Forgery						-
16	Fornication						-
17	Fraud						-
18	House of ill-fame	-			-		-
19	Idle and disorderly persons					2	2
20	Indecent exposures				-		-
21	Larceny	1		1	8	7	15
22	Malicious mischief	-					-
23	Nightwalker, common					5	5
24	Obstructing or resisting officer						-
25	Polygamy						-
26	Profanity						-
27	Robbery						-
28	Threats						-
29	Vagabonds				1		1
30	Violating town or city by-laws				1		1
	Totals	2		2	18	14	32

BORN IN ITALY.

31	Assault, or assault and battery						-
32	Assault with weapon	-	-	-			-
33	Breaking and entering	1		1			-
34	Gaming laws, violating						-
35	Indecent exposure						-
36	Larceny	1		1	1		1
37	Rescue						-
38	Violating town or city by-laws						-
	Totals	2		2	1	-	1

BORN IN FRANCE.

39	Assault on officer	-	-		1		1
40	Embezzlement				-		-
41	Evading car fare						-
42	Forgery						-
43	Keeping unlicensed dog						-
44	Larceny				2		2
45	Nightwalker, common					1	1
	Totals				3	1	4

TABLE VI.—BORN IN WALES.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
2		2	1			2		2	1
2		2	1			2		2	2
4		4				4		4	

BORN IN CANADA.

41	6	47	1		1	48	6	54	3
-	1	1	-		-	-	1	1	4
1	-	1				1	-	1	5
1	-	1				3	-	3	6
1	1	2		-		1	1	2	7
-	1	1					1	1	8
1		1				1		1	9
-	-	2				1	-	1	10
1	-	1				1	2	2	11
1	-	1				1	-	1	12
1	-	1				1	-	1	13
1	-	1				1	-	1	14
1	-	1				1	-	1	15
-	3	3	1		-	1	3	4	16
1	-	1	-		-	1	-	1	17
-	1	1				-	1	1	18
4	10	14				4	12	16	19
2	-	2				2	-	2	20
31	19	50	-		-	40	26	66	21
3	1	4				3	1	4	22
1	11	12				1	16	17	23
1	-	1				1	-	1	24
1		1				1	-	1	25
1		1				1	-	1	26
1		1				1	-	1	27
1	-	1				1	-	1	28
8	1	9			-	9	1	10	29
1	-	1				2	-	2	30
105	57	162	2		2	127	71	198	

BORN IN ITALY.

10	1	11				10	1	11	31
3		3				3	-	3	32
1		1				2	-	2	33
3		3	1		1	4	-	4	34
1		1	-			1	-	1	35
6	1	7				8	1	9	36
1	-	1				1	-	1	37
3		3				3	-	3	38
28	2	30	1		1	32	2	34	

BORN IN FRANCE.

-		-				1		1	39
1	-	1				1		1	40
1	-	1				1		1	41
1	-	1				1	-	1	42
-	1	1				-	1	1	43
2	-	2				4	-	4	44
-	-	-				-	1	1	45
5	1	6	-		-	8	2	10	

TABLE VI.—BORN IN PORTUGAL.

OFFENCES.	AGES.					
	15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1 Assault, or assault and battery						-
2 Selling tobacco without a license						
Totals						

BORN IN GERMANY.

3 Adultery	-			-		-
4 Assault, or assault and battery				2		2
5 Assault, felonious				-		-
6 Disturbing the peace				-		-
7 Embezzlement	-			1		1
8 Fornication				-		-
9 Fraud						
10 Keeping unlicensed dog				-		-
11 Larceny				3		3
12 Malicious mischief				-		-
13 Peddling	-					
14 Profanity						
15 Rescue						
16 Robbery						
17 Sunday law, violating						
18 Threats						
19 Vagabonds						
20 Violating town or city by-laws						
Totals		-		6		6

BORN IN SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

21 Assault, or assault and battery						
22 Breaking and entering						
23 Breaking glass					-	-
24 Larceny				-		-
25 Sunday law, violating	-			1		1
26 Vagabonds				-		-
Totals				1	-	1

BORN IN OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

27 Assault, or assault and battery		-	-		-	-
Totals		-			-	

BORN IN OTHER FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

28 Assault, or assault and battery				-	1	1
29 Breaking glass					-	-
30 Enticing seamen to desert	-			-		-
31 Gaming laws, violating				1		1
32 Idle and disorderly persons				-		-
33 Larceny				1	1	2
34 Malicious mischief				-		-
35 Violating town or city by-laws				1		1
Totals				3	2	5

TABLE VI. — BORN IN PORTUGAL.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
2		2				2		2	1
1		1				1		1	2
3		3				3		3	

BORN IN GERMANY.

1	-	1				1	-	1	3
25	2	27				27	2	29	4
1	-	1				1	-	1	6
1	1	2				1	1	2	6
1	-	1				2	-	2	7
-	1	1				-	1	1	8
1	-	1	-		-	1	-	1	9
1	-	1	1		1	2	-	2	10
5	1	6				8	1	9	11
1	-	1				1	-	1	12
2	-	2	-			2	-	2	13
1	1	2				1	1	2	14
1	-	1				1		1	15
1	-	1				1		1	16
3		3		-	-	3		3	17
1		1	-		-	1		1	18
4		4	1	-	1	5		5	19
1		1	-		-	1	-	1	20
51	6	57	2		2	59	6	65	

BORN IN SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

4	1	5				4	1	5	21
2	-	2				2	-	2	22
1	-	1				1	-	1	23
1	1	2				1	1	2	24
-		-				1		1	25
2		2				2		2	26
10	2	12				11	2	13	

BORN IN OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

5	1	6				5	1	6	27
5	1	6		-		5	1	6	

BORN IN OTHER FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

12	-	12		-	-	12	1	13	28
1		1				1	-	1	29
1		1				1		1	30
25		25				26		26	31
1		1		-		1	-	1	32
7		7			-	8	1	9	33
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	34
-	-	-			-	1		1	35
48	-	48				51	2	53	

TABLE VI. — BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.

OFFENCES.	AGES.					
	15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
1 Adultery	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Assault, or assault and battery	3	-	3	3	-	3
3 Assault, felonious	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Assault on officer	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 Assault with weapon	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Breaking and entering	-	-	1	1	-	1
7 Breaking glass	-	1	1	1	-	1
8 Cruelty	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 Disorderly house	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 Disturbing the peace	-	-	-	2	1	3
11 Embezzlement	-	-	-	-	-	-
12 Fornication	-	-	-	-	-	-
13 Idle and disorderly persons	-	-	-	1	-	1
14 Indecent exposure	-	-	-	-	-	-
15 Keeping unlicensed dog	-	-	-	-	-	-
16 Larceny	-	-	-	3	-	3
17 Lewdness	-	-	-	-	-	-
18 Malicious mischief	-	-	-	-	-	-
19 Malicious trespass	-	-	-	-	-	-
20 Nightwalker, common	-	-	-	-	-	-
21 Obstructing or resisting officer	-	-	-	-	-	-
22 Sunday law, violating	-	-	-	-	-	-
23 Threats	-	-	-	-	-	-
24 Truancy	1	-	1	-	-	-
25 Vagrants	-	-	-	-	-	-
26 Violating town or city by-laws	10	-	10	5	-	5
Totals	14	1	15	16	1	17

RECAPITULATION.

BIRTHPLACE.	AGES.					
	15 and under.			16 to 20, inclusive.		
	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.
27 Massachusetts	393	19	412	521	35	556
28 Other States	24	4	28	66	18	74
29 England	6	-	6	11	4	15
30 Ireland	14	-	14	38	2	40
31 Scotland	1	-	1	4	1	5
32 Wales	-	-	-	-	-	-
33 Canada	2	-	2	18	14	32
34 Italy	2	-	2	1	-	1
35 France	-	-	-	3	1	4
36 Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-
37 Germany	-	-	-	6	-	6
38 Sweden and Norway	-	-	-	1	-	1
39 Other British Possessions	-	-	-	-	-	-
40 Other foreign countries	-	-	-	3	2	5
41 Birthplace unknown	14	1	16	16	1	17
Totals	456	24	480	678	78	756

INTEMPERANCE AND CRIME.

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TABLE VI. — BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	1
49	4	53		-	-	55	4	59	2
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	3
1		1			-	1	-	1	4
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	5
8		8	-		-	9	-	9	6
1	-	1			-	2	1	3	7
2	-	2			-	2	-	2	8
-	1	1			-	-	1	1	9
8	2	10			-	10	3	13	10
3	-	3			-	3	-	3	11
-	1	1	-		-	-	1	1	12
-	1	1			-	1	1	2	13
1		1			-	1	-	1	14
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	15
22	2	24			-	25	2	27	18
1	1	2			-	1	1	2	17
2	-	2			-	2	-	2	18
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	19
-	2	2			-	-	2	2	20
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	21
1	-	1			-	1	-	1	22
4	1	5			-	4	1	5	23
-	-	-			-	1	-	1	24
1		1			-	1	-	1	25
4		4	-		-	19	-	19	26
114	15	129				144	17	161	

RECAPITULATION.

AGES.						Males.	Females.	Totals.	
21 to 60, inclusive.			Above 60.						
M.	F.	Both Sexes.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.				
974	172	1,146	1		1	1,889	226	2,115	27
329	94	423	1		1	410	116	526	28
118	48	166	2	-	2	137	52	189	29
781	325	1,106	13	9	22	846	336	1,182	30
24	17	41	2		2	31	18	49	31
4	-	4	-		-	4	-	4	32
105	57	162	2	-	2	127	71	198	33
28	2	30	1	-	1	32	2	34	34
5	1	6	-	-	-	8	2	10	35
3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	36
51	6	57	2		2	59	6	65	37
10	2	12				11	2	13	38
5	1	6				5	1	6	39
48	-	48	-			51	2	53	40
114	15	129	-			144	17	161	41
2,599	740	3,339	24	9	33	3,757	851	4,608	

TABLE VII. — *Ages of Criminals, with Sex.*

YEARS.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	YEARS.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.
6	1		1	40	127	57	184
7	2		2	41	40	10	50
8	8		8	42	43	15	58
9	19	-	19	43	33	4	37
10	33	1	34	44	16	6	22
11	56	3	59	45	81	28	109
12	69	9	78	46	18	2	20
13	91	8	99	47	22	8	30
14	86	2	88	48	27	11	38
15	85	1	86	49	15	4	19
16	84	5	89	50	56	22	78
17	86	8	94	51	11	3	14
18	153	16	169	52	15	2	17
19	199	29	228	53	8	2	10
20	166	23	189	54	8	3	9
21	161	37	198	55	19	6	25
22	164	29	193	56	10	2	12
23	143	38	181	57	1	1	2
24	119	25	144	58	8	3	11
25	115	33	148	59	7	1	8
26	115	34	149	60	23	10	33
27	117	31	148	61	3	2	5
28	132	18	150	62	5	1	6
29	93	39	132	64	1	1	2
30	137	47	184	65	8	1	9
31	52	20	72	66	1	-	1
32	112	26	138	67	4	1	5
33	54	5	59	69	-	1	1
34	41	16	57	70	2	2	4
35	132	42	174	72	1	-	1
36	84	25	109	79	1	-	1
37	67	19	76	Unknown,	79	14	93
38	60	21	81				
39	40	18	58	Totals .	3,757	851	4,608

TABLE VIII. — *Sentences, with Sex; Native or Foreign Born.*

OFFENCES AND SENTENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Abduction</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>On file, etc.</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Abortion</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sentence withheld,</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adulterating milk</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Fines</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Adultery</i>	7	2	9	2	1	3	1	-	1	10	3	13
<i>Imprisonment</i>	7	2	9	2	1	3	1	-	1	10	3	13
<i>Assault and battery,</i>	643	59	702	600	137	737	55	4	69	1,298	200	1,498
<i>Imprisonment</i>	246	21	267	223	33	256	13	1	14	482	55	537
<i>Fines</i>	360	31	391	350	91	441	34	3	37	744	125	869
<i>Probation</i>	21	3	24	12	8	20	2	-	2	56	11	46
<i>On file, etc.</i>	13	3	18	12	4	16	4	-	4	29	7	36
<i>Sentence withheld,</i>	3	1	4	3	1	4	2	-	2	8	2	10
<i>Assault, felonious</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	1	-	1	4	1	5
<i>Imprisonment</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Probation</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Sentence withheld,</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1

TABLE VIII.—Continued.

OFFENCES AND SENTENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Assault on officer</i>	10	-	10	5	1	6	1	-	1	16	1	17
Imprisonment	3	-	3	4	-	4	1	-	1	8	-	8
Fines	5	-	5	1	-	1	-	-	-	6	-	6
On file, etc.	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Assault with weapon,</i>	9	-	9	9	-	9	1	-	1	19	-	19
Imprisonment	5	-	5	6	-	6	1	-	1	12	-	12
Fines	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
On file, etc.	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
Sentence withheld,	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Breaking and enter-</i>	91	-	91	20	2	22	9	-	9	120	2	122
Imprisonment	38	-	38	10	1	11	8	-	8	56	1	57
Fines	3	-	3	-	1	1	-	-	-	3	1	4
Probation	47	-	47	6	-	6	1	-	1	54	-	54
On file, etc.	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Sentence withheld,	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
<i>Breaking glass</i>	22	4	26	14	2	16	2	1	3	38	7	45
Imprisonment	6	-	6	6	1	7	1	-	1	13	1	14
Fines	12	4	16	7	1	8	1	1	2	20	6	26
Probation	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
On file, etc.	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Burglary</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Carrying concealed</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Committing nu-</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
sance	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Common railer and</i>	-	1	1	-	10	10	-	-	-	-	11	11
brawler	-	1	1	-	4	4	-	-	-	-	5	5
Imprisonment	-	1	1	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
Fines	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
Probation	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
On file, etc.	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
<i>Concealing mort-</i>	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
gaged or leased	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
property	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sentence withheld,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Contempt</i>	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
Fines	1	-	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	2	1	3
<i>Cruelty</i>	35	-	35	24	-	24	2	-	2	61	-	61
Imprisonment	5	-	5	1	-	1	1	-	1	7	-	7
Fines	27	-	27	21	-	21	1	-	1	49	-	49
On file, etc.	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sentence withheld,	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Disorderly house</i>	5	8	13	2	6	8	-	1	1	7	15	22
Imprisonment	4	6	10	2	5	7	-	-	-	6	11	17
Fines	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	1	1	1	2	3
Probation	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
<i>Disturbing a meet-</i>	7	-	7	2	-	2	-	-	-	9	-	9
ing	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Imprisonment	5	-	5	1	-	1	-	-	-	6	-	6
Fines	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Probatioo	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Disturbing a school,</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1

TABLE VIII. — *Continued.*

OFFENCES AND SENTENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Disturbing the peace,</i>	90	9	99	48	55	103	10	3	13	148	67	215
Imprisonment . . .	17	6	23	15	17	32	1	-	1	33	23	56
Fines . . .	67	2	69	30	32	62	9	1	10	106	35	141
Probation . . .	6	1	7	2	4	6	-	2	2	8	7	15
On file, etc. . .	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
Sentences withheld,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Embezzlement . . .</i>	22	1	23	9	2	11	3	-	3	34	3	37
Imprisonment . . .	12	1	13	4	2	6	-	-	-	16	3	19
Fines . . .	3	-	3	2	-	2	1	-	1	6	-	6
Probation . . .	5	-	5	2	-	2	-	-	-	7	-	7
On file, etc. . .	1	-	1	1	-	1	2	-	2	4	-	4
Sentence withheld,	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Enticing seamen to desert</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines . . .	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Escape . . .</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
Imprisonment . . .	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Evading car fare</i>	29	-	29	7	-	7	-	-	-	36	-	36
Imprisonment . . .	2	-	2	4	-	4	-	-	-	6	-	6
Fines . . .	11	-	11	3	-	3	-	-	-	14	-	14
Probation . . .	16	-	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	-	16
<i>False pretences</i>	15	-	15	4	-	4	-	-	-	19	-	19
Imprisonment . . .	5	-	5	3	-	3	-	-	-	8	-	8
Fines . . .	5	-	5	1	-	1	-	-	-	6	-	6
Probation . . .	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
On file, etc. . .	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
<i>Forgery . . .</i>	6	-	6	2	-	2	-	-	-	7	-	7
Imprisonment . . .	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Probation . . .	4	-	4	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	-	5
<i>Fornication . . .</i>	15	13	28	5	14	19	-	1	1	20	28	48
Imprisonment . . .	8	10	18	5	14	19	-	1	1	13	25	38
Fines . . .	6	3	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	3	9
Probation . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Fraud . . .</i>	4	-	4	4	-	4	-	-	-	8	-	8
Imprisonment . . .	3	-	3	2	-	2	-	-	-	5	-	5
Fines . . .	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	3
<i>Gaming laws, violating</i>	15	-	15	30	-	30	-	-	-	45	-	45
Imprisonment . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines . . .	14	-	14	30	-	30	-	-	-	44	-	44
<i>House of ill-fame . . .</i>	2	4	6	2	1	3	-	-	-	4	5	9
Imprisonment . . .	1	1	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	1	3
Fines . . .	-	3	3	1	1	2	-	-	-	1	4	5
Probation . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Idle and disorderly persons</i>	51	52	103	16	33	49	1	1	2	68	86	154
Imprisonment . . .	38	47	85	13	31	44	-	1	1	51	79	130
Fines . . .	9	-	9	2	-	2	1	-	1	12	-	12
Probation . . .	4	5	9	1	1	2	-	-	-	5	6	11
Sentences withheld,	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Indecent exposure . . .</i>	3	-	3	4	-	4	1	-	1	8	-	8
Imprisonment . . .	2	-	2	4	-	4	-	-	-	6	-	6
Fines . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	2	-	2
<i>Indecent language . . .</i>	12	-	12	1	6	7	-	-	-	18	6	19
Imprisonment . . .	1	-	1	-	2	2	-	-	-	1	2	3
Fines . . .	11	-	11	1	3	4	-	-	-	12	3	15
On file, etc. . .	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1

TABLE VIII.—Continued.

OFFENCES AND SENTENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Keeping unlicensed dog</i>	2	1	3	3	1	4	1	-	1	6	2	8
Fines	2	1	3	2	1	3	1	-	1	5	2	7
Sentence withheld,	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Larceny</i>	634	77	711	260	121	381	22	1	23	916	199	1,115
Imprisonment	388	33	421	194	87	281	18	-	18	600	120	720
Fines	113	21	139	40	14	54	4	-	4	162	35	197
Probation	118	19	137	20	18	38	-	1	1	138	38	176
On file, etc.	8	3	11	6	-	6	-	-	-	14	3	17
Sentence withheld,	2	1	3	-	2	2	-	-	-	2	3	5
<i>Lewdness</i>	7	10	17	2	2	4	1	1	2	10	13	23
Imprisonment	3	9	12	2	2	4	1	-	1	6	11	17
Fines	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Probation	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	2
On file, etc.	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Malicious mischief,</i>	98	6	104	23	13	36	2	-	2	123	19	142
Imprisonment	30	4	34	15	7	22	1	-	1	46	11	57
Fines	55	2	57	8	5	13	1	-	1	64	7	71
Probation	12	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	-	12
On file, etc.	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Malicious trespass.</i>	26	2	28	3	-	3	1	-	1	30	2	32
Imprisonment	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	2	-	2
Fines	24	1	25	3	-	3	-	-	-	27	1	28
On file, etc.	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
<i>Manlaughter.</i>	-	-	-	2	2	4	-	-	-	2	2	4
Imprisonment	-	-	-	2	2	4	-	-	-	2	2	4
<i>Neglect of child</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Probation	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Nightwalker, com-</i>	-	80	80	2	42	44	-	2	2	2	124	126
mon	-	56	56	2	35	37	-	2	2	2	93	95
Imprisonment	-	22	22	-	7	7	-	-	-	-	29	29
Probation	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
On file, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Obstructing or re-</i>	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
sisting officer	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
Fines	4	-	4	1	-	1	1	-	1	6	-	6
<i>Peddling.</i>	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4
Fines	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Perjury.</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Polygamy.</i>	2	-	2	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	1	4
Imprisonment	2	-	2	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	1	4
<i>Profanity.</i>	51	3	54	33	8	41	-	-	-	84	11	95
Imprisonment	9	-	9	4	3	7	-	-	-	13	3	16
Fines	42	3	45	29	5	34	-	-	-	71	8	79
<i>Rape.</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Receiving stolen</i>	9	-	9	5	-	5	-	-	-	14	-	14
goods	4	-	4	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	-	5
Imprisonment	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Fines	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
Probation	2	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4
On file, etc.	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Refusing to assist</i>	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
officer	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Fines	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2

TABLE VIII. — *Concluded.*

OFFENCES AND SENTENCES.	NATIVE BORN.			FOREIGN BORN.			BIRTHPLACE UNKNOWN.			Males.	Females.	Totals.
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.			
<i>Rescue</i>	15	-	15	6	2	8	-	-	-	21	2	23
Imprisonment	6	-	6	1	-	1	-	-	-	7	-	7
Fines	9	-	9	5	2	7	-	-	-	14	2	16
<i>Robbery</i>	14	2	16	2	-	2	-	-	-	16	2	18
Imprisonment	11	2	13	1	-	1	-	-	-	12	2	14
On file, etc.	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
<i>Runaway</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling tobacco without a license.</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Imprisonment	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Selling unwholesome provisions,</i>	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Stubborn children.</i>	6	3	9	2	-	2	-	-	-	8	3	11
Imprisonment	6	3	9	2	-	2	-	-	-	8	3	11
<i>Sunday law, violating.</i>	32	-	32	15	1	16	1	-	1	48	1	49
Fines	21	-	21	15	1	16	1	-	1	37	1	38
Probation	10	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	10
On file, etc.	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Tampering with witness.</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
Fines	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Threats</i>	9	1	10	19	3	22	4	1	5	32	5	37
Imprisonment	5	-	5	7	1	8	3	-	3	15	1	16
Fines	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
On file, etc.	4	1	5	12	1	13	-	1	1	16	3	19
Sentences withheld,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
<i>Truancy</i>	51	-	51	1	-	1	1	-	1	53	-	53
Imprisonment	35	-	35	1	-	1	1	-	1	37	-	37
Probation	16	-	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	-	16
<i>Unlawful appropriation.</i>	3	-	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	4
Imprisonment	2	-	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	3
Fines	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Vagabonds</i>	20	5	25	66	17	83	1	-	1	87	22	109
Imprisonment	20	5	25	65	17	82	1	-	1	86	22	108
Probation	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Violating game laws,</i>	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Fines	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Violating town or city by-laws.</i>	201	1	202	52	3	55	19	-	19	272	4	276
Imprisonment	15	-	15	4	1	5	1	-	1	20	1	21
Fines	163	1	164	42	2	44	15	-	15	220	3	223
Probation	18	-	18	2	-	2	3	-	3	23	-	23
On file, etc.	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2
Sentence withheld,	4	-	4	3	-	3	-	-	-	7	-	7
AGGREGATES	2,294	344	2,638	1,322	491	1,813	141	16	157	3,757	851	4,608
Imprisonment	952	207	1,159	613	268	881	54	5	59	1,619	480	2,099
Fines	992	72	1,064	608	166	774	71	6	77	1,671	244	1,915
Probation	287	52	339	50	41	91	6	4	10	343	97	440
On file, etc.	47	11	58	38	12	50	6	1	7	91	24	115
Sentence withheld,	16	2	18	13	4	17	4	-	4	33	6	39

TABLE IX. — Sentences; Duration of Imprisonment; Amount of Fine, etc., with Sex.

CLASSIFICATION.	Males.	Fe- males.	Both Sexes.	CLASSIFICATION.	Males.	Fe- males.	Both Sexes.
<i>Imprisonment.</i>				<i>Fines.</i>			
5 days	5		5	Costs	57	8	63
10 days	4		4	1 cent	65	8	63
30 days	1	-	1	25 cents	1	-	1
60 days	1	-	1	50 cents	1	1	2
90 days	-	3	3	\$1 00	124	21	145
1 month	18	-	18	2 00	107	16	123
2 months	72	7	79	3 00	185	27	212
3 months	156	25	181	4 00	44	3	47
4 months	72	108	180	5 00	610	70	580
5 months	8	2	8	6 00	51	8	59
6 months	220	59	279	7 00	27	8	33
8 months	13	4	17	8 00	21	6	27
9 months	15	2	17	9 00	1	-	1
10 months	11	-	11	10 00	313	38	349
11 months	1	-	1	12 00	9	1	10
12 months	93	67	160	13 00	1	-	1
14 months	1	-	1	14 00	2	-	2
16 months	1	-	1	15 00	69	10	79
18 months	14	4	18	17 00	2	-	2
2 years	61	38	99	18 00	1	1	2
2½ years	1	-	1	20 00	44	10	54
3 years	36	2	38	22 00	1	-	1
3½ years	6	-	6	25 00	17	6	22
4 years	8	-	8	30 00	15	2	17
5 years	9	1	10	33 00	1	-	1
6 years	2	-	2	40 00	1	-	1
7 years	2	-	2	50 00	7	2	9
10 years	1	-	1	100 00	1	2	3
16 years	1	-	1				
Non-payment of fine	710	146	856	Totals	1,668	241	1,909
During minority	24	1	25	<i>Recapitulation.</i>			
Term of imprison- ment not given	26	8	34	Imprisonment	1,591	477	2,068
				Fines	1,868	241	1,909
Totals	1,591	477	2,068	Probation	348	100	448
				Sundry disposi- tions	150	33	183
				Totals	3,757	851	4,608

7
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FOR

PERSONAL INJURIES TO THEIR EMPLOYEES.

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OF LABOR, FOR 1883.]

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
CARROLL D. WRIGHT,
CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,

BY
CHARLES G. FALL,
OF THE SUFFOLK BAR.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY

FOR

**PERSONAL INJURIES TO THEIR
EMPLOYEES.**

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY FOR PERSONAL INJURIES TO THEIR EMPLOYEES.

The legislature at its last session directed an investigation of the subject of the liability of employers to workmen for injuries received while in the discharge of their duty, and a consideration of what changes, if any, are needed in the existing laws relative to such liability. A careful investigation of the law and facts which bear upon the subject has been made, and it has been fully considered in its various phases, with especial care, for the first time, so far as known, in this country. It is a subject which, in all its varied relationships, is by no means easy of comprehension. It is fruitful of embarrassments, and hedged about with difficulties, but at the same time of no inconsiderable consequence to the welfare of the community. During the nine years ending with 1881 there were, according to the "Railroad Gazette," 2,372 persons killed, and 9,387 injured, in the United States, on the railroads alone; and of these, 1,266 were killed and 1,478 injured on the railroads of this Commonwealth. A large majority of both the killed and injured were employees. Of those killed in this Commonwealth, 358 were of this class, while of those injured there were 653. During the year 1881 alone, 72 employees were killed and 128 injured in this Commonwealth. When one single branch of employment causes such an annual sacrifice as this, it seems to be time to consider whether something cannot be done to prevent it.

The subject can be easily stated and plainly illustrated. It can be embodied in the simple question: Ought employees to have the same right to recover damages for personal

injuries that all others have? Should the rule of law which forbids employees from recovering damages from their employers for injuries caused by the negligence of fellow employees and without their own contributory negligence be changed? Should they be allowed, for similar injuries from the same cause, the same right to damages from their employers that the rest of the world has? If, by way of illustration, an accident should occur on a railroad train, should the brakeman have the same right to sue for damages that a passenger has? If the brakeman's arm should be broken through the carelessness of a switchman or a gate-tender, should he possess the same right that a passenger would have for a similar injury? His injury would be the same, his sufferings would be as great. He would, no doubt, be quite as much in need of relief. Nor has he been more negligent, for both were unconscious victims.

To take another illustration. Suppose two persons had been injured in a mill or manufactory through the bursting of the boiler. One was a spinner or a shoe-cutter, the other was, perhaps, a boy who had come in to sell apples and candies. Ought the spinner or the shoe-cutter to have the same right to damages as the apple-boy? They, to be sure, were in the employ of the corporation, and were injured by the carelessness of a fellow-workman in the same employ. But the engineer who neglected his duties, and caused the accident, was as unknown to them as he was to the apple-boy. Not one of them, perhaps, had ever seen the engineer. They knew nothing of his habits or his knowledge of his business; much less could they tell whether he was careful or careless, skilled or unskilled, temperate or a drunkard. Ought they all to have alike the same right to recover damages from the owners of the mill or manufactory; or ought the apple-boy to have a right of action while the spinner and the shoe-cutter have none? Ought the boy to be paid — as well as money can pay — for his broken leg, while the spinner and the shoe-cutter can receive nothing by way of compensation? Ought they to be told, when they apply at the company's office, that nothing can be done for them, and the law affords them no redress, because they and

the engineer were fellow-laborers for the same employer? These are the questions which the resolution directs the Bureau to consider, collect facts concerning, and upon which to report.

CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE.

A majority of the injuries to employees as well as to others occur through their own carelessness, and where it is not entirely due to their own carelessness it is often due to it in part. The law of some of the States allows damages to be recovered where, of the two, the person injured is more careful than the person causing the injury. But the law of this Commonwealth is so strict as to demand that the person injured shall be in the exercise of due and reasonable care, and says that when he is in the least careless, and is not in the exercise of such care, he shall not recover damages. He is then said to have consented or contributed in some way to the accident by his own lack of ordinary care. And ordinary care is defined to be such care as men of ordinary sense, prudence and capacity would take under like circumstances. The law expects a man to have his wits always about him, and declares him guilty of contributory negligence whenever, by the exercise of ordinary care, he might have prevented the injury. And it makes men who are sitting in the calm atmosphere of a court room judges of whether at the time of the accident he did what a reasonably prudent man ought to have done under the exigencies of the moment. It will not allow a man to take the risk of an injury and compel some one else to pay for the consequences. He must have been prudent and careful while the one who caused the injury was reckless and careless. And this rule of law is applied by the courts with great strictness. The application puts out of consideration, in discussing this subject, all cases where the acts of the employees have in any way contributed to the injury.

RESPONDEAT SUPERIOR.

There is a well-known principle of law which makes every man liable for his own wrong-doing or breaches of contract whenever they have caused actual or legal damage. It is

founded in natural justice, and is as well recognized and as indisputable as Kepler's Law of Areas, or the axiom of geometry that a straight line is the shortest distance between two points. And not only is every man liable for his own torts and breaches of contract, but he is liable for those of his duly authorized agent, so long as the agent acts within the scope of his authority. He is liable, to quote the words of a celebrated authority, "for the torts, negligences and other malfeasances, or misfeasances, and omissions of duty of his servant, in the course of his employment, although the principal did not authorize it, or justify or participate in, or, indeed, know of such misconduct, or even if he forbade the acts or disapproved them." It is because he has acted through and by the hand of another. The agent has been another self, who has done the bidding of his master and been guided by his mind. The complications of life are so many and so varied, the operations of business are so complex and manifold, that most of the acts of many men are done by others for them. Corporations especially are only impersonalities, and all their acts are done by agents. But these acts are none the less the acts of their principals, none the less directed by them; and the principals are none the less responsible for them. Every hand in a cotton factory that spins a thread or tends a loom under the direction of the superintendent, is the superintendent's hand. Every hand that on a railroad drives a spike or moves a lever or a switch, according to his general orders, is the superintendent's hand. Every arm that in a quarry or a coal mine holds a drill or strikes a blow, is the arm of the superintendent, so long as it obeys his will. And the superintendent is but the mouth-piece of the corporation, or his principals. Were it otherwise, any one, by employing some one else to do his bidding, could escape the consequences of his own acts. When they were to his advantage he would reap the profits; when they were to his disadvantage he could disclaim them and escape the losses.

There are many acts which can be done better by the hand of another than by the hand of their author. A vast majority of the acts done and labor performed in the mechanic arts, and in general business, are better done by agents. How

many merchants are there who could sail their ships as well as the captains whom they hire? or make the goods they sell as well as the workmen they employ? How many builders could erect a staging or frame a house? How many foundrymen could make a mould or finish the casting? How many publishers of a newspaper could set up the type or write the editorials? How many a jeweller could cut diamonds as well as the workman he employs? And they are responsible financially, morally, legally, for the acts of their agents, whether good or bad, so long as they are done within the general scope of their authority. An express company wants, perhaps, a bundle delivered in a hurry, and, in driving through the streets, one of its employees knocks down and injures a foot-passenger who is crossing the street. A banker wants to be driven home at the close of the day's business, and his coachman carelessly runs into another gentleman's carriage. The owner of a quarry wants some stone blasted out, and one of his quarrymen, while tamping the gunpowder into the drill-hole, causes an explosion which injures a passer-by. These agents are generally able to do well what they are told to do — better able than their principals. They were acting within the scope of their agency, and simply doing what they were told to do. They were not wilfully doing wrong, and, perhaps, never before had been careless. They, and through them their principals, were bound to exercise due care always. It was a duty they owed the general public, whom they were bound to protect from harm. They have for once broken this obligation, violated the contract of safety which the law implies in every act of danger. Some one has been injured by their carelessness, and they, as well as their employers, are legally liable to make such compensation in money as a jury may award.

The reasons which are the basis of this principle of *respondeat superior*, making a master liable for the negligence of his servant, may be unjust and wrong, but it is too late to controvert them now. They are as firmly grounded as the foundations of justice itself. This principle is found in the law of England as early as the reign of Charles II. The first recorded reference to it is in the second volume of "Levintz's Reports," in the case of *Michael v. Allestree*. Black-

stone enunciates the principle on page 431 of the first volume of his Commentaries ; but our ancestors might have found it among the laws of ancient Rome. *Ita scripta est.* So it is written, and so it must remain, unless the legislature would overturn the corner-stone of the law of agency. "It has long been the established law of this country," said Lord Chelmsford, in a famous case which will be hereafter referred to, "that a master is liable to third persons for any injury or damage done through the negligence or unskilfulness of a servant acting in his master's employ. The reason of this is that every act which is done by a servant in the course of his duty is regarded as done by his master's orders, and consequently is the same as if it was the master's act, according to the maxim, *Qui facit per alium facit per se.*" And this general principle is known in the civil and common law by the title *respondeat superior* — the master must respond.

LIABILITY TO EMPLOYEES.

One of the outgrowths of this principle is the liability of employers for acts of their agents which have caused personal injury to their employees. The first recorded case of this kind that has been found occurred during the magistracy of Lord Holt, who was appointed Chief Justice of the King's Bench at the close of the English Revolution, by William and Mary ; who held this high office for twenty-one years, during three reigns, until his death, and twice refused to accept the great seal of the Lord Chancellor. The case appears in the first of Raymond, and is thus stated : "The servants of a carman ran over a boy in the streets, and maimed him by negligence, and an action was brought against the master ; and the plaintiff recovered. The servants of A, with his cart, ran against the cart of B, in which there was a pipe of wine, viz., sack, and overturned it, whereby the sack was spoiled and ran into the street : an action was brought against the master, and held good by Lord Holt, Chief Justice at Guildhall." If Lord Holt had sought for any other reason than his natural sense of justice as a basis for his judgment, he might have found a precedent in the rule of the Roman law which made the head of the household, the *pater-familias*, responsible for the negligence of

both his servant and child, and compelled him to make compensation for their negligence, or give up the wrong-doer, whether servant or child, to the person injured. Almost every principle of law has its roots in precedents which have been growing perhaps for centuries. The roots of some principles have been growing since the birth of society. The law of agency, which makes one person responsible for the authorized acts of another, is an outgrowth of the ancient relations of master and servant. In Greece, in Rome, in Judea even, the servant was the slave of his master, over whom the latter had, under some circumstances, the *ius vitæ et necis*; the power of life and death, as well as the power of sale. And the strictness with which the master controlled his servant's acts was the reason why he was held to so strict a legal responsibility.

FIRST EXCEPTION TO THE PRINCIPLE.

It may perhaps be safely said that there is no recorded exception to this principle before 1837. The case of *Priestly v. Fowler* * is the first variation from the principle which has been found. This was decided without any allusion to Lord Holt's decision. It was decided by Lord Abinger, who is better known as Sir James Scarlett, the ablest and most successful jury lawyer and verdict-getter in the annals of the English Bar, although in eloquence he was inferior to Lord Erskine. But, great as he was at the bar, like Erskine and some other celebrated advocates, he was not distinguished as a judge. The case is as follows: A butcher sent one of his men on a wagon which had been loaded by another employee, but loaded too heavily. The wagon broke down, and the man's thigh was broken. His Lordship decided that the butcher was not liable for the injury. The ground of the decision is not plain. It does not appear whether the wagon broke down because it was not in proper condition for the journey, or because it had been carelessly overloaded; and the opinion does not say whether the butcher is not liable because the law does not imply a contract of warranty as to the safe condition of the wagon, or because the law does not imply a contract to indemnify against the negligence of his servant.

* 3 M. & W. 1.

There are several instances loosely cited by way of analogy, and with the skill which advocates possess in suggesting analogies, several of which are quite as applicable to other relations as to the relation of master and servant.

It was at this period, which was one of development of patents and of mechanic arts, and of large textile factories, that railroads began to be projected. The principal railroads of England and America were in their infancy, and needed to be fostered and encouraged. Important legal questions were arising as to the liability of corporations, and old principles of law were for the first time applied to the relations of corporations towards their creditors and employees. It was almost the beginning of the centralization of large wealth and capital in great manufacturing and mechanical operations. No man was wise enough to foresee the development which was to take place, or the vast importance which might accrue to some judicial decision made to meet the exigencies of a single comparatively unimportant case. The first case, involving the rights of employees against their employers which arose in this Commonwealth, was *Farwell v. The Boston & Worcester Railroad*,* which was decided in 1842. It is this: An engine was thrown from the track and the engineer injured through the carelessness of a fellow employee in leaving the switch open. The engineer sued for damages. Charles G. Loring, a name still remembered at the Suffolk Bar, brought the suit, and contended that there was an implied stipulation in the contract of hiring between the railroad company and the engineer, "for the safety of the servant's employment, so far as the master can regulate the matter," — a contract that the railroad company would indemnify the engineer for the negligence and want of ordinary care of its employees. The only valuable authority which was cited at the argument against this contention was *Priestly v. Fowler*, which the plaintiff admitted would have been a controlling authority had the switchman and engineer been engaged in a similar occupation. Although they were at work for the same employer, their occupations were different, dissimilar, and in every way distinct. One tended a switch on the line of the road, the other drove a locomotive

* 4 Met. 49.

over the road from Boston to Worcester. Not only were their duties unlike ; they knew nothing of each other, nothing of each other's carefulness or personal habits. So far as any knowledge of each other or so far as being engaged in a common employment was concerned, they might as well have been employed in different cities, and by different men. The Court, however, in an elaborate opinion written by Judge Shaw, followed the English precedent. The grounds of the opinion — the *ratio decidendi* — will be alluded to hereafter. It is perhaps sufficient to say here, that the Chief Justice found it unnecessary, because of the plaintiff's admission, to consider this as a case where the principle known as *Respondent Superior* should apply. But he confined the chief ground of his opinion to this point, — that there was no “implied contract of indemnity arising out of the relation of master and servant. It would be an implied promise arising from the duty of the master, to be responsible to each person employed by him in the conduct of every branch of business where two or more persons are employed, to pay all damage occasioned by the negligence of every person employed in the same service. If such duty were established by law, like that of a common carrier, to stand to all losses of goods not caused by the act of God or of a public enemy, or that of an innkeeper to be responsible in like manner for the baggage of his guests, it would be a rule of frequent and familiar occurrence, and its existence and application, with all its qualifications and restrictions, would be settled by judicial precedent. But we are of opinion that no such rule has been established, and the authorities, so far as they go, are opposed to the principle.” He then cites his authorities, one of which is *Priestly v. Fowler*,* and the other *Murray v. The South Carolina Railroad Company*.† This case is the leading authority in favor of the new rule, and contains the ablest discussion of the subject to be found in any English or American report.‡ And because the injured and the in-

* 3 M. & W. 1.

† 1 McMullan, 385.

‡ This case was not published, so says an English text-book, till after *Bartonshill Coal Company v. McGuire* was decided, which was in 1858. But it seems this is an error ; for, by referring to a volume in the library of Mr. Sidney Bartlett, it appears that the 4th of Metcalf's Reports was published as early as November 9, 1843. And it is remarkable that so able an opinion, which outlined the whole theory that pervaded the English decisions, should not have been seen, or earlier referred to as a leading authority.

juring workman, in all this class of cases, work in common for the same employer, this rule, for lack of a more descriptive title, was soon called the doctrine of common employment.

The similar case of *Hayes v. The Western Railroad Corporation* * arose some years afterwards. Judge B. R. Curtis was counsel for the corporation, and Judge Fletcher, who had been counsel for the railroad in the earlier case, wrote an opinion sustaining the previous authority. The same question again arose in England in 1850, in the suit of *Hutchinson v. The York, Newcastle and Berwick Railway Company*. † Although *Priestly v. Fowler* was an earlier case, this is the leading English case, properly speaking, upon this subject. Here the question was likewise decided upon the ground that there was no implied contract of indemnity between employer and employee, but an implied contract to run the ordinary risks of the service. Baron Alderson says, in his judgment: "The difficulty is as to the principle applicable to the case of several servants employed by the same master, and injury resulting to one of them from the negligence of another. In such a case, however, we are of opinion that the master is not in general responsible when he has selected persons of competent care and skill." The reason for this rule is, he says, "They have both engaged in a common service, the duties of which impose a certain risk on each of them; and, in case of negligence on the part of the others, the party injured knows that the negligence is that of his fellow-servant, and not of his master;" which seems equivalent to saying that, after being injured, he knows who injured him. "He knew when he engaged in the service that he was exposed to the risk of injury, not only from his own want of skill and care, but also from the want of it on the part of his fellow-servant; and he must be supposed to have contracted on the terms that, as between himself and his master, he would run this risk." This is an implied contract, "a risk," he says, "which Hutchinson must be taken to have agreed to run when he entered into the defendant's service." And in a single sentence he then defines both the principle and the terms of the implied contract. "The principle is that a

* 3 Cush. 270.

† 5 Exch.

servant, when he engages to serve a master, undertakes, as between himself and his master, to run all the ordinary risks of the service; and this includes the risk of negligence on the part of a fellow-servant whenever he is acting in discharge of his duty as servant of him who is common master of both." Here is the gist of this whole controversy.

On the very same day Chief Baron Pollock delivered a judgment in the case of *Wigmore v. Jay*,* in which he affirmed the same principle without carrying it further, citing *Priestly v. Fowler*, which is the only authority cited in either of these judgments. The next year *Seymour v. Maddox*,† in the court of Queen's Bench, likewise affirmed the principle, and even went so far as to decide that the manager of a theatre was not liable for damages sustained by a singer from falling through a hole in the stage. *Skipp v. The Eastern Counties Railway* ‡ followed soon after, in which the "risks incident to the service" were defined and extended by the decision that an employer was not liable for an accident caused by keeping an insufficient number of men for the work, because there was no implied contract with his employees that he would employ men enough to do the work. Baron Parke says: "The defendants were not bound to keep twenty servants; they are to be judges of the number. They are, indeed, bound to see that their servants are persons of proper care and skill." And Baron Alderson says: § "The jury are not to be judges of the sufficiency of the number of servants a man keeps. The plaintiff stayed in this situation three months without having an under-guard to assist him, and without making any objection." "He goes into the service," says Baron Parke, "and willingly incurs the danger." In 1854 *Couch v. Steel* || was decided in the Queen's Bench, which is important because it carries this doctrine to the sea, and applies it to the relation of ship-owner and seaman. This case decides that a ship-owner who "so negligently fitted out and equipped his vessel that by reason thereof she was unseaworthy, and the plaintiff was thereby obliged to undergo unreasonable labor, and was

* 5 Ex. 354; 19 L. J. Ex. 300.

† 16 Q. B. 326; 20 L. J. Q. B. 327.

‡ 9 Ex. 223; 23 L. J. Ex. 23.

§ *Vide* 3 Cush. 27 *ante*.

|| 3 El. & Bl. 402; 18 Jur. 575; 23 L. J. Q. B. 121.

injured in his health," is not liable in damages. Lord Chief Justice Campbell adopts the above principle, and says, "It seems to me that there is no contract or duty disclosed in this count for a breach of which the defendant is liable," citing *Priestly v. Fowler* in support of his judgment. And Coleridge, J., added, "The plaintiff must rely on a general principle that in all such cases there is an implied contract that the vessel is seaworthy." The law of this case has been changed by a statute which compels a ship-owner to suitably fit out his ship. Seamen are wards of the State, and were taken especially under its protection, because they were notoriously careless of their lives and property; like children, easily imposed upon; and were, especially while at sea, very much at the mercy of ship-owners and their captains, and almost never in a position to make a contract upon equal terms with their employers.

It was during the next year, 1854, that *Brydon v. Stewart** was decided in the House of Lords, which laid down the rule that a master who employs workmen in occupations attended with danger is obliged to exercise due care to have the tackle and machinery he uses in a safe and suitable condition, so that his workmen shall not incur unnecessary risks. This principle was made a part of the law of this Commonwealth by the leading case on this whole subject, *Farwell v. Boston & Worcester Railroad Corporation*,† the case before cited, in which Judge Shaw, with the invaluable assistance of Mr. Charles G. Loring and Judge Merrick, took a broad and comprehensive grasp of the whole question of employers' liability for injuries to workmen; and this, too, where it was a case almost of first impression. In *Gilman v. Eastern Railroad Corporation*,‡ Judge Gray, in a single sentence, affirms the rule. It is thus seen that as manufactures and mechanic arts are developing, as workmen are being employed in a variety of new enterprises and untried occupations, it is just and necessary that the law should, for their protection, impose upon employers additional obligations of care and circumspection. The currents of discussion in both countries run in the same direction. Any decision rendered by the English courts always receives consideration in this country, although

* 2 Macq. 30.

† 4 Met. 49.

‡ 10 Allen, 233, 238.

the compliment has not until recently, with few exceptions, been freely reciprocated.

In 1858 two important cases were decided by the House of Lords. They were the cases of the *Bartonshill Coal Company v. Reid*,* and the *Bartonshill Coal Company v. McGuire*. They were Scotch appeals, brought before the House of Lords in 1856, and under consideration for two years. Both of them were brought upon similar facts, — injuries caused to miners in hoisting them from a coal-pit, by the negligence of a fellow-workman in not stopping the engineer until he had driven the cage in which they were hoisted against the scaffolding with sufficient force to throw them out. Both overruled the unanimous judgments of the Scotch judges in favor of the plaintiffs, rendered on the ground that an employer is liable to his employee for the negligence of his authorized agent, though a fellow employee. The first affirms the doctrine already laid down, — that an employer is not liable to his employee for an injury caused by the negligence of a fellow employee. It also recognizes the rule already specified, which was first laid down in *Brydon v. Stewart*,† that an employer who employs workmen in dangerous occupations is bound to exercise due care in having his tackle and machinery, his plant, in a safe and proper condition, in order that his workmen may not be exposed to unnecessary risks. And, thirdly, it seems to recognize the rule which had been already laid down in another case, *Tarrant v. Webb*,‡ as well as by the dicta of Baron Alderson in *Skipp v. The Eastern Counties Railway Company*,§ that it is the duty of the employer to exercise due care in the selection of his employees, and see that they are persons of proper care and skill, and generally competent for the work in which they are engaged. And this principle has been incorporated into the law of this Commonwealth by a line of cases, of which the leading one is *Farwell v. Boston & Worcester Railroad*.|| In *Gilman v. Eastern Railroad Corporation*,** the Court, in an opinion by Gray, J., says, “ But it is quite as well settled, both in England and America, that a master

* 3 McQueen, 266; 4 Jur. N. S. 767; 3 Mac. 300.

† 13 Macq. 30.

‡ 18 C. B. 797; 25 L. J. N. S. C. P. 263.

§ 9 Ex. 223; 23 L. J. Ex. 23.

|| 4 Met. 49.

** 10 Allen, 233, 238; and 13 Allen, 443.

is bound to use ordinary care in providing his structures and engines, and in selecting his servants, and is liable to any of their fellow servants for his negligence in this regard." The judgment in the first of these cases was delivered by Lord Cranworth, and was sustained by the judgments of Lord Brougham and Lord Chelmsford, in the second case. A similar case in this Commonwealth was *Wood v. New Bedford Coal Co.*,* which was decided in 1876.

The *ratio decidendi* of Lord Cranworth, who was then Lord Chancellor, is the same as that first announced by Chief Justice Shaw in *Farwell v. The Boston & Worcester Railroad*,† that there was no implied contract of indemnity, but a contract to run the risks of the employment. He says, "When several workmen engage to serve a master in a common work, they know, or ought to know, the risks to which they are exposing themselves, including the risks of carelessness against which their employer can not secure them; and they must be supposed to contract with reference to such risks."

IMPLIED CONTRACTS.

What is an implied contract? All contracts are either express or implied. They are either expressed in words, or implied by law. Whenever the parties have failed to express in words all the terms of a contract, which they both intended to express, the law supplies the deficiency. "Express contracts," says Blackstone, "are where the terms of the agreement are openly uttered and avowed at the time of the making — as to deliver an ox, or ten loads of timber, or to pay a stated price for certain goods. Implied are such as reason and justice dictate, and which, therefore, the law presumes that every man undertakes to perform. As, if I employ a person to do any business for me or perform any work, the law implies that I undertook or contracted to pay him as much as his labor deserves. If I take up wares from a tradesman without any agreement of price, the law concludes that I contracted to pay their real value." It is one of the fictions of the law, by which a promise is implied where none has been made; and it is a fiction which gained admission after no little opposition and delay. The judges were slow to

* 121 Mass. 252.

† 3 Met. 49.

give it their approbation, because it compelled them to assist in becoming makers of law, instead of interpreters only. It was said by Chief Justice Holt, in the eleventh year of the reign of William III., "that the notion of promises in law is a metaphysical notion, for the law makes no promise but where there is one by the party;" and as late as the third year of the reign of Queen Anne, "there is no such thing as a promise in law."

Although the doctrine by which they became a part of the law is thoroughly recognized, contracts are implied only when justice, duty, or legal obligation seem to require it. But cases where this doctrine has been applied have grown up one by one, grown up as exceptions, and contrary to the spirit of the common law; and an exception has been made only when the court thought an occasion had arisen where justice required a change. This exception, when once made, has generally stood as a precedent for other judges to follow. A page or more might be filled with instances where such a precedent has been made, which was afterwards engrafted on to the body of the law. If, for instance, a principal is obliged to pay damages in consequence of the negligence of his agent, the law implies a promise by the agent to reimburse him. Or, as has been recently held in England,* if an agent makes a contract in the name of his principal, he impliedly contracts that he has the authority of his alleged principal; and, if he has not, that he will take the contract upon himself.

GENERAL LAWS AND EXCEPTIONS.

Such exceptions have been carefully watched and guarded against by the wisest and most prudent judges. They are like exceptions to the general principle that there must be a privity of contract between the plaintiff and defendant, in order to render the defendant liable to an action by the defendant in the contract. To this general principle there had gradually grown up in this Commonwealth various exceptions, to which the court, in a celebrated decision by Judge Metcalf,† found it necessary to put an end, by col-

* *Wright v. Follen*, 7 El. & Bl. 301, and 8 El. & Bl. 647.

† *Mullen v. Whipple*, 1 Gray, 317.

lecting and reducing the cases to three classes, and declining to allow the general principle to be further encroached upon. A general rule may sometimes work injustice. By the very terms of the definition, it is made for the generality of cases. If it does not work injustice in the majority of cases, it is about all the law can pretend to do. Laws are made for the benefit of men in the mass, and cannot be made for individual cases. A great many complaints that the law sometimes works injustice would be found unjust, if the person aggrieved would consider that, in the very nature of things, general laws can only cover the majority of cases. It is better that the law be stable and certain than vacillating and unreliable. If exceptions must be made, it is better for them to be as few as possible, unless they also form a class of cases. Legislation for individual cases is burdensome, and wrong in theory. In the very nature of government, a few must suffer wrong that justice may prevail for the majority. In a community where every man is resolved to have exact justice for himself, every man becomes a law unto himself. Anarchy must follow, or society will return to barbarism. In a well-governed society, which is thought to be the happiest social condition, every man must sacrifice something of his preferences, something of his individual rights, for the sake of the general welfare. In such a community as many general laws will be made as general welfare requires, while exceptions will be as rare as possible.

WHAT IS THE CONTRACT?

Accepting for the present, for the sake of the argument, the theory that the law implies that the employee makes a contract with his employer, the question at once arises, What is the contract? It is a contract, it is said in the decisions quoted, to run the risk of personal injury from the negligence of a fellow-employee. Now there is, it will be remembered, a fundamental principle of law, that there can be no contract without a meeting of minds, — no contract unless the parties mutually understand its terms, and mutually assent to them. When the contract is expressed, there is an actual assent; when it is implied, the assent is implied by law. Neither can there be an assent unless the

parties know to what they are assenting. It is, therefore, necessary for each party to have in mind, at the time of making the contract, the terms to which he assents. When the contract is implied, the law implies that each, at the time it was made, had its terms in his mind. Whether he had or not is a question of fact, and a question of fact based upon the ordinary experience of mankind. It is said that because workmen, when making contracts of employment, ordinarily have in mind the fact that they are to run this risk of injury from the negligence of fellow-workmen, the law should imply such a fact. This is a fact, it is said, of common experience, such a one as properly comes within the province of a jury.

With all deference to the opinions of the learned judges who declare this to be a fact of common experience, may it not still be questioned whether workmen, when engaging work, ordinarily have this fact in their minds? The law, it is true, is at present settled. But should the subject come before the legislature, it ought again to be argued upon its original merits. The same arguments should again be analyzed. The same facts which were made by the judges the basis of their opinions should again be discussed. The whole subject should be reconsidered as if it were a new question, — a question which the legislature were called upon to consider for the first time. Otherwise they would not come to a view of the subject with eyes open to the admission of all light, but influenced, perhaps, by the opinions of others.

Is there not room for grave doubt whether workmen, when making their contracts, actually consider their prospective danger of receiving personal injury? Is there not room to doubt whether their employers at such a time think of the question of liability, or ask themselves where the responsibility for damages rests should an accident occur? whether the employee runs his own risk, or is guaranteed against injury? This is a question to be decided by the common experience of ordinary men, which is the test the wisdom of centuries has established for the decision of questions of fact. Questions of fact have been left to juries, because it was thought that men familiar with business and

daily life would decide more justly than judges. Occasional flurries of excitement occur, when confidence is shaken in juries, but the great weight of public and judicial reliance upon the justice of their verdicts remains unshaken. If the common experience of ordinary men declares that the danger of injury is seldom thought of at the time of making such contracts, then the fact, which the judges have assumed as the basis of their opinions, does not exist. If, moreover, common experience declares further that workmen are not expected to run their own risks, but to look to their employers for protection, the fact is reversed, the theory falls to the ground together with the hypothesis upon which it rests, and the law should be reversed in favor of the workmen. This is the gist of the question, as presented in these opinions; and there is on both sides abundant opportunity for argument.

Were it not put upon the ground of an implied contract, but upon that of an actual contract unexpressed, a contract which could be proved in evidence by custom and usage, it would be another question based upon the same hypothesis, to be answered by a knowledge of the same fact. It would be in the end the same question, and would require the same answer. It would depend upon whether common experience declares that both workman and employer, at the time the contract to work is made, ordinarily expect the workman to take the risk, or the employer to protect him. When it is remembered that the employer is liable to every other third person for the negligence of his servant, is liable, for instance, to a passenger for the negligence of an engineer in running his train, it would seem as though common experience would imply a like contract of indemnity with another servant, a brakeman, for instance, who is likewise a third person. Why should not the law create a similar contract in two cases so similar?

JUDGE-MADE LAW AND PUBLIC POLICY.

It is the province of the legislature to make law, and the province of the judiciary to interpret it. Where one class of men have had for centuries the right to declare what the law is, and have been respected for their character and held in honor for their authority, it would not be strange if

sometimes they had overstepped the boundaries of their province. Judges, like other men, are human; and the love of power, with the pleasure of using it, is one of the most natural as well as one of the strongest passions of the mind. For centuries they have administered justice, have arbitrated between their fellow-men, and been the tribunal of last appeal. From their judgment, when a court of last resort, there has been no appeal except by open rebellion. It is no wonder that they have made law sometimes, usurping the exclusive privilege of a co-ordinate branch of the government. It is no wonder that, with the growth of time, new law has grown up, and new precedents have been engrafted upon old principles misapplied; but it is never pretended that judges have the right to make law; never pretended that they have the right to invent a principle; nor can they render a decision contrary to a statute. It is seldom claimed that they can change the law as it has been laid down before their time by a superior or a co-ordinate court. But they may apply an admitted principle to a new state of facts. They may decide upon a different set of circumstances. New combinations of fact are constantly arising, and in applying to these facts a recognized principle, judges are sometimes obliged to establish new precedents. In doing this they are making new law. This is a part of their duty, and as necessary as justice itself.

Decisions are sometimes made because public policy demands it. Public policy is a general term, almost undefinable. It includes the policy of the State, and is always in harmony with good government and good morals. It is always in harmony with the genius and spirit of our laws and institutions, as they in turn are mutually in harmony with it. This is a principle used for various purposes. It is used sometimes to prevent the passage of a law, sometimes to prevent the setting up of a will. When, for instance, Daniel Webster wanted to break Stephen Girard's will, because it refused clergymen admission within the college walls, and encouraged atheism, he said it was a will made contrary to public policy. When, again, he wished to prevent the great steamboat monopoly from having, under an act of the legislature, the exclusive right to navigate the Hudson River, he argued that

such legislation was against public policy, and unconstitutional. When the anti-slavery leaders in the Senate wanted to prevent the spread of slavery to the Territories, they declared its extension to be against the public policy of the country. When Rufus Choate, in the Constitutional Convention of 1852, opposed the election of the judiciary for a term of years, he argued that the public policy of the State demanded that judges should have a life tenure, conditional upon good behavior.

These latter instances are the most common uses to which the doctrine is applied. It is the province of the legislature to decide what is or is not against public policy; and the legislature is usually jealous of any encroachment from this direction upon its ancient rights and privileges. The right to imply a contract is exercised by virtue of this doctrine of public policy. Certain contracts are implied by the courts, because they are in harmony with public policy. Certain other contracts are not implied. In the former instance the judges make a contract for the parties where they have failed to make one for themselves. They can by this means even defeat the real intention of the contracting parties. This power is exercised by virtue of the assumed rights to declare what is public policy, and to make a contract in accordance with this declaration. These certainly are extraordinary powers, which should be exercised with great circumspection, and jealously and scrupulously watched by the legislative branch of the government.

COMMON EMPLOYMENT.

The term common employment was early used to designate the employment of two or more workmen by one master. As a defence to actions for personal damages it was first applied to two persons, the person injured, and the person doing the injury, employed in a similar occupation. It was not, however, an appropriate term, because it did not suggest to the mind the principle which was the basis of this defence, but, instead, an example of the principle. It did not suggest that there was no implied contract of indemnity, but merely that both workmen were engaged to work for the same master.

As soon as the rule became recognized law in both England and America, the courts were called upon to define common employment, and say what classes of cases the term included. Having established the rule, they were asked to apply it, and say whether it should receive a wide or a narrow application. As case after case arose, they were asked to decide whether it came under the rule; whether in general the term should include only those employees who worked side by side in a similar occupation, as, for instance, masons building a wall together, carpenters erecting a staging, weavers tending adjacent looms; or whether it should have a wider scope, and embrace all employees who were hired by the same person, as, for illustration, all the hands in a factory, or all the employees of a railroad corporation. These were the limits of the application of the rule.

Between the two extremes there were various degrees where the rule might be held to include occupations more or less dissimilar. The chief question which embarrassed the courts was whether, as in the case where the rule was first announced, it should include only persons engaged in similar occupations, or should extend to any and every occupation, however dissimilar. Some courts gave it the wider, others the narrower, application. Some courts varied in their applications of the rule, and the same courts sometimes varied as new judges took the seats of their predecessors. No court attempted to actually define the term. No court attempted much more than to say that the particular case before it was one where common employment ought to be a defence to the action. Probably the term cannot be accurately defined, because it is impossible to anticipate the various kinds of employment, with their varying degrees of dissimilarity, which may arise. Several eminent authorities have declared it undefinable.

APPLICATION OF THE RULE.

If the rule of common employment had been restricted to persons at work side by side in a similar occupation, having a personal knowledge of each other's proficiency and habits of carefulness, it would not have been complained of as unjust. It might have been called a variation from a long-

established principle, and therefore wrong in theory; but it would have been so restricted in its application that it would not have been to employees a cause of severe injustice. Without great injustice it might have been made still easier for employers by excepting domestic and menial servants, such as coachmen and house servants. It is the wide extension of the rule that has done the wrong. Year by year, as case after case arose, and, through the ingenuity and persuasion of corporation counsel one court followed the example of another, the rule of common employment was gradually extended. The tendency has been of late to give it the widest extension, and include within its operation every employee who, either directly or indirectly, is paid by the same person or corporation, that is, from the same till.

WHO ARE FELLOW-EMPLOYEES?

An employee who in legal phrase is called a servant, is any person, male or female, minor or of full age, paid or unpaid, who works for another with his knowledge and consent. In the earliest case, *Priestly v. Fowler*,* which was decided in 1837, two men at work for a butcher, one of whom was injured while they were riding together in his van, were declared to be fellow-employees. Here was a similar occupation, and they had as full knowledge of each other's care and judgment in loading the van as men can generally have. In the next case, *Farwell v. The Boston & Worcester Railroad*,† which was decided in 1842, and in *Hayes v. The Western Railroad*,‡ decided in 1849, an engineer and a switchman, and two brakemen, were in the respective cases declared fellow-employees. In *Hutchinson v. The York, Newcastle and Berwick Railway Company*,§ decided in 1850, and in *Skipp v. The Eastern Counties Railway Company*, the facts were similar to the preceding. In *Albro v. The Agawam Canal*,|| decided in 1850, the rule was extended, and an operative and his superintendent were declared within the rule. In *Wiggett v. Fox*,** decided in 1856, the rule of common employment was still further extended, and said to apply to an employee of a sub-contractor, whose negli-

* 3 M. & W. 1.

§ 5 Ex. 343.

† 4 Met. 49.

|| 6 Cush. 75.

‡ 3 Cush. 270.

** 11 Ex. 832.

gence caused injury to the defendant's servant, and who was hired to do work by the piece. The wages of the employee were paid by the defendant, but he worked under the direction of the sub-contractor. The rule was followed in this Commonwealth in *Johnson v. Boston*,* decided in 1875, where one Johnson, who was injured by the caving in of a sewer, was under the "direct charge and management" of a foreman at work for the city, and under the "general supervision of the defendant's superintendent of sewers," and therefore under the general direction and control of the city, whose agent he was. In *Gilshannon v. The Stony Brook Railroad*,† a common laborer riding to his work gratuitously on the defendant's gravel-train, and the conductor of the train, through whose negligence he was injured, were declared fellow-employees. In *Brown v. Maxwell*,‡ a workman and his foreman, whose orders the former was bound to obey, and in *Sherman v. the Rochester & Syracuse Railroad Company*,§ a superintendent and an employee bound to obey the orders of the former, were called fellow-employees by the courts of New York.¶

Perhaps it is not necessary to specify further cases so particularly: A hod-carrier, and the carpenter who carelessly built the staging which fell in and injured him; a baggage-master, and a draw-tender; a brakeman, and a gate-tender; a factory girl, and the superintendent who gave the very order that caused her death; a chief engineer, and the third engineer on board a steamer; a painter at work on an engine-shed, and a freight-handler who upset the ladder on which he was standing; a miner, and a workman employed by a sub-contracting engine-builder; the servant of a brewer, and a friend who gratuitously made the plans for a malt-bin, which fell in and injured the servant; a miner, and an overseer whose carelessness, while at work four miles away, caused an explosion, — have been adjudged by the courts fellow-employees. It will be seen by these decisions that the essence of common employment is a common employer and payment from a common fund.

* 118 M. 114.

† 10 Cush. 228.

‡ 6 Hill, 592.

§ 17 N. Y. 153.

¶ In *Davis v. The Central Vermont Railroad*, it has been recently held, by the Supreme Court of Vermont, that the master-builder, under whose superintendence a culvert was so negligently built that it fell in, is not a co-laborer with an ordinary employee who was injured thereby.

The strictness with which the law of fellow-servant, by means of legal refinings, has been applied, and the acuteness which has been shown in discovering a relationship between employees, is worthy of notice. The legal mind has expended, under the golden patronage of large corporations, its scholastic subtlety in extending the doctrine of common employment, until a superintendent intrusted with the entire control of the business of a large corporation, with absolute power to select and discharge his assistants, to hire or discharge fully and freely every man of the two or three thousand, perhaps, who are under him, is the fellow-servant of the boy who sweeps an office, tends a loom, couples a car, or does any service, however menial. Because this doctrine was born in this Commonwealth, and has received here the tenderest care and widest development, it is sometimes called in this country the "Massachusetts doctrine." An acknowledged authority* thinks "our courts have had a tendency to narrow the remedies for negligence by technical and unsound decisions, and especially to favor corporations at the expense of servants. If the Massachusetts doctrine should be adopted, it would afford complete immunity to a large class of employers, such as railroad companies, owners of large factories, foundries, mines, etc., who are accustomed, and indeed often compelled, to intrust the selection of almost all their servants to one or more superintendents. It would be almost impossible to prove that a superintendent had a reputation for selecting incapable subordinates, and that his employer was aware of it; yet, upon the theory which holds a general superintendent to be only a fellow-servant with those whom he employs, such proof would be necessary in order to maintain an action by one of the servants against the common employer, on account of the negligence of another servant."

Wilson v. Merry† is the leading English authority upon this subject. It is a case which arose in Scotland, and was there decided in favor of the plaintiff. The injury was produced by an explosion, caused by the negligence of an engineer employed by the defendants to sink a shaft in a coalmine. Wilson did not know the engineer, had never seen

* Shearman and Redfield on Negligence, sect. 102.

† L. R. 1, p. 326.

him, and had no knowledge of his capacity for the work entrusted to him. The engineer was generally competent for the responsibility he had undertaken, but was so specially incompetent in this instance, that fire-damp was allowed to accumulate and cause an explosion. The case was heard in the House of Lords in 1868, and the decision of the Scotch courts overruled. The Lord Chancellor (Lord Cairns) said it was not a question of common employment, but (returning to the *ratio decidendi* of the earlier cases) a question whether there was an implied contract of liability for a servant's negligence.

This decision checked the practice, growing up in the English and Scotch courts, of discriminating between the various kinds of common employment, and returned to the principle that it was purely a question of contract, as had been laid down in *Farwell v. The Boston and Worcester Railroad*,* decided sixteen years before, and in *Hutchinson v. The York, Newcastle and Berwick Railroad*, † decided in 1850. It rejected the view that there were various grades of superior workmen, whose directions their inferiors were bound to obey; that, because their superiors were the authorized agents of their employers, their employers should be responsible for their acts. By declining to consider the various grades of similar occupations, it virtually re-asserted the wide use and construction by the English courts of the term common employment, by maintaining, in the words of Lord Cranworth, "that workmen do not cease to be fellow-workmen because they are not equal in point of authority." It furthermore destroyed the theory of the Scotch judges that whether they were fellow-workmen was a question of fact for a jury.

The Scotch judges, mindful of the injustice which they thought an indiscriminate application of the English rule would accomplish, decided that there was an important question of fact for a jury to determine. They declined to say that, as matter of law, the person who suffered the injury, and the person who caused it, were not fellow-employees, as had been decided in 1863, in the similar case of *Somerville v. Gray*.‡ They said that as there was, upon

* 4 Met. 49.

† 5 Ex. 343.

‡ 1 Macph. 768; 35 Jur. 445.

the evidence, a reasonable doubt what relations of employment existed between them, — a doubt whether an engineer who for a handsome compensation planned the work, leaving the general and special details of the execution to foremen and subordinates, was a fellow-workman with an ordinary laborer. There was an important question of fact for a jury to determine. It made no difference if the question was whether there was an implied contract between the injured servant and his employer. It was still a question of fact.

This would seem to be a just and legal solution of the difficulty. It would relieve the courts of the charge of trespassing upon the province of a jury.

It may be thought unwise for the legislature to allow juries to exercise this right. It may be said that the interests of employers would suffer, if, upon any pretence or claim of right, actions for personal injuries caused by fellow-employees could be maintained against them, because it would encourage lawsuits. If the exercise of such a right would promote litigation, — and no doubt it would, — it is no argument against the granting of the right. Should rights remain uncreated, through fear of their enforcement? If so, all courts should be abolished, or all rights should be annulled. The State is bound to protect its citizens, and provide the means of enforcing their rights. Otherwise it is a government on paper, without power, and not entitled to respect. To hesitate to confer a right, lest its exercise may annoy the wrong-doer, is unjust; and no State can ever afford to be unjust. Whatever is morally right should never be politically wrong. Every civil right has its remedy, or the right is worthless. It carries with it the right to be enforced by some appropriate action at law. The same reason which would refuse to confer a right lest it should be enforced by a suit at law, would justify the abrogation of every right that now exists.

SUMMARY OF THE LAW.

The law, as already explained, bearing upon this question of liability, may be stated in a compendious form by the following propositions: —

1st. A person is liable to pay compensation in damages

for a personal injury done to another by his own wrongful act, neglect or default.

2d. A master is liable to pay compensation in damages for a personal injury done to another person by the wrongful act, neglect or default of his servant, while engaged in the ordinary course of his employment.

3d. A master is liable to pay compensation in damages for a personal injury done to another person by the wrongful act, neglect or default of his servant, under the master's personal supervision and direction.

4th. A master is *not* liable to pay compensation in damages for a personal injury done to his own servant by the wrongful act, neglect or default of another servant, acting within the ordinary course of his employment,

(a.) Unless he has neglected to use due diligence in the selection of a competent and trusty servant, or unless, upon learning that the servant was incompetent, the master neglected for an unreasonable time to discharge him ;

(b.) Unless he has neglected to use due care in selecting and furnishing suitable materials, implements, tools, machinery or plant to perform the service in which the servant who caused the injury was engaged ; or unless he neglected to use due care in keeping in proper condition suitable means to perform the service in which the servant was employed.

The master's liability is not changed simply by the fact that the servant who caused the injury and the servant who was injured were engaged in a common employment.

Common employment may be said to include every servant who is hired or paid, directly or indirectly, by the same master.

The master's liability is not changed because both servants were engaged in different grades of a common employment.

Neither is it changed because the injured servant was acting at the time of the injury in strict obedience to the orders of a superior servant, a superintendent or foreman, and was injured in consequence of his obedience.

Neither is it changed because the servant who caused the injury was employed by a sub-contractor, if both were under the general direction of a superior servant of the master.

A servant or employee is liable to pay compensation in

damages for a personal injury done to another servant by his own wrongful act, neglect, or default.

A servant or employee is bound to reimburse his master or employer for damages sustained in consequence of his wrongful act, neglect, or default.

But a servant or employee who has performed his work under the eye and immediate direction of his employer, is his agent, responsible (if to any one) to his master or employer only, not to the person injured.

While the master is not liable under any contract of warranty that the materials, machinery, tools, implements, and plant are free from defects, he is liable for injury caused by any secret defects known to himself, and when unknown to the workman, not disclosed to him.

He is also liable for neglect to exercise due care in carrying on his work or business under a safe and proper system or code of regulations.

And liable for neglect to conform to any statute regulations made by the legislature for the safe conduct or management of his machinery.

To any neglect or breach of these liabilities which the law imposes, the servant may by word or act assent, and thereby excuse the master from liability to him for personal damages.

LAW OF OTHER COUNTRIES.

It may be interesting in this connection to know whether the law of other States and countries conforms to the law of this Commonwealth in excluding an employer from liability for a personal injury to an employee, caused by the negligence of a fellow-employee.

The Scotch Law.

In 1680 the earliest Scotch case arose in which the rights of master and servant were adjudicated. But the first which decided the liability of a master for his servant's tort was *Dalrymple v. M'Gill*,* in 1804, where it was held that a master was not liable for the act of his servant in cruelly beating another's horse, because it did not appear that he approved or had knowledge of the wrong. In 1813, in

* *Hume*, 292.

Linwood v. Hathorn,* the master was held liable for the act of his servant, without his knowledge or consent, in felling a tree with so little care as to cause the death of the plaintiff's intestate, who was passing. This judgment was sustained on appeal to the House of Lords. This tendency to hold the master to a strict liability for the acts of his servant was followed in *Hill v. Merricks*,† decided the same year, where he was held liable for the deliberate act of his servant in cutting down, without his master's authority, the trees of a bordering estate. So strict an obedience was exacted by masters at that time, that it was perhaps thought unwise to make it possible for them to escape liability by denying, after the injury had happened, that they had conferred any authority.

Sword v. Cameron‡ is the leading case. It was decided in 1839, the year after *Priestly v. Fowler*,§ the leading English case, and declined to follow its authority. It was an action to recover damages from the owner of a quarry, because one of his quarrymen, while carelessly blasting a rock, had injured a fellow-workman. The court unanimously held the employer responsible for the culpable negligence and rashness of his workman. The next case, which arose in 1852, is *Dixon v. Rankin*, where the master was held liable for an accident in a coal-pit; and the court, after reviewing *Priestly v. Fowler*, unanimously followed the rule of *Sword v. Cameron*. The *ratio decidendi* of the case is thus laid down by the Lord Justice Clerk:—

“The law of Scotland as to the contract of service in regard to such matters as are here raised is perfectly fixed, and admits of no doubt whatever. The master's primary obligation in every contract of service in which his workmen are employed in a hazardous and dangerous occupation for his interest and profit, is to provide for and attend to the safety of the men. That is his first and binding obligation; I should say paramount even to that of paying for their labor. This obligation includes the duty of furnishing *good and sufficient machinery and apparatus* to enable them, with safety to their lives, to perform the work which they are employed in for his profit, and to keep the same in reasonable and good condition; and the more rude and cheap the machinery, and the more liable on that account to cause injury, without great care, control, and superintendence in the working of it, the greater the obligation to make up for its defects by the attention necessary to prevent

* Shaw's Scotch App. 20. † Hume, 299. ‡ 1 S. 493. § 3 M. and W. 1.

such causing injury. In this obligation is equally included — as he cannot do everything himself — *the duty to have all acts by others whom he employs done properly and carefully in order to avoid risk.* The obligation to provide for the safety of the lives of his servants by fit machinery is not greater or more inherent in the contract than the *obligation to provide for their safety from the acts done by others whom he also employs.* The other servants are employed by him to do acts which, of course, he cannot do himself; but they are *acting for him, and instead of himself, as his hands.* For their careful and cautious attention to duty, for their neglect of precautions, by which danger to life may be caused, he is just as much responsible as for such misconduct on his own part, if he were actually working or present; and this particularly holds to the person he entrusts with the direction and control over any of his workmen, and who represents him in such a matter. The servant, then, in the contract of service in Scotland, *undertakes no risks from the dangers caused by other workmen from want of care, attention, prudence and skill which the attention and presence of the master or others acting for him, might have prevented.* His master is bound to him in obligations which are to protect him from such dangers. The principle of the contract in England being different, of course different results follow.”

In *Gray v. Brasseý** the same doctrine was emphasized, and the judges again declined to follow the rule of *Priestly v. Fowler* till they had been overruled by the House of Lords. The Lord President said that the master was liable for his own negligence and the negligence of his authorized servants; and Lord Cunningham, who expressed his opinion with most vigor and positiveness, said, —

“Although our reports for many years show that masters have been held liable to all third parties (without excepting fellow-servants) suffering from the negligence and unskillfulness of other servants hired by the employer, followed up by the late case of *Rankin v. Dixon*, in the Second Division, the books hardly show the extent of the understanding in Scotland, as *it is believed there is no man of common intelligence and experience in our affairs who entertains a different opinion.* Many industrious people may have relied on that security; and at any rate, when servants in this country have suffered severe injury from the fault of another workman hired by the master, we are not entitled suddenly to abrogate the responsibility of the latter, existing at the date of their employment. The law of Scotland on this point has been long established and acted on, while this question is new in England, arising merely under an act recently passed; and I must, with perfect deference, remark that the reasons assigned in the English cases for the distinction urged by the defender, do not appear to be altogether satisfactory or reasonable.”

* 15 Court of Sessions Cases, 135.

Five other cases followed in the same line,—Baird *v.* Addie,* Brownlie *v.* Tennant,* O'Byrne *v.* Burn,* Hill *v.* Caledonian Railway,* and Reid *v.* Bartonshill Coal Company, already referred to, and which, upon appeal to the House of Lords, was overruled. What had been declared law by twenty-five judges was changed by this judgment, and the law of both countries was made the same.

The Irish Law.

The Irish decisions, unlike the Scotch, follow the precedent of Priestly *v.* Fowler. The question was first raised in 1858, in M'Enery *v.* Waterford and Kilkenny Railway,† where the rule was affirmed; and all the Irish decisions uniformly accept it.

The Law of France.

This question arose in England, Scotland, and France about the same time. While the first English case was in 1837, and the first Scotch case in 1839, the first French case was in 1836. During the days of feudalism, and until the revolution of 1789, the authority exercised by the nobleman over his vassal was so great that the question would not be expected to have arisen. The development, in its various phases, of the law of master and servant, was gradual in France, as in the other countries, following likewise much the same course as the Roman law had followed. Pothier, in the “*Traité des Obligations*,” by Dupui, page 278, says that the person who appointed another to perform a function must answer for the injury caused by the agent in exercising the power with which he has been delegated; and if the agent was appointed by one or more persons, they are all liable, without exception, *in solido*. But should the agent, in a matter not connected with the exercise of the function, ill-treat or rob any one, the principal would not be liable. Nothing is said by him as to the liability of a master to his servant for the negligence of a fellow-servant, because the law had probably not reached in his day that stage of development.

The case which arose in 1836 was begun in the court at

* 16 Court of Sessions Cases, 490, 998, 1025, 569.

† 8 Ir. C., L. R. 312.

Lyons. It was an action against a master to recover damages to a workman, caused by the negligence of a fellow-workman in loading a cargo; and the master was not held liable. A similar decision was rendered by the local Court of Toulouse on the 26th of June, 1839, in another case, where a workman was injured through the negligence of a fellow-workman, by the glancing of a knife, while they were lopping bushes. The ground of the decision was that the servant was paid by the wages he received, for taking the risks of the employment. (See Gilbert's edition [1855] of "Les Codes Annotés de Sirey.") But this case was taken on appeal to the Cour de Cassation, where this decision was reversed on the 28th of June, 1841. The gist of the decision, as found in Dalloz's "Jurisprudence Générale du Royaume,"* is as follows: "The master is liable for the injury which one of his servants or workmen has caused by negligence to another servant or workman in a work which they were charged to carry out in common. The wages agreed upon between the servant and his master cannot exempt the latter from his liability towards the party injured."

Both of the cases were decided upon a construction of Article 1384 of the Civil Code. The sections of the code which bear upon this subject are as follows:—

"1382. Tout fait quelconque de l'homme qui cause à autrui un dommage oblige celui par la faute duquel il est arrivé à la réparer.

"1383. Chacun est responsable du dommage qu'il a causé non seulement par son fait, mais encore par sa négligence ou par son imprudence.

"1384. On est responsable non seulement du dommage que l'on cause par son propre fait, mais encore de celui qui est causé par le fait des personnes dont on doit répondre ou des choses que l'on a sous sa garde. Le père, et la mère après le décès du mari, sont responsables du dommage causé par leurs enfants mineurs habitant avec eux. Les maîtres et les commettants, du dommage causé par leurs domestiques et préposés dans les fonctions auxquelles ils les ont employés.

"Les instituteurs et les artisans, du dommage causé par les élèves et apprentis pendant le temps qu'il sont sous leur surveillance.

"La responsabilité ci-dessus a lieu à moins que les père et mère, instituteurs et artisans n'éprouvent qu'ils n'ont pu empêcher le fait qui donne lieu à cette responsabilité.

"1382. Every act of a man, of whatsoever nature, which causes injury to another, obliges him through whose fault it happened to repair the damage

"1383. Every one is responsible for the injury he has caused, not only by his own act, but by his negligence or imprudence.

* Vol. of 1841, p. 271.

"1384. A person is liable not only for the injury he causes by his own act, but also for that which is caused by the acts of others for whom he is answerable, as well as for any injury to property under his charge.

"The father, and the mother after the death of her husband, are responsible for any damage caused by their minor children who live with them.

"Masters and employers are responsible for any injury caused by their servants or employees in performing the duties in which they have been employed.

"Teachers and artisans are responsible for any injury done by pupils or apprentices while under their care.

"The above responsibility attaches, unless the father or mother, teacher or artisan, proves that he could not prevent the act which created the responsibility."

Another construction, and an English construction of section 1384, was given by the judicial committee of the Privy Council, on appeal from the Mauritius, which is under the control of French law, in the case of *Serandat v. Saisse*.* This in effect decides that the master (foreman or overseer) is responsible for the acts of his servant done while acting under the orders, directions, and surveillance of his master (*sous les ordres, sous la direction et la surveillance du commettant*); which is equivalent to saying, as the English law says, done while acting within the scope of his employment. It is thus seen that the Civil Code holds the employer liable for the negligence of an employee to a fellow-employee.

The Law of Italy.

The law of Italy is contained in Article No. 1153 of the Italian Code, which was modelled upon the French code; and the portion of it which relates to this subject is almost a literal translation of the French.

The Law of Prussia.

The Roman Law has been called the Common Law of Prussia. There has been no complete codification of the Laws, but from Holtzendorff's Encyclopædia, an authoritative work, it appears that the principal or employer is liable, —

1. Where he has committed or directed a wrongful act.
2. Where he should have done the work himself.
3. Where he has not used due care in the selection or supervision of his agent or employee.

* L. R., 1 P. C., 152.

Exceptions to these rules make the principal liable (1) for what is called the contractual fault of his agent; (2) make the occupier of a room liable for an injury caused by throwing out anything; (3) make innkeepers and ship-owners insurers of property intrusted to them. The employer is, in general, liable only for negligence in selecting and supervising his servant.

But, to relieve the hardship of this rule, owners of railroads, mines, quarries, pits, factories, are made liable, in certain cases, for the negligence of employees. The following is the substance of the law:—

Article 1 is as follows: “Where, in the course of the working of a railway, a man is killed or suffers personal injury, the undertaker is liable for the damage thereby caused, so far as he does not prove that the accident was caused by *vis major*, or by the default of the person killed or injured himself.”

Article 2 is: “Where, in the case of a mine, a quarry, a pit, or a factory, the agent or the representative, or person employed to conduct or overlook the work, or the workman through his default in carrying out the work, has caused the death or the personal injury of any man, the owner is liable for the damage thereby caused.” Article 3 regulates the measure of damage. Article 5 provides that the undertaker or owner referred to in Articles 1 and 2 may not exclude or limit the application of the rules contained in the articles to their advantage, by means of a contract; that is to say, by means of a special agreement, and that contracts in contravention of this article are to have no legal effect; *i. e.*, railway companies, mining companies, factory owners, owners of quarries, etc., may not contract themselves out of the liability imposed by the law.

LAW OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES.

A careful examination of the law of the States and Territories shows that the rule of non-liability universally prevails, except where it has been modified by local statutes. With the exception of Rhode Island, recent legislation changes the rule only as it affects the liability of railroads.

The following States and Territories have recognized the need of some change in the law:—

California. — See Codes and Statutes of California, 6971, sect. 1971; modified, however, by 6970, sect. 1970, to such an extent as to make the change of little importance.

Dakota. — See Revised Code of 1877, p. 396, Article 2, which is precisely the same as the law of California, and seems to have been copied *verbatim* from the statutes of the latter State.

Georgia. — The old law is completely changed in this State, so far as liability of railroads is concerned. The meaning of the statute is unmistakable; it reads as follows, viz., — Code of 1873, p. 521, 3036 (2981), — “Injury by co-employee. If the person injured is himself an employee of the company, and the damage was caused by another employee, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to the recovery.” The old law is laid down in 15 Ga. 349; 30 Ga. 146. The new law was enacted in 1855–56.

Iowa. — The law of this State is equally explicit in affording a remedy in like cases. Revised Code of 1880, vol. 1, p. 342, at sect. 1307, reads as follows: “Every corporation operating a railway shall be liable for all damages sustained by any person, including employees of such corporation, in consequence of the neglect of agents, or by any mismanagement of the engineers or other employees of the corporation, and in consequence of the wilful wrongs, whether of commission or omission, of such agents, engineers or other employees, when such wrongs are in any manner connected with the use and operation of any railway on or about which they shall be employed; and no contract which restricts such liability shall be legal or binding.”

The note to this section is as follows, viz.: “Under the statute, prior to the passage of chap. 169, laws of 1862, it was held, in harmony with the consent of common law authority, that the principal is not liable for damages sustained by an employee for the negligence of a co-employee in the same general service; and that the 14th section of the act, entitled An Act to grant railroad companies the right of way, approved Jan. 18, 1853, did not change the general rule on the subject.” (Sullivan *v.* The M. & M. R. Co., 11 Iowa, 421.) After the act of 1862 took effect,

it was held that while the 7th section thereof gave an employee of a railroad company a right to recover for injuries caused by the negligence of a co-employee, the liability was nevertheless measured by a different standard and rule, as to negligence, from what it is in case of injuries to passengers. While extraordinary care and caution are required with respect to passengers, ordinary care only is due to the employee." (*Hunt v. The C. & N. W. R'y Co.*, 26 Ia. 363; *Wright, J.*, dissenting, and holding that under the statute the same rule applied to both. See a long list of cases in support of the new doctrine in the same note; viz., Revised Code of Iowa, 1880, vol. 1, pp. 343, 344, 345 and 346.)

Kansas. — (See Revised Laws of Kansas, 1879, p. 784, chap. 84, sect. 4914; taken from the Statutes of 1876, p. 869, sect. 4604.) The following law was passed in 1874, chap. 93, sect. 1. It took effect March 4, 1874, viz.: "Every railroad company, organized or doing business in this State, shall be liable for all damages done to any employee of such company, in consequence of any negligence of its agents, or by any mismanagement of its engineers or other employees, to any person sustaining such damage." The preceding section, 4603, while not relating to the question of damages done to an employee, is yet worth quoting, as showing the extreme caution which is required of such corporations in Kansas. It is as follows (4603, p. 869, vol. 2, Kansas Statutes): "That railroads in this State shall be liable for all damages done to person or property, when done in consequence of any neglect on the part of the railroad companies." (L. 1870, chap. 93, sect. 1.) This section has changed the law in reference to the liability of railroad companies for injuries done by their trains to cattle on the track. In an action for such injuries it is not error to instruct the jury that the company must exercise ordinary care, and is responsible for ordinary neglect. (*St. Jos. & D. R'y Co. v. Grover*, 11 Kansas, 302.) This section applies only where a railway company, *as a company*, has been negligent; and does not apply to negligence between co-employees of a railroad company. (*Kas. P. R'y Co. v. Salmon* 11 Kas. 93.) The case, just cited, *Kas. P. R'y Co. v. Salmon*, was decided in

1873. It was, no doubt, owing to the hardship felt in this case, that the law was changed in the following year. The jury, in the lower court, had given a verdict for \$7,500 in favor of the plaintiff, for personal injuries resulting in the death of her husband; and a new trial was refused. The case was then taken up on error, and decided against the plaintiff; and the law was changed, as before stated, the following year.

Mississippi. — See Revised Code of 1880, p. 309, sect. 1054: "Every railroad company shall be liable for all damages which may be sustained by any person in consequence of the neglect or mismanagement of any of their agents, engineers or clerks, or for the mismanagement of their engines; but for injury to any passenger upon any freight train not being intended for both passengers and freight, such company shall not be liable *except for the gross negligence of its servants.*"

Montana. — See Laws of Revised Statutes, 1879, p. 471, sect. 318: "That in every case the liability of the corporation to a servant or employee acting under the orders of his superior shall be the same in case of injury sustained by default or wrongful act of his superior, or to an employee not appointed or controlled by him, as if such servant or employee were a passenger."

The foregoing provision was enacted as part of a general act providing for the formation of railroads in the territory of Montana, and was passed with considerable difficulty over the Governor's veto. See Laws, etc., of the Territory of Montana, 1873 (extra), 104 and 109, note.

Rhode Island. — See Public Statutes of 1882, p. 553, chap. 204, sect. 15: "If the life of any person, being a passenger in any stage-coach or other conveyance, when used by common carriers, or the life of any person, whether a passenger or not, in the care of proprietors of, or common carriers by means of, railroads or steamboats, or the life of any person crossing upon a public highway with reasonable care, shall be lost by reason of the negligence or carelessness of such common carriers, proprietor or proprietors, or by the unfitness or negligence or carelessness of their servants or agents, in this State, such common carriers,

proprietor or proprietors, shall be liable to damages for the injury caused by the loss of life of such person, to be recovered by action of the case, for the benefit of the husband or widow and next of kin of the deceased person, one-half thereof to go to the husband or widow, and one-half thereof to the children of the deceased."

Wisconsin. — "Every railroad corporation shall be liable for all damages sustained by any agent or servant thereof by reason of the negligence of any other servant or agent thereof, without contributory negligence on his part, when sustained within this State, or when such agent or servant is a resident of, and his contract of employment was made in, this State; and no contract, rule or regulation between any such corporation and any agent or servant shall impair or diminish such liability." (Published March 18, 1875; approved March 4.)

Wyoming. — See Compiled Laws of Wyoming (1876), p. 512, chap. 97, sect. 1, entitled "An Act to protect railroad employees who are injured while performing their duty." "Any person in the employment of any railroad company in this Territory, who may be killed by any locomotive, car, or other rolling stock, whether in the performance of his duty or otherwise, his widow or heirs may have the same right of action for damages against such company as if said person so killed were not in the employ of said company; any agreement he may have made, whether verbal or written, to hold such company harmless or free from an action for damages in the event of such killing, shall be null and void, and shall not be admitted as testimony in behalf of said company in any action for damages which may be brought against them; and any person in the employ of said company who may be injured by any locomotive, car, or other rolling stock, of said company, or by other property of said company, shall have his action for damages against said company the same as if he were not in the employ of said company; and no agreement to the contrary shall be admitted as testimony in behalf of said company." Sect. 2. "This act shall take effect from and after its passage." (Approved December 7, 1869.)

Missouri. — Revised Statutes (1879), Vol. I., p. 349, chap.

25, sect. 2121. "Damages for injuries resulting in death in certain cases, when and by whom recoverable." "Whenever any person shall die from any injury resulting from or occasioned by the negligence, unskilfulness or criminal intent of any officer, agent, servant or employee, whilst running, conducting or managing any locomotive, car, or train of cars; or of any master, pilot, engineer, agent or employee, whilst running, conducting, or managing any steamboat, or any of the machinery thereof; or of any driver of any stage-coach, or other public conveyance, whilst in charge of the same as a driver; and when any passenger shall die from any injury resulting from or occasioned by any defect or insufficiency in any railroad or any part thereof, or in any locomotive or car, or in any steamboat or the machinery thereof, or in any stage-coach or other public conveyance, the corporation, individual or individuals, in whose employ any such officer, agent, servant, employee, master, pilot, engineer or driver shall be at the time such injury is committed, or who owns any such railroad, locomotive, car, stage-coach or other public conveyance at the time any injury is received, resulting from or occasioned by any defect or insufficiency above declared, shall forfeit and pay, for every person or passenger so dying, the sum of \$5,000, which may be sued for and recovered: First, by the husband or wife of the deceased; or, second, if there be no husband or wife, or he or she fails to sue within six months after such death, then by the minor child or children of the deceased; or, third, if such deceased be a minor and unmarried, then by the father and mother, who may join in the suit, and each shall have an equal interest in the judgment; or, if either of them be dead, then by the survivor. In suits instituted under this section, it shall be competent for the defendant, for his defence, to show that the defect or insufficiency named in this section was not of a negligent defect or insufficiency. The words 'any person' in this section do not include a fellow-servant." (64 Mo. 112, overruling 36 Mo. 13; 59 Mo. 285. See Revised Statutes, p. 350, note.)

Although at first sight this law would seem to afford a remedy for injuries sustained by a servant, and was quoted

during the discussion in England to show that Missouri had changed the rule of the common law, the Court of Appeals has decided (one judge dissenting) that the phrase "any person" does not include fellow-servant, and that his remedy (see cases above cited) remains the same as it was before the statute was passed.

It is thus seen that out of the whole number of States and Territories there are at least six of the former, viz., Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Mississippi, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin; and two of the latter, viz., Montana and Wyoming, which have entirely abandoned the old rule, and provided a remedy by statute for the better protection of railroad employees; while there are two others, viz., California and Dakota, which have recently passed statutes defining the limit of liability.

The Law of England.

On the 7th of September, 1880, Parliament changed the law of England by passing the Employers' Liability Act (43 and 44 Victoria, chap. 42). The act was one fruit of the agitation of the rights and hardships of workingmen which has been in progress there for many years. The Corn Law agitation, which made Richard Cobden and John Bright two of the worst hated and best beloved of Englishmen, besides relieving the necessities of the poor, prepared the public mind for a more general discussion of the rights of labor, and taught workingmen everywhere to assert and defend their rights by systematic organization. Trades unions began to make the laborer's influence felt, began to aid or counteract the power of the conservative press and magazines. The right of petition to Parliament, which in the hands of John Pym was so effective, in the hands of Bright and Cobden, Thomas Brassey and Macdonald, was powerless. The ease with which monster petitions are obtained, by means of quick communication through the agency of railroads and the post, has made a petition an almost worthless catalogue of names.

By means of organization, and the mutual sympathy and courage gained by association and the discussion of grievances; by means of public meetings; by protective union leagues, and strikes, so called; by enlisting the influence of

public-spirited leaders whose hearts were tender to the wrongs and sufferings of poverty; by refusing to vote, wherever the right existed, for any member of Parliament who would not advocate their cause; by various other means, — some of which were wise, while others were unwise, — the workmen obtained the aid of public opinion, and compelled the English government to stand and listen. All that a just cause requires is the privilege of being heard. As the result of this popular but peaceful uprising, some of their grievances have been alleviated, and some of their wrongs have been righted. They have now more reasonable hours of labor, and wages more proportionate to the labor done. Miners have been protected in various ways. Railway corporations have been brought to a more strict accountability to the public for the safety and convenience of their patrons. A few of the outposts in the great political battlefield of this generation between labor and capital, between the common people and great monopolies, have been taken, and an example set to the world of what political organization can accomplish.

The question under discussion, which, like the question of tenant right now agitating Great Britain, is an outgrowth of this general awakening to the rights of labor, and the absolute necessity of protecting the laborer, has been before the people for several years. The explosions occurring so frequently in mines, — explosions by which miners were killed sometimes by scores, — the frequency of accidents upon railways, — collisions amounting sometimes almost to disasters, — the more accurate knowledge of the number of persons annually killed in the ordinary prosecution of dangerous employments, which was furnished by the reports of the Board of Trade, — helped to awaken the public mind to the urgency of affording more ample protection, especially to miners and railway employees. The subject was at first presented to the public, as is usual, by writers for the magazines. It was then taken up by the daily press. It soon found its way into Parliament, where at first it attracted but little attention. The Social Science Association took it up for discussion. One of the earliest to write about it was Mr. Joseph Brown, a Queen's counsel, who, however,

took a rather conservative ground. Mr. Bulwer and Mr. Commissioner Miller, both of whom are also Queen's counsel, took an interest in it; but the lawyers, as usual, were rather conservative. Lord Shand, Mr. Thomas Brassey, Sir Henry Jackson, Mr. Samuel Morley, the Earl de la Warr, Mr. Knowles, Sir Daniel Gooch, Mr. Shaw Lefevre, all of whom were members of Parliament, took an earnest interest in the subject, and wrote or spoke upon it. Mr. Lowe, now Lord Sherbrooke, was the leader of the cause in Parliament, while Mr. Frederick W. Evans and Mr. Macdonald, for whose services in behalf of workingmen they are about to erect a statue, were among the chief promoters.

As soon as the subject attracted sufficient attention in Parliament, the lobby was against it, and the attorneys for the railway, mining, and large manufacturing corporations and associations, also appeared in opposition. But the cause gradually gained friends; and the more they opposed it, the more popular it became with the people and their representatives. Among the friends of the measure there was a difference of opinion as to what should be the wording of the bill. Agreeing as to the end, they differed as to the means.

BILLS BROUGHT INTO PARLIAMENT.

Of the several bills brought into Parliament, one was introduced by Mr. Macdonald. By this it was proposed to do away with the defence of common employment, and allow an employee to recover damages as other persons can. The bill was applicable to mines, manufactures, collieries, railways, and to every employment, not excepting even domestic and menial service. If the butler trod upon the housemaid's toes, or spilled kerosene oil over the gardener's trousers; if the coachman, while driving the cook to church on a rainy day, carelessly tipped over the carriage and spilled her out; or if the housemaid left a coal-hod at the top of the stairs, over which the butler tumbled when coming down on a dark morning,—liability would attach to their employer. Had this bill excluded from its operation domestic and menial servants; had the cook, coachman, butler, gardener, housemaid, seamstress,—all servants who live under the employer's roof, and become intimately acquainted with each other's

habits, — been excepted from its operation, its chief objectionable feature would have been omitted. It would then have applied only to those servants, employees, or agents who are engaged in commercial, manufacturing, business employments, hazardous operations for profit, where this danger of loss may be taken as one of the liabilities incident to the carrying on of business.

Another bill was introduced by Earl de la Warr, one provision of which made employers liable for the acts of their duly authorized superintendents, foremen, overseers, managers, or whomsoever had the right to give orders and direct the persons injured. The theory of this provision is, that because the injury is caused by obeying the orders, commands, or directions of a foreman or superintendent, whom the person injured is bound by his contract of service to obey, the employer should suffer the consequences of his agent's negligence.

Another provision made the employer a warrantor of the tools and machinery he uses, liable for any secret flaws or defects, imperfections of design, etc., which may exist. The theory of this is, that, as one of them must take the risk of defect, the person who buys the tools, machinery, and plant, who can accept or reject them, who can order them repaired when unsafe or worn out, have them removed and replaced, is the one to take the risk. By the law, as it is at present, he is only bound to use ordinary care in selecting, constructing, examining, designing; he does not warrant the soundness of the materials used, or the suitability of the design. (See *Skerritt v. Scallan*,* and *Shearman and Redfield on Negligence*.) If, through a defect in the shaft, an engine breaks down, or, through a defect in design or construction, a bridge gives way, as at *Ashtabula*, he would not be liable. This bill would, however, make the railroad liable to both employees and passengers, by virtually saying that the person or company who builds or pays for the engine or bridge, who has the right to examine, test, inspect, accept, or reject, shall take the risk, instead of the too trusting employee or passenger. It likewise, perhaps, extended, as did the former bill, the liability for the acts of domestic and menial servants.

* 11 I. R., C. L. 389, sects. 86, 87.

A third bill which was introduced was endorsed by Mr. Brassey, Mr. Morley, Mr. Michael Bass, and Mr. Sullivan. It contained the same provisions as the preceding, except the last, and limited common employment to any manufacture, trade or business carried on for profit.

A fourth bill was brought in by the Attorney General, which was supposed to represent the views of the Gladstone ministry. This was the least radical of all, and seemed intended to carry out the views expressed in the Report of the Parliamentary Committee. None of them contained any clause allowing an employer to make a contract exempting himself from the liabilities imposed by each bill.

The Subject considered by Two Select Committees of Parliament.

The English Parliament, in the session of 1875-6, appointed a select committee to consider this subject, another in 1877, and, later still, other committees. The first consisted of fifteen members, and included Sir John Holker (then Attorney General), Mr. Lowe (now Lord Sherbrooke), Mr. Wyndham, Sir Henry Jackson, Mr. W. Stanhope, Shaw Lefevre, Sir Daniel Gooch, and Mr. Macdonald, and had full power to send for persons and papers. They began their session with an earnest desire to understand the subject; and, during the summer of 1876, summoned before them the men best informed upon the subject in the kingdom, — parliamentary agents for trades unions, barristers who had made the subject in all its bearings a special study, and were familiar with the law and its workings, secretaries of associations of railway employees, and builders. As they were unable to complete their work during that session, they reported the evidence in print, and recommended a further investigation.

The subject was again taken up at the next session, and most of the same members were re-appointed on the select committee. At this session, master builders, large employers of labor, secretaries and agents of associations of miners, proprietors of large mines, some of the ablest mining engineers in the country, managers of large collieries, chairmen of mining associations, managing directors of extensive

iron and coal companies, Lord Justices of the Court of Appeal, — Mr. Justice Bramwell and Mr. Justice Brett, — parliamentary solicitors, managers of the London and North Western, Great Western, and Great Northern Railways, Kidderminster carpet manufacturers, managing directors of locomotive works, and others, to the number, in all, of twenty-eight, gave their testimony. The examination of the witnesses was generally conducted by Mr. Lowe, each member of the committee asking whatever questions he chose.

Mr. Lowe's Report.

Two draft reports were submitted for adoption by the committees, one by Mr. Lowe, the other by Sir Henry Jackson. After laying down the universally accepted principle expressed by the maxim, *Qui facit per alium facit per se*, he says: —

“6. Your committee are warranted, by the evidence of the eminent judges and barristers examined before them, in regarding these judicial innovations with the utmost jealousy and dissatisfaction. They observe with some surprise that the common law, as it was believed to be up to 1837, has been entirely altered by judicial decision; and that not in any abstruse or remote point, but in a matter which most nearly concerns the interests of hundreds and thousands of Her Majesty's subjects.

“7. This has been effected by means which appear to the committee to be of the most questionable nature, — the inventing and enforcing a contract which never really existed. Where, beside what is expressed in a contract, there is something else in the contemplation of both parties which they would have expressed had either party required it, the committee can understand that the courts of law may be perfectly justified in saying that such a contract must be taken to have been entered into. But, so far from this being the case, the contract which the judges have assumed to be entered into by every operative, involving as it does the cession of most important rights without any consideration, is utterly unknown to the person to be bound by it, and was in its full extent, as will presently appear, unknown to the judges themselves.

“8. Lord Justice Bramwell remarks, ‘that the expression which has been used, that a servant contracts that he will make no claim against the master for injury done by the negligence of a fellow-servant, is an unfortunate one. The obvious difficulty in that mode of expressing it is, that neither master nor servant ever think of such a matter when they enter into the relation of master and servant.’ Justice Brett says (Question 1919), ‘I say now that the law is that you cannot properly import any condition or stipulation into a contract, except one which

in the minds of all reasonable men must have been in the contemplation and intention of both parties to the contract at the time it was made.'

"9. Another hardship connected with the proceedings of the judges is the gradual expansion of the contract which they created. They held that a fellow-servant could not by his carelessness impose any liability on his master; and then the question became all-important, who was a fellow-servant? By degrees it has been held that every one except the master in an industrial undertaking is a fellow-servant with every other person employed in any capacity; thus the implied contract has swelled gradually, till the term fellow-servant is no longer required, and the rule may be stated thus: The master is liable for his own personal negligence, and for no other. Had the court foreseen this result, all discussion as to what constitutes a common employment would have been unnecessary.

"10. Had the law been laid down at once in the full extent to which it has gradually advanced, public attention would doubtless have been awakened, and the whole question fairly considered by Parliament; but the doctrine has been expanding for thirty-five years, and has only just reached its full development in the Court of Sessions in Scotland, to the effect that the servants of a contractor are the fellow-servants of the servants of the person with whom he contracts.

"11. The question for the committee is, how they are to deal with a state of things which Justice Brett fairly describes as a bad exception to a bad law. Shall they maintain the exception on account of the badness of the law, or fall back on the law on account of the badness of the exception; or shall they seek some middle course, which may extricate them from both?

* * * * *

"15. The committee, therefore, recommend that the funds of every industrial undertaking shall be liable to compensate any person employed in such undertaking for any injury he may receive by reason of the negligence of any person exercising authority mediately or immediately derived from the owners of such undertaking, with this qualification, that the liability to indemnify shall not extend to persons who, though exercising authority, are *bona fide* employed in actual labor as distinguished from superintendence." * * * * *

The Committee's Report.

The draft report of Sir Henry Jackson, less radical than Mr. Lowe's, was substantially adopted, and signed by a majority of the committee. The report is as follows:—

"1. The questions referred to your committee, though apparently two, are in reality but different modes of presenting one and the same inquiry; and they can hardly be considered apart from the much larger question of the nature and extent of the liability of employers for injuries to their servants in the course of their employment.

"2. At present a master is not liable for any injury which arises from the act or default of any fellow-servant, whether that fellow-servant be in a position of authority or not; and in ascertaining whether the person to whose act or default the injury is due is a fellow-servant, the widest possible construction is given to the term, 'Common Employment.'

"3. That a man should be liable for injury occasioned by his own act, neglect or permission, is obviously just. That a man should be liable for injury occasioned by acts which he has neither done or permitted, which have resulted from no neglect of his, or in disobedience to his order, or which he may have forbidden, is a result the justice of which it is not easy at once to recognize, and one which some eminent lawyers do not hesitate to describe as 'essentially unjust.' Such, however, is, and since the reign of Charles the Second, appears to have been, the law of this country as to injuries occasioned by servants in the course of their employment to persons not in the same employment. For such injuries the master employing the servant is liable, notwithstanding that the acts which occasioned them may not have been ordered or authorized, or may even have been forbidden.

"4. There is a strong concurrence of authority against the justice of this law, though there seems to be some difference of opinion as to its origin and historical development. Some regard it as having been established on considerations of policy, as distinguished from justice; others as a mistaken application of the maxim, *Qui facit per alium facit per se*. A very slight examination of the principle involved in this maxim, which obviously relates to agency, will show that it is inapplicable to cases where the act causing the injury is done either without authority or in defiance of it. The probability is, that the rule was an application of the maxim *respondeat superior*; and this probability is increased by the consideration that none of the decisions which have explained and determined the law have ever extended it beyond the limits to which that maxim would properly apply. The state of society in which the maxim *respondeat superior* obtained, had passed away long before the English law was established; but there is a certain analogy, so far as affects third parties, between the position of a master hiring servants, and a master or *paterfamilias* employing his slaves or children. In each case there is a single task or enterprise carried on by several persons, and it is not difficult to see how the master, the *superior*, he who puts the enterprise in motion, was held responsible to persons outside for any injury resulting from the enterprise, by whomsoever occasioned; an analogy which may explain, if it does not justify, the law.

"5. But there is no record that the master or *superior* was liable for injury occasioned to any person engaged in the enterprise. The slave or child under the Roman law had no choice and no rights; and the English courts have always considered that a servant, who is free to choose whether he will or will not take part in the enterprise or task, by the contract of service itself undertakes to run all risks necessarily incident to the employment, the principal and most obvious of which is the injury which the negligence of others engaged in the same employment may occasion.

"6. For upwards of one hundred and fifty years after a master was held liable for injuries occasioned to strangers, no attempt to extend the liability to cases of injury occasioned by fellow-workmen is recorded; and when at last such an attempt was made in the well-known case of *Priestly v. Fowler*, which was decided in 1837, the court at once refused to extend the principle to cases to which it was not applicable, and that on the broad ground that a man is free to take the employment or not, but that if he chooses to do so he takes it with all attendant risks. The decision in the case of *Priestly v. Fowler*, if not the whole of the reasoning on which it is based, has been generally approved and followed by the courts in this country and in the United States.

"7. This judgment has, however, been the subject of much adverse criticism. It is contended that, whether the law throwing on the master the responsibility for injuries occasioned to strangers be just or unjust, the exception in regard to injuries occasioned by fellow-workmen is simply an exception to an established rule; and it is regarded as an exception specially directed against and injurious to those who from their position are most in want of the protection of the rule. But your committee consider that this view is not well founded; and they have the high authority of the late Lord Chief Baron Pollock for saying that the court, in *Priestly v. Fowler*, laid down no new law. He says, 'I believe it was the law; I thoroughly understood it to be so before attention was called to it.' The true principle of law is, that no man is responsible, except for his own acts and defaults; and the rule relied upon is itself not a rule, but an exception, which the courts have explained and confined within proper limits.

"8. It is, however, to be observed that a series of decisions by the Scotch judges denied that the decisions of the English courts were consonant with the law of Scotland. In this condition of the authorities, an appeal was presented to the House of Lords in 1856, in the course of which the Law Lords affirmed that the law was identical for England and Scotland

"9. There can be no doubt that the effect of abolishing the defence of 'common employment' (as has been actually proposed in a bill submitted to the House) would effect a serious disturbance in the industrial arrangements of the country. Sooner or later, the position of master and workman would find its level by a re-adjustment of the rate of wages; but in the meantime great alarm would be occasioned, and the investment of capital in industrial undertakings would be discouraged. Your committee cannot express their opinion on the question of the public policy involved in the existing law, better than by adopting the language of the distinguished American judge, who decided the case of *Farwell v. The Boston & Worcester Railway Corporation*: 'when several persons are employed in the conduct of one common enterprise or undertaking, and the safety of each depends much upon the care and skill with which each other shall perform his appropriate duty, each is an observer of the conduct of the other, can give notice of any misconduct, incapacity or neglect of duty, and leave the service if the common employer will not take such precautions, and employ such

agents as the safety of the whole party may require. By these means, the safety of each will be much more effectually secured than could be done by a resort to the common employer for an indemnity, in the case of loss of life by the negligence of each other.'

"10. Your committee, therefore, are of opinion that no case is made out for any alteration in the law relating to the liability of employers to their workmen for injury in the course of their employment, except in the matters to which they now proceed to refer.

"11. A master is not altogether free from liability to his servant for injuries resulting in the course of his employment. If it can be shown that the master has omitted to provide the servant with proper materials and resources for the work (such as engines or scaffolding), or has been negligent in the choice of the persons to whom he intrusts the supply of such materials, or the arrangement of such work, or has been guilty of want of care in the selection of proper servants, the master is liable, even to his own servant, for any injury resulting from such omission or negligence. But, to establish this liability, it must be brought home to the master personally. The development of modern industry has created large numbers of employing bodies, such as corporations and public companies, to whom it is not possible to bring home such personal default; and there are other cases in which masters leave the whole conduct of their business to agents and managers, themselves taking no personal part whatever, either in the supply of materials or in the choice of subordinate servants.

"12. Your committee are of opinion that in cases such as these, that is, where the actual employers cannot personally discharge the duties of masters, or where they deliberately abdicate their functions, and delegate them to agents, the acts or defaults of the agents who thus discharge the duties and fulfil the functions of masters, should be considered as the personal acts or defaults of the principals and employers and should impose the same liability on such principals and employers as they would have been subject to had they been acting personally in the conduct of their business, notwithstanding that such agents are technically in the employment of the principals. The fact of such a delegation of authority would have to be established in each case, but this would not be a matter of difficulty.

"13. Your committee are further of opinion, that the doctrine of common employment has been carried too far, when workmen employed by a contractor, and workmen employed by a person or company who has employed such contractor, are considered as being in the same common employment. Such cases do not come within the limits of the policy on which the law has been justified in paragraph 9 of this report."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT.

(43 and 44 Vic., ch. 42.)

In accordance with the recommendations of the committee, a bill was prepared, which, as amended in the House of Lords, on motion of Lord Beaconsfield, provides, in sections

1 and 2, that common employment, so called, shall not be a defence where a workman receives personal injury : —

1. By reason of any defect in the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the business of the employer, which defect existed in consequence of the negligence of the employer, or of an employee by him entrusted with the duty of guarding against any defect.

2. By reason of the negligence of any person entrusted with superintendence.

3. By reason of the negligence of any superior workman whose orders the person injured was bound to obey.

4. By reason of obeying proper rules or by-laws, or any rule or by-law duly approved by certain public officers therein specified.

5. By reason of the negligence, on a railway, of any person at the time in control of the train.

Unless the person injured knew, or failed, when necessary, to give notice of the defect which caused the injury.

Section 3 limits the sum recoverable as compensation.

Section 4 limits the time for recovery of compensation.

Section 5 makes any penalty received by any other act part payment.

Section 6 relates to the trial of actions.

Section 7 provides for the service of a notice of any injury received.

Sections 8, 9, and 10, respectively, define terms used in the act, tell when it shall go into operation, by what title it shall be called, and how long it shall continue in force.

FARWELL v. BOSTON & WORCESTER RAILROAD CONSIDERED.

This case was decided in 1842, and was a case of first impression. It contains substantially all the arguments which in forty succeeding years have been adduced by the courts in favor of the rule therein adopted. The cause of action was the crushing of an engineer's right hand, through the negligence of a brakeman, a fellow-servant in the defendant's employ, in throwing the engineer's train from the track. The opinion is by Chief Justice Shaw, and follows, with elaborations, the line of defence laid down in Judge Fletcher's brief for the defendant. Charles G. Loring was counsel for the plaintiff. Judge Shaw, in his opinion, says that the case must rest either, first, upon the principle known as *respondet superior*, which makes every master liable, in tort, to third persons, for the negligence of a servant, so long as the servant acts within the ordinary scope of his authority (1 Bl. Com. 431; and 3 McQueen, H. L. 300-306); or, second, the master must be liable in contract, because public

policy requires the law to imply, in the contract of service, a contract of indemnity against the negligence of a fellow-servant. The principle of *respondeat superior*, requiring reparation, rests upon the great principle that every member of society is in duty bound to so manage his affairs as to do no injury to another. It matters not whether he acts by his own hand or by that of his duly authorized agent or servant; because whatever he does by the hand of another, he does by his own hand. (*Qui facit per alium facit per se.*) This ground, which is, as has been seen, the one upon which the advocates of a change of the law rest in part their arguments, was unfortunately abandoned by Mr. Loring, the plaintiff's counsel, and very little considered by the court.

The second ground was said to rest upon the further principle that where, in the contract of service, there is no express contract determining whether the master is liable, the court has a right to make for the parties what is called an implied contract. Public policy, it is said, allows and requires the courts to imply a promise, "arising from the duty of the master to be responsible to each person employed by him, in the conduct of every branch of business where two or more persons are employed, to pay for all damage occasioned by the negligence of every other person employed in the same service." His duty, if it exists, would only be analogous to the duty resting upon every common carrier, to make reparation for any injury to merchandise entrusted to him which was not caused by the act of God, or the act of a public enemy; as it would also be analogous to the obligation resting upon an innkeeper to make reparation for any injury occurring to the baggage of his guests.

Having carefully laid down the two legal propositions upon which either an action of tort or an action of contract can be maintained, Judge Shaw proceeded to argue that the servant cannot recover in tort, because the relations existing between him and his master are "regulated by the express or implied contract between them; and he cannot recover in contract, because, although there is an express or implied contract, it is not a contract of indemnity." There seems to be a fallacy in this reasoning. It is based upon a wrong premise of fact, that there are no causes of action

with remedies, both in tort and contract. If stated in the syllogistic form, it would read thus:—

Major premise,—There is no cause of action for which there is a remedy both in tort and contract.

Minor premise,—If the servant has any remedy, it is in contract.

Conclusion,—But there is no remedy in contract; therefore, the servant has no remedy. The major premise is false in fact, because there are causes of action with a double remedy both in tort and contract. For instance, a person may become liable by the same act (which is the cause of action) in tort for an assault, and in contract for a breach of a bond given the plaintiff to keep the peace. Again, a common carrier may be liable in tort for the conversion of merchandise entrusted to him for safe delivery, and in contract for breach of a special promise to deliver it to the person to whom it is directed. The person injured may be obliged to elect whether he will proceed in tort or in contract, but he nevertheless has both remedies. The dilemma, then, contained in the major premise of Judge Shaw, is what in logic is called a false dilemma. A servant who is injured by the negligence of a fellow-servant has likewise, say the advocates of a change of the law, two remedies,—one in tort, under the principle called *respondeat superior*, and one in contract, under an implied contract of indemnity; though, before trying his action, he may be obliged to elect which remedy he will pursue.

If, however, he has only one of these remedies, it matters not for the purposes of this discussion whether it is a remedy in tort, as trespass on the case for consequential damage, under the principle of *respondeat superior*, or a remedy in contract, by virtue of an implied contract.

REASONS IN SUPPORT OF THE LAW AS IT EXISTS CONSIDERED.

A careful consideration of this opinion, of the opinion of Lord Abinger in *Priestly v. Fowler*,* of the opinions of the South Carolina judges in *Murray v. S. C. Railroad*,† of the judgments of the House of Lords in the cases of the Bartons-

* 3 M. & W. 1.

† 1 McMallon, 385.

hill Coal Co. *v.* Reid and *v.* McGuire,* of the opinion of Judge Strong in Sherman *v.* The Syracuse & Rochester R. R. † (the first case in New York which does any more than quote the earlier authority of other courts), and various other leading cases in the various States, has deduced the following reasons in support of the law as therein laid down, which, in a spirit of candor and deference, will be carefully considered *seriatim*.

I. — *Is the Servant the Master's Agent?*

The master, it is said, is not responsible, because the servant who caused the injury is not his agent.

That he is his agent for certain purposes there can be no doubt. He is his agent for certain purposes by virtue of his being a servant. Whether he is an agent for the purpose of doing the particular act which causes the injury, is the real question, which must carefully be kept in mind to avoid, what is the cause of so many disagreements and discussions, confusion in the use of terms. This is a question to be decided by an interpretation of the words which were used when creating the agency, aided by a full knowledge of the authority usually conveyed by terms of general agency. For instance, whether A has authorized B to do a certain act, is a question of fact to be decided by interpreting the words A used. If, for example, A was the owner of a cotton-mill, and should tell the engineer to turn the steam on five minutes before the usual time, and while the weavers were cleaning their looms; and if one of them through this act of negligence should be injured, there would be no doubt that the engineer did a certain act; no doubt that, for the purpose of doing this act, he stood in the owner's place, acting within the scope of authority conferred; no doubt that, in the usual and legal meaning of the words, he was his agent.

But suppose, further, that the owner denies that he told the engineer to turn on the steam. How can the question of agency be determined? It is a question of fact, is it not, and not a question of law? And, as a question of fact, and not of law, it must be determined upon a full knowledge of

* 3 McQueen, 266 and 300.

† 17 N. Y. 153.

all the circumstances, the *res gestæ*, as presented by the testimony of whoever knows about the circumstances.

And suppose, further, that there were no words used, but that the steam was turned on, as is usually the case, by virtue of a general authority as engineer. It remains still a question of fact, which must be determined with the aid of any evidence which can be given as to the authority which this engineer had, or which engineers usually have. It is still, however, a question of fact. If the engineer did an act which caused an injury, is it for the court to say, as matter of law, that he was not, for the purpose of doing this act, his employer's agent? Had the steam been turned on in the exercise of a general authority, and no injury had resulted, the agency would not have been disputed. Now that an injury has resulted, can the court say, as matter of law, that because the act happened to work an injury, no agency existed? It is the same act, whether it did or did not cause an injury.

The circumstances of no two cases are alike, and each question of agency must be decided upon its own particular circumstances. Are they not questions of fact which, as was done by the Scotch judges in *Wilson v. Merrý*, should be left to a jury? Should the judges attempt to say beforehand that in every case where a servant injures a fellow-servant he is not his master's agent? Are they not passing upon a fact which should be left to a jury? Are they not stepping beyond the boundaries of their legitimate province? Is not law so made what is called judge-made law?

II. — *Is the Rule of Non-Liability the Better Policy?*

“Considerations of public policy and general convenience, which are the basis upon which implied contracts rest, require that employees should take their own risk. For example, railway travel would be less safe if the employee knew that in case of injury he could recover damages of his employer. To compel him to take his own risk is strongly calculated to secure his fidelity and prudence.”

This is an argument which is of course based upon experience. It means that, from a knowledge of human nature, there is danger that employees might injure themselves for

the express purpose of recovering damages. This argument (first used by Lord Abinger in *Priestly v. Fowler*), has been repeated often in defence of the existing rule. It is, however, a question which judges are no better capable of deciding than other equally intelligent and experienced men, and one of those questions of fact which the policy of the law has usually referred to juries.

While, no doubt, there are those who would be purposely careless, — for all men are not always honest, — are not such men exceptional? Most people are honest. Most people are prudent. Most people prefer sound limbs and bones; prefer life, health or happiness to death, suffering or misery. Most people are averse to pain. Is not this as true of railroad employees as of the generality of people? Rules of law are made to meet the majority, not the minority, of cases. Is it just or wise to establish so important a rule through fear that a few persons should be dishonest to their employers, and cruel to themselves? Is it not compelling too many to suffer for the probable sins of a few? Is it not depriving too many of a benefit, lest a few should acquire more than they deserve? Is it not refusing to do justice to the many, lest the few should abuse a right? Is it not making too low an estimate of human nature, to think that employees would injure themselves, and perhaps others, in order to get money damages? Should the lives and happiness of all railroad employees, and perhaps the happiness of their wives and children, be left without the damage-right allowed to passengers, lest a few dishonest officers should abuse the right by exposing themselves to the risks and uncertainties of an injury? It should be remembered, as has been elsewhere suggested, that this argument, based upon public policy, is one which comes more properly within the province of legislators, who, in a form of government like ours, are the rightful determiners of what laws the public policy of the country requires.

III. — *Does the Employee Take the Risks of the Employment?*

The employee, it is said, takes the risks of the employment by entering into it with his eyes open.

That in a legal point of view, so long as the law remains as at present, he takes the risks of the employment, there is no doubt. If he is injured, under the law, as it exists, he can recover no damages; and every man, according to a well-known legal maxim, is presumed to know the law. But the argument rests, not upon this presumption of law, nor upon the fact that a servant, if injured, cannot, under the law, recover damages of his employer. It must rest, in order to have any force, upon another presumption,—a presumption of fact,—that the employee, at the time of entering into the contract of service, actually thinks of the question of damages, and actually decides to take his own risk. In order that this argument may have full force, it is necessary to presume that the employee at such a time actually stops to think of the possibility of his being injured; stops to think of the question of liability for damages in case of injury; that he realizes, with full knowledge of the law, that his employer is not liable, but that he must take upon himself the risk of recovering damages. Unless the employment is a dangerous one, it is improbable that, when engaging to work, the idea of personal injury ever enters his mind. When he enters into a dangerous employment, it is improbable that he would think of the question, who is liable to him for damages in case of injury. Though all men know that they must die, few men, in a healthy state of mind, ever quite realize that the shaft of death is likely to strike them at any moment. We see men dying around us,—friends and neighbors; see others sick or meeting with accidents; but never quite expect that a similar fate will overtake us. We read that an acquaintance has been killed by a railroad accident; has received an injury from a fall of snow while passing a building; has been drowned by the capsizing of a boat; has been accidentally shot: but we go on as before, riding in cars, sailing in boats, or carrying fire-arms. Is not the same true of the employee? Does he stop to think that he may be injured? that he may be in need of compensation in damages? that he cannot recover them of his employer? How many passengers, when they buy their railway tickets, stop to think that they do *not* take their own risks? Why should these same persons, when

entering into a contract of employment, stop to think that they *do* take their own risks? The argument that the employee takes the risk of the employment with his eyes open seems to be open to exception.

IV. — *Is the Price of Labor Proportionate to the Risk of the Employment? **

It is further said in these judicial opinions, as a corollary of the preceding argument, that the employee is paid for taking the risk by proportionately higher wages. This argument, like all of the preceding, is based upon a presumption of fact, derived from experience.

What regulates the price of labor? Political economy, which deals so much with general theories, tells us that the price of labor generally depends upon the ratio of the demand to the supply, which itself is regulated by the proportion between the number of laborers and the circulating capital employed directly in the purchase of labor. There are various other causes which assist in determining the price of labor, such as the state of trade, the price of food, rent, the price of the commodities used by laborers, the increase or decrease of population; but, more than all, the prevailing standard of living.

There are various causes of the increase or decrease of the price of labor inherent in the nature of the employment; such as the cleanliness or dignity of the employment, the ease or difficulty with which it is learned, constancy or inconstancy of occupation, the degree of confidence required, the responsibility reposed, the certainty or uncertainty of success. There is also no doubt that wages ought to depend in part upon the security or danger attending an employment. But whether they do or not cannot be known except theoretically, as facts which seem reasonable are taken for granted — upon the theory that what ought to be is — without an accurate knowledge of a vast mass of facts, and a calculation and comparison of figures. This does not appear to have been done by the judges, nor by any one, with much nicety and accuracy. The committees of the English Parliament made some examination of the question, by asking the opinions of various employers of

* See p. 85, *post*.

labor and men of large experience in business affairs. The investigation elicited the fact that the risk of the employment had very little effect upon wages. A Somersetshire collier, working in an employment more than ordinarily dangerous, receives 3s. 6d. a day; while a joiner, whose occupation is attended with little if any danger, receives 5s. a day. The problem can be determined in a general way, by ascertaining whether railroad employees are generally better paid than workmen in less dangerous occupations, than farmers or laborers, for instance, in proportion to their services. It can be determined with a little more nicety by ascertaining whether brakemen and shunters, who are engaged in the most dangerous employment, that of coupling cars, are really paid more or less than other employees of like capacity.

On the English railways the shunter receives from 20 shillings to 30 shillings per week, — less pay than any other employee, and about half as much as an engineer. A “green” shunter — one who has just begun to work — receives from 20 shillings to 22 shillings; while an experienced shunter, who is more useful to the company and less careless of himself, receives on an average from 25 shillings to 30 shillings per week. Both receive less than a porter, whose labor is less dangerous.

V. — *Grades of Common Employment.*

As soon as the term common employment came into use, it was evident that there would be difficulty in defining its limitations. Should common employment, as a defence to actions for damages, include all employees who work for a common employer, or only those who work side by side in the same kind of occupation? Should it include, for instance, all the men who work in a colliery, or should it distinguish between the half dozen or more different occupations, — the men who go first into the mine, to test for coal gas, and see if the mine is fit to work in; the miners, who work with pick and shovel; the men at the mouth of the pit, who attend to the hoisting machinery; the foremen of the various gangs of workmen; the managing engineer and his special assistants, who give the general directions as to the sinking and work-

ing of the shaft. In a crude way, Lord Abinger, in the first case decided, cited by way of analogy various instances where, as he thought, the law would work a hardship, most of which were taken from household and menial service, where no sensible man claims that distinctions should be made. But now that the gigantic and manifold operations of business have outgrown the crude simplicity of those primitive days of the development of manufactures, railroads and the mechanic arts, the importance of drawing distinctions is more apparent and necessary.

The Scotch judges, with singular foresight and discretion, saw that the rule could not with justice be made to apply to every person who worked for one employer, and was paid, directly or indirectly, from the same purse; saw the injustice of making a workman suffer in consequence of the negligence of one whom he did not control, knew nothing about, and perhaps had never seen; and attempted to solve the problem of common employment, first, by making an employer liable for the acts of an employee engaged in an occupation entirely dissimilar to that of the person injured; afterwards, by allowing all the circumstances of the employment to be submitted to a jury, who should decide whether, upon consideration of all the facts, the relation between the fellow-employees was so distinct that one ought not to be compelled to suffer for the negligence of the other.

The English and American courts had, however, gone so far in the direction of making common employment include every man who worked for a common employer, that when in 1868 the case of *Wilson v. Merry*,* on appeal from the Scotch courts, came before the House of Lords, the distinctions which had been drawn in Scotland were overruled.

And when again the same question came before the courts of New York, Judge Strong, in the case of *Sherman v. The Syracuse & Rochester Railroad*,† declined to make any distinction, principally for the reason that it would be difficult to draw the line, and say when the occupations were so similar that the employer should not be liable. This, were it the only reason given, would be equivalent to a refusal to do justice in a court of justice, because of the difficulty of making an attempt.

* L. R., 1 Scotch Appeals, 326.

† 17 N. Y. 153-156.

The hardship of this rule will be seen when the severity of its application is realized ; when it is remembered that it includes a carpenter building a shed, and the engineer whose negligence kills him ; a weaver, and the engineer who starts the factory machinery before the usual hour ; a hod-carrier, and a slater who, at work for a sub-contractor, drops a slate upon the former's head ; a factory girl, and an architect who, without sufficient professional skill, designs a factory building that falls in ; a brakeman, and a switchman who sleeps at his post of duty ; the baggage-master of one train, and the conductor of another, who disregards the company's time-table ; a laborer riding home from his day's work, and the superintendent who carelessly causes a collision ; all the employees on a train, and the mechanical engineer in the company's employ, who makes the plans of a bridge which gives way, as in the recent horrible disaster at Ashtabula.

VI. — *Is there Need of Further Legislation to Protect Labor?*

It is further urged by the courts, in support of the rule laid down, that the employee is as free to choose his employment as the employer to select his workman ; that, if he wishes, he can avoid a dangerous employment, or point out defects in machinery, or incompetency in fellow-workmen, as well as his employer can. It should not, however, be forgotten that the employee has no supervision or direction over the work ; that he is usually hired and paid by the day or month ; that employers, as a class, are chary of receiving from their workmen suggestions as to how the work should be conducted, or complaints against fellow-workmen ; that workmen usually do not occupy the same position of independence as their employers ; and if, in the hurry of business, they are too much afraid of taking risks, or too much inclined to make complaints, they may receive, instead of encouragement, an unceremonious dismissal. They are at best but sailors, so to speak, on the ship, whose duty it is to man the yards, furl the sails, scour the decks, as the captain orders ; the captain usually prefers to keep the reckoning, take the longitude, and direct the ship's course himself. Business is not conducted by stump speeches and

electioneering, as caucuses are, nor controlled by ballots and majorities. The employment is usually solicited by the laborer. He, too often, has little money in his purse, and often a large and hungry family to maintain. There are usually many more laborers than hirers of labor. If the laborer is too scrupulous as to the qualifications of his employer, some less particular man may get the place. Employers seldom stand on the corners of the streets with certificates of fitness in their hands. Poverty is a blind critic, as well as hard taskmaster. There is no risk it will shrink from incurring, no burden it will not assume. Poverty is the arch-enemy of safety. While Capital, with leisurely care, can select the channels through which it will run, the industries it will set in motion, the wheels it will turn, and the railroads it will operate, Poverty must labor when and wherever it can, often with one eye blind to dangers, and one shoulder bent beneath an unequal load.

Although courts cannot interpose to lighten this burden, is not this a fitting opportunity for the legislature to interfere for the protection of labor? Is it not another occasion when the legislature ought to interpose, and lighten the heavier scale of justice by transferring the risk of personal injury from the scale of labor to that of capital? Would not this tend to raise the wages of persons engaged in dangerous employments, by compelling employers, upon whom would rest a heavier responsibility, to be more careful in the selection and discharge of their workmen? Would it not, in railway travel especially, make the general public more secure by ensuring the employment of more trusty, because better paid, workmen?

Should it be said that the employee can now oblige the employer to use due care in the selection of his workmen, by a suit for damages in case of neglect, the answer springs at once to the lips that this is at best a barren right, because in enforcing it it is practically almost impossible to prove that due care has not been exercised. This, like the other right to compel the employer to use due care in the selection of his materials, machinery and plant, is, both to the employees and the general public, because of the difficulty of proving his neglect to provide them, practically a worthless security.

VII. — *Should a Contract of Liability be Implied?*

The controlling reason given by the courts in support of the rule laid down, is that the law does not imply a contract of liability.

This is a strictly legal reason, based, however, like each of the reasons previously considered, upon a presumption of fact. What is an implied contract? It is a contract which, in the absence of an express contract between the parties, is implied by the courts. It is, in other words, a contract which, where the parties have failed to express their meaning, the court puts into words for them. It is, however, always based upon a presumption of fact as to what their meaning was.

By virtue of what right does a court assume to put the contract into words? By virtue of considerations of public policy. By virtue of the assumed, but now undisputed right of the courts to say that public policy requires them to express in words what the parties themselves actually meant, or what they ought to have meant. For example, if the grocer sends to a customer's house, upon an order, a barrel of flour, considerations of public policy allow the courts to imply that the customer meant, or ought to have meant, when he gave the order, to pay a reasonable price for the flour. The words "public policy," in order to have any meaning, must mean the public policy of the State or country to which the court rendering the decree belongs. Of this right, Judge Shaw, in the opinion so often referred to, says: "In considering the rights and obligations arising out of particular relations, it is competent for courts of justice to regard considerations of policy and general convenience, and to draw from them such rules as will, in their practical application, best promote the safety and security of all parties concerned. This is, in truth, the basis on which implied promises are raised, being duties legally inferred from a consideration of what is best adapted to promote the benefit of all persons concerned, under given circumstances." He illustrates this principle by the well-known instance of common carriers of merchandise, for whom the courts make an implied contract of liability, amounting to a warranty that merchandise

entrusted to them shall be safely delivered to the persons for whom it is intended; by the case of inn-keepers, for whom the courts imply a contract of insurance against fire, and warranty that the baggage of their guests shall be kept from injury; by the case of common carriers of passengers, for whom the courts imply a contract to render compensation in damages to those passengers who may be injured through their negligence or the negligence of their agents.

As soon as this principle — that courts, in the absence of an express contract, have a right to imply for the parties a contract in harmony with the public policy and general convenience of the country — is taken into consideration, it at once occurs to any one that if, in the judgment of Lord Abinger, who in 1837 decided the first case upon this subject, the public policy of England had required the adoption of a different rule from the one laid down, the first precedent would have been different, and employers would have been held liable for injuries caused to their servants by the neglect of fellow-servants. It is likewise apparent, if the first case had been different, that when, shortly afterwards, the courts of South Carolina and the courts of Massachusetts were called upon to apply the rule to the liability of railroad corporations, they would have followed this precedent, had they not thought that the public policy of their respective States required the opposite rule. It is likewise apparent that when these latter judges, during the infant days of railroad and manufacturing enterprises, in the exercise of their discretion, adopted so severe a policy of protection, they might have mistaken the true policy of the country; apparent that they and their followers virtually became political economists, and laid down upon this subject the public policy of two great countries; and apparent that this rule is not in harmony with the usual policy which protects American capital against foreign competition, because it protects it at the expense of our own laborers. It is equally clear that they became makers of law rather than judicial interpreters. And not only is it clear that their opinions, which are judge-made law, may have been founded upon a wrong theory as to what was the true policy of the State or country, but it is also plain that what was thought by these judicial political

economists to be the true theory, may, in the growth of years and knowledge, be judged of differently by legislatures of the present time, who certainly have as well acknowledged a right to legislate concerning the continuance or discontinuance of the policy of protecting great monopolies at the expense of their employees; and the English Parliament has seen fit to change the policy of England by adopting a new theory.

HOW LARGE EMPLOYERS ESCAPE LIABILITY.

Every man is liable for his own torts and breaches of contract. This is elemental law. Every man is liable for injury inflicted by personal negligence. If, while driving through the streets, he carelessly runs over some one, he is liable. If, while conducting a small manufacturing business, he injures one of his workmen by his personal negligence, he is also liable. If, while running a small cotton factory, which is under his own management and supervision, he carelessly, with his own hand, starts the engine before some workman, while cleaning the machinery in obedience to his orders, has finished, he is liable for the results of his personal negligence.

But if, as business increases and more workmen are employed, he hires a superintendent to direct the work and oversee these men, he thereby escapes liability for personal injuries. The superintendent, it may be, works strictly under his orders, doing precisely what he is told to do. The superintendent is his agent, duly authorized and commissioned. He works strictly within the scope of his acknowledged authority; he never disobeys an order; and all the details of the business are done strictly in harmony with the general authority conferred. He is, it may be, in every legal sense, the employer's other self. His hand is his employer's hand, his eye, the eye of his employer. His hand, his eye, his every act, are guided by a mind so much in harmony with the desires and interests of his employer, that it may almost be called the employer's mind.

We may go still further in our supposition: the superintendent may be even more expert and competent than his employer. He may, perhaps, have had a better training,

a larger experience; he may have learned his trade in a better school, and better understand the secrets and difficulties of the business. If a mechanic, he may be a better mechanic. If a machinist, he may be more adept. If a manufacturer, he may be more skilful. If a railroad superintendent, he may better understand the construction of locomotives, the control and management of trains. If a mining engineer or superintendent, he may know better than his employer how shafts are sunk, and coal or ore is mined.

All this, however, makes no difference. The eye of the law is blind to all these advantages. The employer, by the very act of hiring an agent or superintendent, has relieved himself from such liability for personal injuries to his employees. He is still liable, as before, to third persons, to all the outside world. If a stranger, a passer-by, a visitor, a passenger, is injured, he must make reparation. But the law, by a just or unjust exception, gives him liberty to escape damages from injuries to his employees, so long as they are caused by the negligent hand of a duly authorized agent.

HOW CORPORATIONS ESCAPE LIABILITY.

The same rule which excepts large employers of laborers, excepts also corporations. With them it works with added force. A corporation is an incorporeal being, a creature of the law. It is an impersonality. It has neither birth nor parentage. It knows no father but the State. The State is only its foster-father. It does nothing of itself; does all its acts by the hands of agents. Like the fabled daughter of Jove, it is invisible, yet by its influence controls the acts and guides the hands perhaps of hundreds. But whatever is done for it by the hand of an agent, is, in the eye of the law, done by its own hand. It is responsible for the acts of its agents, as corporeal beings are. The maxim, *Qui facit per alium facit per se*, — “What you do by the hand of another you do by your own hand,” — applies to corporations as well as to persons. To this general rule there is, however, one exception. It is not liable for the acts of its agent when those acts cause personal injury to another

agent. It is not liable for these acts, because both agents are fellow-employees of the corporation.

The hardship of this exception becomes more manifest when we remember that persons—almost any and every person, three or seven, according as the law requires—engaged in business may become a corporation by applying to the Secretary of State, and conforming to the simple requirements of the corporation act. By this process of incorporation persons are not changed or regenerated, but their legal liability becomes changed. As persons, they were liable for their personal negligence; as a corporation, they are not persons, and therefore not liable for their own negligence. Neither are they, as we have seen, liable for the negligence of their agents, when this negligence causes personal injury to fellow-agents. For any act of an employee which causes personal injury to another employee, is an act done by a person who is a fellow-employee of the person receiving the injury. Corporations thus escape all such liabilities.* When it is realized how much of the business of the world is done by corporations, how many manufacturing and railroad corporations there are, how extensive are their operations, and how many thousands of workmen they employ, the importance of this exemption from liability will be better appreciated.

ACCIDENTS UPON RAILROADS.

“In the providence of God there are no accidents,” said one of Massachusetts’ most honored sons, in commencing his eulogy on Abraham Lincoln. This truth, so tersely expressed, applies with equal force to persons killed upon our railroads. No man dies without a cause, though the cause and the causer may remain alike unknown. Every death upon a railroad, like every death by violence, is the result of somebody’s negligence or wilfulness. How many persons in this Commonwealth are annually killed or injured through some one’s negligence, can never be known. It is probable that from ninety-five to ninety-eight per cent. of them are either the proximate or remote cause of their own injuries. They are the victims of either their sole or their

* See *Howells v. Landore*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 62; and *Wilson v. Merry*, before cited.

contributory negligence; and, in either event, the law excludes them from recovering damages. A good proof of this estimate is furnished by the records of the courts as compared with the number of accidents. In how few of the hundreds of instances where persons are killed or injured are damages recovered!

The railroad is the most fruitful field of violent deaths. According to the Railroad Commissioners' Report for 1882, there were 9,651 train accidents in the United States from 1873 to 1881, inclusive; 1,117 of them causing one or more deaths; 1,676 causing one or more injuries. There were 2,372 persons killed, and 9,387 persons injured. During the year ending September 30, 1881, there were in the United States 1,481 train accidents, as reported in "The Railroad Gazette," by which 438 persons were killed, and 1,644 persons injured. By the Report of the English Board of Trade, the number of train accidents and collisions on the railroads of Great Britain, with their results, is as follows* :—

Total number killed,	1,135
Total number injured,	3,959
Passengers killed,	142
Passengers injured,	1,614
Persons killed on railroad premises, not resulting from the movement of trains,	45
Persons injured on railroad premises, not resulting from the movement of trains,	2,733
Employees killed (including employees of contractors),	546
Employees injured (including employees of contractors),	2,080

Of 5,084 persons killed or injured in England by the movement of trains, in nine years, 2,620 were employees, which is over fifty per cent.

During the year ending September 30, 1881, according to Table C of the Appendix to said report†, there were, in this Commonwealth :—

Total number killed,	184
Total number injured,	231
Passengers killed or injured,	42
Employees killed or injured,	200
Trespassers killed or injured,	126

* See Mass. Railroad Commissioners' Report, 1882, pp. 21, 22.

† *Ibid*, p. 62.

At highway crossings and stations, killed or injured, . . .	47
Passengers killed or injured by causes beyond their own control,	11
Passengers killed or injured through their own carelessness, .	31
Employees killed or injured, train men,	167
Other employees killed or injured,	33
Total employees killed or injured,	200

Of 415 persons killed or injured within the year, 200 (about 50 per cent) were employees, 167 of them being employed in the management of trains.

These facts are furnished to the State by the various railroads themselves. There is no record published of the causes of accidents to employees; but it is probable that from 75 to 95 per cent of the 200 were injured by their own contributory negligence.

It will thus be seen that the effect of a change in existing common law will not be so widespread and injurious to the interests of the railroad corporations of the Commonwealth as has sometimes been apprehended.

It is difficult to tell with accuracy the causes of these injuries to employees. No record of causes is published by the Railroad Commissioners, though it is highly probable that the railroad companies keep, for their own protection in case a suit is brought, a record of each injury, its cause, and the circumstances connected with it. This has been the custom of the English companies. James Grierson, the General Manager of the Great Western Railway, testified in 1877 before a Parliamentary committee, "that every accident, even down to the pinching of a man's thumb, was kept a record of by the Great Western Board for many years before an act was passed requiring the accidents to be reported to the Board of Trade; that is, I mean, accidents to servants." As to the proportion of accidents caused by the contributory negligence of employees, Mr. George Finlay, Traffic Manager of the London and North Western Railway, testified before the same committee as follows: "There were 83 who lost their lives; and, of those 83, 77 men were killed through their own want of caution, and three deaths resulted from the acts of their fellow-servants, and three from other causes beyond their control; so that in 77 cases the men were contributory, by their own negligence, to their

death, which unfortunately occurred, and in six other cases they were not contributory."

When asked if the same proportion of employees were injured through their contributory negligence, he was unable to answer the question accurately from statistics which he had brought with him.

Out of 83 employees killed, it appears that three were killed by the negligence of fellow-employees, which is $3\frac{6}{10}$ per cent, the other $96\frac{4}{10}$ per cent being killed by their own contributory negligence. These data are meagre, but are all that have been obtained.

According to an investigation made by Cornelius Walford, a well-known English statistician, and published in the *Journal of the London Statistical Society*, vol. XLIV., part iii., September, 1881, there are, per annum, in Great Britain and Ireland, 12,000 deaths by accident and violence, — about one in every thousand (p. 512); and as, according to the tables of the accident insurance companies, there are 99 non-fatal accidents to one fatal, he estimates the number of injuries annually occurring in Great Britain and Ireland at 1,200,000. The ratio of fatal to non-fatal accidents in the dangerous employments he estimates as three to one hundred (p. 513), because the severity of the injury increases the number of fatal accidents. Mr. Neison, in his report in the January number, 1880, of the same journal, estimates the ratio of fatal to non-fatal accidents upon railways to be two and one-half per thousand on the passenger traffic lines, and three and one-half per thousand on the lines doing likewise a heavy goods and freight traffic (p. 51); and from the actual experience of the Miners' Permanent Relief Fund he estimates the ratio of miners temporarily disabled at 140 to 190 per thousand, and fatally injured at two and three-tenths to three and six-tenths per thousand; in case of railway employees, 84 per thousand temporarily disabled, and three per thousand fatally injured (p. 502).

ARE COMPLETE RETURNS OF INJURIES MADE TO THE RAILROAD COMMISSIONERS?

It is a matter of State pride that our railroads show as low an average of deaths and injuries as the railroads of other

States and countries. Without intending to impeach the accuracy of the reports of injuries made by the various railroads of the State, it is worthy of remark that the ratio of the number of injuries to the number of deaths is very small.

The number of deaths is, without doubt, correctly reported. Any one desirous of verifying the returns could easily do so by examining the reports of coroners and medical examiners; and perhaps the district attorneys, to whom these officers report each death, keep a record sufficiently complete for this information. Why is it that so many are killed, while comparatively so few are injured? In 1882, for instance, 184 were killed, and only 231 other persons were injured. In 1881, 146 were killed, and only 200 were injured. A railroad train is, to be sure, a fatal instrument of destruction; but why should it be more fatal here than in other States and countries? During the last nine years, 1,266 were killed, and only 1,478 were reported as injured; while during the same years, in the United States, according to the "Railroad Gazette," 2,372 persons were killed, and 9,387 injured, — almost three persons injured for every one killed. It likewise appears by the Railroad Commissioners' Report for 1882, that the total number killed on the railroads of Great Britain in 1880 was 1,135, and the total number injured was 3,959, — more than three persons injured to one who was killed. In 1875 there were, according to the reports of the English Board of Trade, 765 killed, and 3,618 injured, — about five injured to one killed, — on the London and North Western Railway. In 1876, 83 were killed, and 1,898 injured, in the workshops and working the trains, — nearly 23 injured to one killed.

There is, no doubt, a difference of opinion as to what constitutes an injury. One corporation may think that a person is not injured unless he is so severely hurt as to be obliged to lose an arm or a leg, or is unfitted for work for the rest of his life. Another may say that the pinching of a thumb so as to lose the nail is an injury. And if each corporation were to be its own judge as to what injuries to report, it is probable that only severe injuries would be reported.

The accuracy and completeness of reports of the English railways to the Board of Trade were called in question

several years ago, and Mr. Edwin Phillips made an examination and report upon a part of the subject. In this connection it may be well to give a summary of the results which he obtained. He says that a thousand men were killed by the railroads of Great Britain in 1872, while only 590 lost their lives from shipwrecks and other casualties along the coasts. He found that the Lancashire and Yorkshire Company, which had made a return of 39 employees killed, and 73 injured more or less seriously, during the year 1872, had actually killed 54, and injured 1,367, — more than 25 injured to one who was killed. He says further: "The Lancashire and Yorkshire Company have close upon 14,000 men in their employ, but full 4,000 of this number may be deducted for clerks and other officials, who never have to incur danger; so that, taking the number of out-door servants at 10,000, it will be seen that there was one killed to every 185 employed, and one injured to every seven employed. Reckoning the number of railway men on all the lines in the kingdom at 200,000, it may be safely inferred that 1,080 men were killed in 1872, instead of 632, as given in the official returns; and 27,340 injured, instead of 1,395. So that nearly as many men were injured on the particular line referred to, as the Board of Trade returns give for the whole kingdom. It may be added (as I pointed out in my report published in the 'Times,' December 20th, 1873) that the result of some investigations conducted by a committee of the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce strikingly bear out the correctness of my figures. And no person is included among those injured whose injury was not of so serious a nature as to incapacitate the sufferer from following his usual employment for several days."* Mr. Cornelius Walford, in an article upon "the number of deaths from accidents," etc., in the September (1881) number of the "London Statistical Journal," estimates the ratio of fatal to non-fatal accidents in dangerous employments as three to 100, basing his estimate upon facts gathered from the tables of accident insurance companies.

The inference from these facts is, that accidents upon our railroads are more fatal than upon railroads generally

* Fortnightly Review, March, 1874.

throughout the United States and Great Britain ; or else that all injuries so serious as to incapacitate the sufferer for work for several days are not reported.

PROBABLE AMOUNT OF DAMAGES FROM A CHANGE IN THE
LAW.

As bearing upon the question of the probable compensation paid annually in damages by railroads, for personal injuries caused to passengers, an elaborate calculation made by Mr. Galt, an English statistician, and published in an earlier number of the "Fortnightly Review," shows that the English railways expend for this cause 2½d. in every sovereign of their total expenditures, or about one per cent of their total disbursements. The ratio of the number of passengers killed without their contributory negligence, in the United Kingdom, to the number of passenger trips, was : —

In 1877, one in 50,144,876.

In 1876, one in 14,165,455.

In 1874, one in 5,556,284.

Of the 2,500,000 persons employed in the factories and workshops of Great Britain during the year ending with the 31st of October, 1879, 5,333 received fatal or other injuries, or only about one in every 468 persons employed.

In Massachusetts, during the year 1882, the ratio of persons killed, without their contributory negligence, to the number of "passenger trips," including the trips of season-ticket holders, was one in 20,927,034 ; and the ratio of persons injured was one in 667,300. According to the testimony of Mr. Evans, the General Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of Great Britain, of 4,383 persons killed or injured, no instance came to the knowledge of the society where damages were recovered ; although 39 of them were killed, and 514 injured, according to the companies' reports, from causes beyond their own control.

It is thus seen that however many persons are killed or injured, whether passengers or employees, a very small proportion of either could recover damages ; and if one per cent of the total expenditures covers all the money paid out in the form of damages to passengers, a change in the law

as to the liability to employees killed or injured, who are less in number, can work, it would seem, no great hardship.

CAUSES OF INJURIES TO RAILWAY SERVANTS.

The employees, in almost every instance, are the causers of their own injuries. Can nothing be done to make them more careful? Can no additional precautions be taken to make their employment less dangerous? Two hundred were killed or injured in Massachusetts during the last year. The railroad corporations are under a heavy legal responsibility to protect passengers. They are, in a less degree, responsible for the protection of their employees. Do they take sufficient precautions to protect them? If placed under a heavier legal responsibility, would they do more? These are questions which the employees of the British railways have been considering for years. They have addressed petitions and remonstrances to their employers. They have organized trades unions for mutual protection. They have organized mutual insurance companies. They have petitioned Parliament, setting forth their grievances, and asking for additional legal protection. Ten thousand railway servants signed a memorial, which was presented to the Royal Commission when this subject was under consideration. In this memorial they enumerated specifically, as follows, six of the remote causes of accidents to employees: 1st, Excessive hours of labor; 2d, Non-enforcement of certain of the companies' rules, ostensibly made for the protection of the men; 3d, The non-adoption of the most approved appliances conducive to safety in the working of railways; 4th, The want of proper accommodation for the working of freight and traffic; 5th, The employment of inefficient persons for the performance of responsible duties; 6th, The insufficient number of men employed.

In 1876 Frederick W. Evans was the General Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of Great Britain. He had had a large experience, was familiar with this subject in its breadth as well as in details, and testified before a Parliamentary committee as follows:—

“If you will permit me, I will make a brief statement as to the views which I entertain upon the subject; and as nearly as possible I will

confine my remarks on the subject, in so far as it affects railway servants. Railway servants are, more than any other class, interested in placing on their employers such liabilities as will ensure every precaution being taken for their safety. They are the most interested, because a larger percentage of them are victims of accidents, which, to a very great degree, are of a preventable nature. By the returns which the companies supply to the Board of Trade, it appears that in 1875 alone no less than 4,383 railway servants were killed or injured by accidents on railways. Of this number the companies assert that only 39 were killed, and 514 injured, from causes beyond their own control; while 726 were killed, and 3,104 were injured; from their own misconduct or want of caution. These returns are by the companies. But I look upon the companies as interested parties, and, therefore, not impartial in making such returns. * * * Taking the companies' own figures in the 1875 return as being accurate, there would be even then 553 servants injured by no fault of their own, and to whom, were they not servants, it is probable that the companies would be compelled by law to pay compensation. But, as the law at present (as I understand it) stands, railway servants cannot claim any compensation whatever for the loss they suffer by the acts of others. The companies, at present, are in no way responsible for the safety of their servants. Every act done for a corporate body is the act of a servant; and, whatever the position of that servant to another, any act of his, if injurious to his inferior, the law holds to be the act of a fellow-servant. They are in a common employment. It so happens that, as the law now stands, the life of a railway servant is of less value than the life of a horse; inasmuch as, however gross the mismanagement which produces the death of, or injury to, a servant, there is no responsibility whatever upon the company; whereas, if a horse is injured or killed, it costs the company a certain amount of money in order to replace the animal. It is in consequence of this irresponsibility that companies do not go to any great expense in removing sources of danger to their servants. * * * I hold it to be the duty of the legislature, as the companies cannot act for themselves, but must depute their authority to others, to make the companies responsible for loss sustained by servants through the act of those who wield authority in the companies' names * * * In shunting [switching] operations, about one in every twenty men engaged are killed or injured in the year. This arises, in a great measure, from a practice termed fly-shunting.

"In the companies' rules this practice is generally forbidden; but, while forbidden in the rules, it is nearly everywhere practised with the consent of the companies' officers; and, with the limited accommodation which the railway companies have for working their goods traffic, I question whether the traffic could be carried on without resort to this practice. Where the rules forbade a practice, and it was carried on with the sanction of the companies' officers, I would hold the companies responsible for all accidents to their servants arising from the practice. There are in the railway service a number of officers of various grades, who each to those servants under them represent the employer, and

exercise, so far as such servants are concerned, the authority which an employer has over those employed. Thus, to the ordinary servant on a railway, the manager, superintendent, station master, inspector and foreman, represent the interests and the authority of the employer, or the company. In any case where the actions of such persons in authority, or the actions of others who carry out their instructions, inflict injury to a servant, I hold that, as the officer stands in the position of employer, the company should be liable for loss occasioned by his neglect, indiscretion, or want of judgment. It also happens that one class of servants are under the direction of another class, and are bound to obey their instructions. Thus, the driver is bound to obey the directions given him by the signalman. Should the driver refuse or neglect to do so, and a fatal accident occurred, he would be deemed guilty of manslaughter; and the companies invariably punish any disobedience by drivers to the directions of signalmen. In this case also, the signalman represents the authority of the employer; and if by his wrong direction a driver, or fireman, or guard were injured, I hold that the company should be liable. It has been asserted that men are paid higher wages in proportion to the risk they run. Nothing could be more inaccurate. In dangerous occupations on railways the risk is greatest when the experience is least, and when the rates of wages are lowest. Thus, the risk to a man just started at from 20s. to 22s. per week as a shunter or brakesman is greater than when, by length of service, he has attained to experience and the maximum wage of 25s. or 30s. respectively. Again, the highest wages are not paid to the class of servants who in the performance of duty run the greatest risk. Thus the shunter, whose duties are by far the most dangerous, receives less than the driver, than the goods guard, than the passenger guard, and sometimes than the signalman. The highest wages are given to those classes whose experience is gained by long service, and whose duties are responsible. It is the interest of the companies to induce these men, by offers of higher wages, to remain in the service. If they became migratory, the work of the lines would be carried on with greater risk, inconvenience, and loss to the proprietors. I am, therefore, of opinion that in the consideration of the liability of railway companies to their servants for injuries, it cannot be maintained that higher wages are paid to cover greater risks. The exemption of the employer from liability for claims to compensation for injuries to one servant, caused by the neglect of another servant, known as the common employment doctrine, bears most unjustly on railway servants. Owing to the different natures of their occupations, there is nothing common in the employment of many railway servants, unless it be that the same shareholders are their employers. There is no real community of employment between a guard and a plate-layer, an engine-driver and a clerk, a joiner and a fireman; yet in these instances the law-courts have ruled to the contrary. And, as between officers and servants, their real relations are those of employer and employed. Thousands of servants never see each other, live miles from each other, are in totally distinct departments, and under different officers. Servants have not the choice of their fellows,

are ignorant of each other's qualifications, and any attempt to interfere with the appointments of the officials would be viewed by them as an insolence. I may state that a little while ago an appointment was made of a driver of some four months' qualification, to the fastest train running on a certain railway. At a meeting of the men I was requested to lay before the chairman this fact; but the chairman has neither had the courtesy to notice my letter, nor has there been any alteration whatever in the state of things. The railway companies generally refuse to recognize any combination of their servants; and therefore the servant would have really no influence in the appointment of other servants by the companies. Nor can the servants judge of the state of the machinery and appliances, other than that immediately under their own control. Any refusal to obey orders may result in an immediate arrest by any officer under the Railway Act of 1842, which provides special protection to the companies against any neglect or wilful disobedience of their servants. These are, to my mind, reasons why the companies should be legally responsible to one servant for the injury done him by another. The whole question presents itself to me in this form: Loss and injury are inflicted on a workman by the carelessness or negligence of a person who has been selected specially by an employer, who acts under the employer's instructions, and who is free from the exercise of any control by the injured workman. The employer is liable for any damage which such a person might, through incompetence or negligence, do to any person not in the employ, or to any property entrusted to the employer; and I am unable to see why the liability should be removed, when the damage is done to an employee through no fault of his own. The servant cannot be expected to undertake a portion of the employer's risk, when he is debarred from sharing in the profits. The servant is a contractor with the company, as is a railway passenger or freighter; and if he faithfully performs his contract, the law should protect him from loss inflicted by other and injudicious or unfortunate contracts which his employer may make with others for the employer's profit and convenience. There can be little doubt that if such was the case, railway companies would more carefully select their servants, and place them under more careful and efficient supervision, and suppress those dangerous methods of doing work now everywhere practised, and which lead to the fearful slaughter of railway servants. It has been urged that if a measure providing compensation for injuries to workmen became law, they would be more careless, and incur unnecessary risk. I am not of this opinion. There are several cogent reasons against such a view. First, for them to do so would in itself invalidate any claim they might make to compensation from their employer. Secondly, if the safety of others was concerned, their conduct would lead, in the railway service, to dismissal from the service, and possibly to imprisonment. Thirdly, it is against human nature to voluntarily incur pain and deformity, and sacrifice family and all natural enjoyments, especially as in this case, when the expected recompense is an uncertainty. Fourthly, such an argument would be equally effective if urged against compensation for injuries to passengers; and, if it has any weight, railway accidents to the public would be more frequent than they are."

In another part of his testimony he says, in answer to a question as to the probable remote causes of the death or injury of the 4,383 railroad employees reported killed, and the 3,104 reported to the Board of Trade as injured in 1875 : “ In my opinion, if the proper causes were returned *in about one-half of those cases*, it would be found that the want of accommodation, and the other causes mentioned in the memorial, would have contributed to the accidents.” (Parliamentary Report of 1876. Ques. 1027.)

CAUSES OF ACCIDENTS UPON RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The general causes of accidents already enumerated are : —

1st. Excessive hours of labor.

2d. The non-enforcement of certain of the companies' rules, ostensibly made for the protection of the men.

3d. The non-adoption of the most approved appliances conducive to safety in the working of railways.

4th. Want of proper accommodation for the working of freight and passenger traffic.

5th. The employment of inefficient persons for the performance of responsible duties.

6th. The insufficient number of men employed.

I. In connection with or in addition to these there are various remote causes of more or less importance. Among them, *First*, is the use of intoxicating liquors. Although the rules of all the corporations proscribe their use, malt liquors, lager beer and ale are sold at most of the station restaurants.

Second. The favoritism shown in the appointment of train hands. Men who are unfit for the responsibility with which they are entrusted are not infrequently given or retained in positions upon the request of influential directors or stockholders. Their fellow-workmen hesitate to incur the odium of making complaints; and sometimes, especially while there is a pressure of business, incompetent men retain their positions for some time.

Third. The use of the telegraph or block system. Without expressing any opinion as to the comparative merits of this system, it is without doubt sometimes the cause of an

accident. In the hurry of business, while the train is waiting at a station for the order to go on, the conductor sometimes signs, for the engineer, a receipt for the despatch, or the despatch is missent or misunderstood, and in consequence a collision occurs. In a recent case in New York, where a fireman was killed because the conductor had signed the order for the engineer, who, although he had not received it, had started his train, no damages could be recovered, because they were all fellow-servants.

Fourth. The neglect of the statute regulation requiring one man for every two passenger cars. Since the adoption of the air and vacuum brakes, this requirement, designed partly for the protection of passengers while getting on and off the cars, is frequently violated; and, partly because no similar law exists in relation to freight trains, trains of from fifty to eighty cars are sometimes sent out with only four brakemen.

II. Among or in addition to the most approved appliances conducive to safety which have not been adopted, may be mentioned, *First*, the Miller platform and air or vacuum brakes, which, though generally, are not universally used on passenger cars, and have never been in use upon freight cars.

Second. Faults in construction, sharp and reverse curves, sags in the road-bed, which cause trains to break apart or lurch so suddenly as to throw the men off their balance; truss bridges so narrow that men hanging off the steps, on the look-out are killed; overhead bridges, so low that brakemen are frequently swept off the tops of freight trains. There are some bridges that have killed their half-dozen men.

Third. The insufficient lighting of stations, and the lack of proper platforms and crossings safely arranged and guarded.

Fourth. Insufficient car inspection, which usually extends to the running gear, the wheels and brakes, but seldom includes the body of the cars, especially freight cars, or the ladders and handles. Insufficiently fastened or rotten ladder-rounds are not infrequently the cause of a brakeman's falling between the wheels.

Fifth. The variation in the height of cars, over the tops of which brakemen are obliged to find their way, and generally at night.

Sixth. The lack of a safe railing around the tops of freight cars, a simple and effective contrivance for saving the lives of men, which has been partially adopted by some roads.

Seventh. The awkward, old-fashioned method of shackling cars, which obliges the men to go between them.

III. Among needs of proper accommodation for the working of freight and passenger traffic are, *First*, the need on some of our roads of a double track, or sufficient side tracks. As to this need of one of our railroads, its general manager says: "There has been almost constant blockade of freight-movement lately on the divisions referred to, arising from insufficiency of side tracks to accommodate the vastly increased business. Until within a short time, a half-dozen trains would be found on a division of road with side tracks which would hold but a single train; and, in consequence, the passing and passage of trains was necessarily a slow process." On this road, during the past year especially, a shameful, wicked loss of life has occurred from this cause.

Second. The lack, at local freight stations, of sufficient sidings, freight-houses and platforms, which necessitates the breaking up of the train into parts, when too long to be accommodated, and the shunting-off of these various parts to different tracks in the yard. This process of "fly-shunting" is the most dangerous operation in the working of freight trains.

Third. The sudden adoption of new appliances, before the train men have become sufficiently familiar with their use.

Fourth. The sudden adoption of new methods of business. A collision costing one road sixty thousand dollars, and injuring the fireman severely, was caused, say the Railroad Commissioners, "by a general misunderstanding of a telegraphic order," addressed to the freight conductor for information, and understood as an order to go ahead.

Fifth. The tendency, in using the telegraph, to make the orders so terse as not always to be explicit. Orders

written by an expert operator are for this reason misunderstood by a freight conductor or engineer less expert in this direction.

IV. The employment of inefficient persons for the performance of responsible duties is a not infrequent cause of accident.

First. The management are sometimes deceived by applicants for positions who pretend to be skilled train hands. That economy which discharges employees in dull times, expecting to be able to find competent train men when prosperous times return, is sometimes a mistaken economy.

Second. Because of frequent changes in the sets of train hands, caused by discharges and new appointments, in consequence of which train men do not become familiar with each other and each other's ways and habits of doing business.

Third. Because of the insufficient wages paid on some lines, where, it is said, there are station agents, for instance, who receive only ten dollars per month. Railroads sometimes employ inefficient persons, men who have been injured on their road, in order to avoid the possibility of a claim for damages, retaining them until the claim has been settled or outlawed. Instead of paying, they pension them, and take the risk of accidents.

V. Whenever an insufficient number of men for the proper management of trains is employed, as a natural consequence, they are obliged to work an excessive number of hours. It is when the employee is worn out with overwork that there is the greatest danger lest, by some lapse of ordinary care or attention, an accident may occur. When an insufficient number are employed, there is even greater danger that, in the hurry of making connections, with the extraordinary strain imposed, some slip may occur or something be neglected. An employee on one of the divisions of the London and North Western Railway says, in a letter already published: "I have before me a report from Leeds of one man having worked $131\frac{3}{4}$ hours in a week; also a case of an engine-driver working 106 hours in one week, lately; and 40 or 50 hours in two journeys, with only a few hours' rest, is a common occurrence. A goods guard

told me this morning that he had lately worked $32\frac{1}{2}$ hours without rest, and he received the sum of 12s. 6d., although his employers, in 1872, granted as a concession that ten hours should constitute a day, and afterwards the men should receive overtime at the rate of eight hours per day."

The following are actual cases of overwork and insufficiency of help, which have recently occurred in this State; and, if an accident had occurred, the excuse, if made, that it happened under a pressure of business, would have been no justification for the loss of life.

First. A train due at 6.20 P.M. arrives on time at A——. Passengers and baggage must be discharged, and the train backed four hundred feet, in order to clear the main line for an express passenger train which passes at 6.24, four minutes later. During this time both the inward and outward tracks must also be flagged, which means that one man must be sent forward, and another back, each the distance of fifteen telegraph poles; there are only the conductor and two brakemen to attend to the flagging and the switches.

Second. On one road a section gang, consisting of a foreman and three assistants, is obliged to keep properly graded, and in proper condition, the same length of road to which a section gang of six persons is usually apportioned on other roads.

Third. The neglect to provide switchmen has caused many accidents, because the brakemen on the train neglected to leave the switch as it should have been left, and the train which came afterwards was thrown off the track, or on to a side track, where another train was waiting. Had the brakeman even thought of his mistake, after his train had gone on, it would have been almost impossible to rectify it, although a switchman might have done it.

Fourth. An engineer went to work Friday at 5.30 A.M., and remained on duty till Saturday at 12.15 A.M. On the same day at 5.30 A.M., about five hours afterward, he went on duty again, and worked till 7.30 P.M., when his day's work should properly have ended; but he received orders to continue work, and did so for 24 hours longer, until Sunday at 7.30 P.M., being on duty 62 hours, with the exception of five hours and fifteen minutes.

Fifth. Another engineer worked the same number of hours as the preceding one; but, instead of being relieved from duty at 7.30 P.M. Sunday, he continued on duty until 5.30 A.M. Monday, thus making 74 hours of almost continuous work under a heavy responsibility, without rest or intermission, except for five hours and a quarter.

Sixth. The following is a case of overwork by a full set of train men, consisting of conductor, two brakemen, fireman, and engineer. Work begins at 5.30 A.M. Work ends, every second day, at 7.30 P.M., and on every alternate trip at midnight; is continuous all day; every alternate Sunday the same men are on duty from 9 A.M. till 11 P.M., and while on the road are obliged to tend the switches. During the first trip they are on the road 38 hours. During the alternate trips they are on the road $43\frac{1}{2}$ hours; and on every other Sunday they are on duty for 14 hours. During the day they travel about a hundred miles, carrying about a thousand passengers, and making a hundred and fifty station stops. In addition, the engineer must keep an accurate account, and make returns of various matters relating to the amount of coal used, and the working of his locomotive; and the conductor must make out seven different reports on blanks calling for minute details, duplicates of five of them.

Seventh. Another set of train men work every day from 6 A.M. to 8 P.M., fourteen hours; and from 6 A.M. till 12 P.M., eighteen hours, on alternate days; and likewise work alternate Sundays.

Eighth. A freight train gang left the starting point at 11.10 A.M., and returned at 7.10 the next morning, at the end of twenty hours. At 8 A.M., within an hour of the time of their arrival, they took out another train, returning at 4.30 P.M., at the end of eight hours and a half. Three hours after their arrival, at 7.30 P.M., they began work again, returning at 10.30 A.M. the next day, at the end of fifteen hours, having been on duty $43\frac{1}{2}$ hours, with the exception of fifty minutes' intermission at one time, and three hours at another. "Of course," says one of the brakemen, "I went out with my own train that same night." It was on this road that one of the brakemen, overworked

on a freight train, who had been sent out to flag another train, fell asleep at his post, and was run over and killed by the train he was sent out to flag.

Ninth. The following case is given as an illustration of how train men are prevented, while on their trips, from getting sleep: A train left A — for a trip to Boston, where nearly all the train men live, starting Thursday night on time, and not arriving, in consequence of various delays, allowing no opportunity for sleep, until 5 A.M. Saturday, having been one day and two nights on the road.

Tenth. A train hand, who had worked from 9 A.M. until 11.15 P.M. on Sunday, continuously, $14\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and during the rest of the week $97\frac{1}{2}$ hours, — a daily average of $16\frac{1}{4}$ hours, — declined to work on the subsequent Sunday, because he needed rest, and was discharged. An engineer, who during the week had been on duty the same number of hours, was asked to volunteer to work on this Sunday; and, upon his declining, and upon being told that such accommodating men were to be had, he consented to work.

Eleventh. The plan recently in use on one of our roads, of paying men by the trip, instead of by the day, has been a frequent cause of overwork, by making it possible, in some cases, for train men to do thirty-six days' work in a month.

One reason for the increase of labor imposed upon conductors and engineers is, that they are obliged to make out so many reports with minute specific details.

It is often said that the wages of a railroad employee are higher in proportion to the extra risk which he assumes. As has been already said, the facts do not warrant the assertion. In reply to some recent criticisms upon the low wages paid, the management of one of our railroads say, that while heretofore a conductor has been paid \$2.65 per day, and a brakeman \$1.75 per day, by a plan just adopted, the pay of a conductor has been increased to \$2.90 per day, and that of a brakeman to \$1.90 and \$1.80; which is declared to be a higher rate of wages than that paid by other railroads. Freight-handlers, who work in the freight-house, receive \$1.50 per day; car-knockers, or yard-repairers, who are exposed to no danger from

the running of trains, receive \$1.75 per day; a blacksmith's helper receives \$2.00; a common laborer or a gravel-shoveller gets \$1.50 per day, with regular hours for work, and an hour at noon for dinner. From these figures, and a comparison with the wages ordinarily paid to day-laborers, gardeners, and ordinary mechanics, it will be seen that railway employees are paid, like other men, for the hard work they do, with no extra compensation for the risks incurred. In case one of them is killed, most of the railroads pay the expenses of his burial, unless they are otherwise provided for. In case one of them is injured, the companies usually furnish him with surgical or medical attendance, and provide for his care in some hospital until he can resume work, or until he recovers, if this is within two or three months; but this is done only on condition that he waives his claim against them for damages. Should he have received his injury in consequence of some act of courage, he generally receives some more liberal provision. In the opinion of experienced corporation counsel, of railway employees injured in this State not more than five per cent ever prosecute their claims by suit, and not more than one per cent, one-fifth of these, successfully.

RAILWAY INSURANCE.

One method of relieving the condition of employees who have suffered injuries, and the families of those who have been killed, which for several years past has been practised in England, and which in some ways is being practised in America, is Accident Insurance.

The number of persons, passengers and others, who are annually killed or injured on the railways of Great Britain, and the number of persons annually travelling by rail and exposing themselves to danger, attracted the attention of persons familiar with the law of chances which governs insurance and the management of its general business. While passengers, travelling occasionally, were willing to incur the expense of premiums, employees, as a class, were too poor to pay the large premiums which their constantly dangerous employment required. For their benefit another expedient was resorted to, more especially after the famous Henly dis-

aster. It was the organization among themselves, with the co-operation of some of the railroad corporations and proprietors of collieries, of mutual co-operative and provident societies.

The object of these societies was to provide something for the employees or their families in case of death, injury, sickness, superannuation, or inability to work from any accidental cause. Railroad employees and miners were generally too improvident to be willing to pay a quarterly or monthly stipend from their wages for the privilege of receiving an allowance upon the happening of so uncertain an event; and it was necessary that the various corporations and proprietors of mines should be induced to make the deduction of such an allowance compulsory upon those already in their service, and a pre-requisite to admission of others into their employment. As the funds collected must be held and invested, and paid over to the persons entitled to them in such amounts as had been prescribed, and the general duties incident to such a business must be performed by some persons in whom all the members had confidence, it was necessary for the associations to have paid officers. As the amounts which the employees were willing to have deducted each month or week as premiums from their wages were so small that only a small monthly or weekly allowance could be paid in case of death or injury, the corporations and proprietors found it for their several interests to co-operate with their workmen by contributing to the general fund, and by assuming, for the sake of saving expense, the duty of receiving, investing, and paying it out to the proper persons. At the present time there is one of these associations connected with almost every railroad in England, and with nearly every one of the large mines and mining districts. Some of them are large in number, one of them, called "The Northumberland and Durham Mines Permanent Relief Fund," numbering, in 1878, 70,000 members. A fixed allowance is paid over to each person entitled, whether the injury was caused by the negligence of a fellow-workman, or by his own negligence. Unless allowances were made to persons of each class, the scope of such an association would be comparatively limited; because, according to the reports

of the Royal Commission on Railway Accidents, published in the year 1877, there were, during the four years from 1872 to 1875, 2,720 railway servants killed through their own negligence, and 238 from causes beyond their own control; and there were 7,275 injured through their own negligence, and 1,724 from causes beyond their own control, — about twelve killed and four injured through their own fault, to one killed or injured through the fault of some one else.

The plan upon which these associations are organized may be illustrated by the plan of the one connected with the North Western Railway, which employs about 45,000 men, 24,000 of whom are engaged in the actual operation of trains. Connected with this railway are two associations, an insurance and a provident society, — one to provide assistance to men so unfortunate as to meet with accidents, and one to provide for the necessities of sickness. The first, in case of a death, pays over to the family a sum varying from £20 to £40; and, in case of permanent disablement, from £25 to £35, according to the class of risk taken, and the amount of the premium paid. In case of temporary disablement or illness, twelve shillings to fifteen shillings a week are paid for a period of twenty-six weeks, unless recovery takes place before; after this time has elapsed, a half allowance is paid. The premiums paid to the Insurance Society by the workmen, or rather deducted from their wages, vary, according to the class to which each belongs, from one penny to threepence a week; and those paid to the Provident Society vary from two to four pence a week. The company contributes to the general fund of both societies about £2,300 a year, together with all the fines which are imposed upon the men for neglect or disobedience of the rules, orders or regulations of the company. The representatives of a workman who has paid twopence a week to the Insurance Society would receive £35 in case of his death; were he temporarily disabled, he would at the utmost receive twelve shillings a week for twenty-six weeks, and half that allowance during the continuance of his disablement; were he permanently disabled, £25 in addition to whatever weekly allowance he had received; and, were he to die from natural causes, his representatives would receive £10. The allowance to the

representatives of a foreman or a servant of a higher grade, who pays a premium of threepence a week, is £40 in case of his death; if temporarily disabled, he receives 18 shillings a week for twenty-six weeks, and half allowance thereafter; if permanently disabled, £35 in addition to any weekly allowance he may have received. These societies were established in 1871-2, and numbered five years ago 25,000 servants of the London & North Western Railway. The Great Western, the Great Northern, and the Midland Railways have similar societies in an equally prosperous condition.

Of the Midland Railway Friendly Society, the Fourth Report of the Commissioners on Friendly Societies, presented to Parliament in 1874, which contains the fullest and most carefully prepared information upon this subject, says, Part 1, p. lxviii:—

“It is a peculiar feature, both in some of the railway friendly societies and of many of those in collieries, that membership is made compulsory by the employer.

“The Midland Railway Friendly Society, of which an account will be found in Mr. Stanley's Report, was established in 1860, and had, by 1871 8,295 members, and £7,500 capital. Rule 1 states that the directors ‘have resolved to require all those in their employment who receive weekly wages (subject to the exceptions under the rules) to become members;’ and Rule 5, that ‘it shall be imperative upon all servants employed in the passenger and goods departments, gangers, engine-drivers, and firemen receiving weekly wages, who may hereafter enter the service of the company, to become members of this society. This rule is applicable to every one as above who has been one month an appointed servant of the company, at wages exceeding 12s. a week. Officers and servants in receipt of salaries shall have the option of joining, or not, as they may elect.’

“The society is actively self-governed. Its financial organization does not, however, appear to be satisfactory, as its solvency depends not solely on contributions calculated according to the benefits assured, but partly on a fixed yearly grant from the railway company, which apparently was taken into account when fixing the rates of contribution, but which, in a society with a varying and probably increasing number of members, may or may not be sufficient for the purpose it affects to serve, and is probably relied on for serving.

“The contribution to the benefit is uniform, 9d. a fortnight. The benefits, are medical attendance and 12s. a week, full sick pay, for twenty-six weeks; then 6s. a week for twenty-six weeks; then 4s. a week for the rest of sickness or ordinary illness. If the member be disabled by accident in the course of his duties, he receives 15s. a week

for twenty-six weeks, then 7s. 6d. for twenty-six weeks, then 4s. In case of death from ordinary causes, the member's representatives receive £12. In case of death from accident in the service of the company, £25. There is a separate contribution of 3d. a fortnight for management, out of which the doctor is paid. The members' contributions are stopped out of their wages."

The London and South Western Friendly Society, organized upon a somewhat different plan, makes membership compulsory upon all servants in the traffic and freight department, and has rates of premiums graduated according to age, as general insurance companies have.

The largest associations are among the miners; the Northumberland and Durham Associations numbering, as already stated, 70,000 in 1878; although many thousands of miners in these districts had not then joined it, and nearly half of the owners of collieries had not subscribed to its fund. After a careful examination of its condition by an experienced actuary in 1878, when it had been seventeen years in operation, it was found possible to pay a pension worth £160 in case of death, or an allowance of eight shillings per week in case of permanent disablement, upon the payment by each member of a premium of twopence per week. The contributions of the employers amount to from fourteen to twenty per cent of the amount paid in by the men.

In the counties of Durham, Cumberland, and Staffordshire, as well as in other mining counties, there are likewise large associations which insure against sickness and accidents, some of them receiving contributions from the proprietors of collieries, and some of them aided by their co-operation in making membership compulsory. Among the leadminers of Northumberland and Durham there is likewise a similar society, supported in the same way; and, although membership is not made compulsory, about three-fourths of the workmen in the mines are members. An allowance of ten shillings a week, in case of sickness or accident, is paid upon a premium of fivepence per week; and, in case of death, £20 upon a premium of twopence per week.

Besides these various associations, there is also, in connection with some of the railroads, — the North Western,

for example, — a pension list for the salaried staff, such as station-masters, clerks, and all above their grade, which, in the instance cited, is already supported by a large fund made up of assessments upon the members and contributions from the company. It is exclusively for the benefit of the salaried staff, and provides for cases of superannuation, as well as disability from illness or accident. In Yorkshire, the miners belonging to the association were paid, in consequence of injury, during the three years ending with 1876, the sum of £29,000; and during the five years ending with 1875, no less than 711 persons lost their lives in the mines from explosions of fire-damp, the falling in of roofs and coal, from accidents in shafts, and from other causes.

This species of insurance, which is but the adaptation of the general principles of insurance, and the special features of accident insurance, to associations of this kind, has been in successful operation in Germany for many years; and the English could have learned, if they did not, all the principles upon which their societies are formed, from the miners' associations of Germany. It had reached such a stage of general development seventeen years ago, that it was provided by the *Allgemeineis Berggesetz* — General Mining Laws — of June 24, 1865, applicable to all mines, and furnaces for the smelting of ore, that every mining district should have its own *Knappschafts-Verein* — Workman's Association, — whose constitution should be subject to the approval of the local authorities, and in which membership should be taken by both masters and workmen. By the form of constitution prescribed, every member must pay into a common fund a small proportion of his wages, or allow his employer to deduct from his wages a fixed amount, and pay it in for him. The employer is also obliged to pay in a certain sum, usually amounting to about one-half the sum contributed by the men. The object of these associations is to make some provision, in colloquial phrase, for a rainy day; some provision to meet the exigencies of accident, sickness, or death; some provision in sickness for medicine and medical attendance; together with a regular allowance for the support of any member, if necessary, for the rest of his life, or during his temporary disablement;

or, in case of his death, to give him a decent burial, and take care of his children till they reach the age of fourteen, and his widow during her life, or until she marries again. All associations of miners already formed were obliged to conform to this law, and adopt the form of constitution which it prescribed. In matters of this kind, and in almost all matters which relate to the general protection of the poorer classes, and the distribution of charities, the New World can learn much from the Old, where, in an older form of society, such problems were much earlier presented to social scientists for solution. The system has worked well both in England and Germany. It was necessary to make this form of insurance compulsory, because many workmen would not otherwise make suitable provision for the future, and employers would not otherwise lend their co-operation. If looked upon simply as a provision against the need of public charity, it has been of great service, by keeping indigent miners out of the workhouse. A peculiar feature of the German law provides that the courts may, upon proper request, determine whether the sum paid by way of assistance shall all be paid at once, or by weekly or monthly instalments; and so thoroughly has the system become established, that it is not uncommon now for large employers of labor to insure themselves, in one general policy, against loss by the payment of damages and assessments for injuries to their workmen. And this practice is not uncommon in Great Britain, especially since the passage, in 1880, of the Employers' Liability Act. In these two ways the workman is insured by the association to which he belongs, and his employer by some general insurance company.

In the United States the principal experiment in this class of insurance, on the mutual contribution plan, is that of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company. The employees of this company have an association, organized in May, 1880, under the name of the Baltimore and Ohio Employees' Relief Association. This organization is in successful operation, and its scheme is the best for the employees of American railroads. It is so complete, we have given in Appendix B the letter of the company proposing the plan, and the constitution and by-laws of the associa-

tion. This association has been incorporated by the Maryland legislature by Act of May 3, 1882. Should kindred associations be formed in this State, they could be incorporated under our general laws. There might be a combination of several or all the railroad companies of the State for the formation of such an association, or of the factories of a place or of a county. There seems to be no doubt that with such associations in existence, and in successful operation, much progress would be witnessed in the creation of harmony between employers and employees.

When this question of insurance is considered in connection with the general question under discussion, it is naturally asked whether the provision thereby made for employees, should such a system be adopted in this country, might not be an ample substitute for the proposed increase of the liability of employers. And, while it is true that such a form of insurance would meet the necessities of many more employees than would the proposed change in the law of liability, it is equally true, that because some provision has been made for an employee who has been injured through his own carelessness, is no reason for refusing to make additional legal provision for a person who has been injured through the carelessness of his employer. The first person could in no case recover damages, because the injury was caused by his own contributory negligence. Has not the second person, whose injury was caused by the negligence of his employer, a moral, and ought he not to have a legal, right to receive the additional protection and assistance of compensation in damages for the injury inflicted upon him?

Inasmuch as railroad companies are not charitable institutions, but, like all other business enterprises, are managed chiefly in the interest of the stockholders who furnish the capital, is it impossible that the annual contributions of the companies are made on the basis of the total sum annually paid for damages and assistance to employees? If so, are not the employees who are injured by companies' negligence actually contributing largely to the funds out of which the employees injured by their own negligence receive their money? The force of this inquiry is even more apparent

when considered in connection with the proposals made, after the English act was passed, by railroad companies to increase their contributions, on condition that their employees would contract themselves out of the operation of the act. The employer should not be asked to help pay damages resulting from injuries caused by the negligence of the employer's agent. And it is worthy of remark, that when this same question came under the consideration of the select committees of Parliament, then investigating the general subject, and the amounts paid by way of insurance were stated by the managers of the various railways, the committees looked upon the small stipend which the employee thereby receives as only a make-shift, and no equivalent for the wrong and misery he had suffered. Why should he who has been injured by another, stand upon the same legal plane with him, who, by his own act, has injured himself?

INFREQUENCY OF THE RECOVERY OF DAMAGES.

While, during the nine years ending with Sept. 30, 1881, 358 employees were killed upon the railroads of this Commonwealth, and 653 were reported as injured, it is improbable, — so strictly is the law of contributory negligence enforced, so easy is it to avoid liability under the rule requiring an employer to exercise due care in the selection and repair of his machinery, and under the other rule enforcing liability where there is personal interference or supervision, — that in less than ten per cent of these cases have any damages been recovered. And yet, if it is safe to accept the opinion of a man of such large experience and information as Mr. Evans, as well as to believe that the railways of Great Britain and Ireland are as safely managed as our own, at least one-half of these deaths and injuries are in part remotely due to one or more of the six causes mentioned in the memorial of the ten thousand English railway employees; viz., 1, excessive hours of labor; 2, non-enforcement of certain of the companies' rules, ostensibly made for the protection of the men; 3, the non-adoption of the most approved appliances conducive to safety in the working of railways; 4, the want of proper accommodations for work-

ing the freight and traffic; 5, the employment of inefficient persons for the performance of responsible duties; 6, the employment of an insufficient number of men.

During four years not a single instance of the recovery of damages by an employee came to the knowledge of any of the officers of the Society of Railway Servants; although during the four years from 1872 to 1875, inclusive, according to the reports of the Royal Commission, 238 were reported killed, and 172 injured, from causes beyond their own control. This shows the severity of the present law, allowing common employment to be a defence to such actions. In this connection it may be remembered that of 83 employees killed on the London and North Western Railway in 1876, only six, or about eight per cent, were killed, said the general manager, from causes beyond their own control. And Mr. Moon, chairman of the Board of Directors of this railway, which employs about 50,000 men, said, at a meeting of some of the employees, called to consider whether to accept the provisions of the "Employers' Liability Act," that in not more than two per cent of the cases resulting in death or injury could damages be recovered. It is impossible to give a satisfactory estimate of the number of cases in our own State, because the reports of and to the Railroad Commissioners are not sufficiently explicit, and there are no reports of accidents occurring in mechanical industries, upon which to base an intelligent estimate.

SHOULD THE SAME PRINCIPLE BE APPLIED TO DEFECTS IN MACHINERY?

Under the law, as it stands at present, the employer is held to a stricter responsibility to third persons than to his employees, for injuries caused by defects in machinery and plant; and, if his liability to third persons and employees, for injuries caused by the neglect of his servants and agents, is to be made the same, should it not, upon a like principle and for equally sound reasons, be made the same for injuries caused by defects in machinery? At present the employer is responsible in damages to third persons for injuries caused by defects in his tools, implements, works, machinery and plant, which reasonable care on his part could have discov-

ered and obviated; though not for secret defects resulting from the negligence of persons from whom he bought the tools, machinery, etc., used in the business.

The principal reason at the basis of this liability is, that, as some one must take the risk of defects, it is less unjust for him to take it who makes or buys the machinery or plant, who can accept or reject them, who owns and uses them, who ought to keep them in repair, and can direct when they should be repaired, or, when worn out, replaced, than for strangers who know nothing about the machinery or plant. If the employer's liability is to be increased in respect to personal damages caused by the acts of his agents, why should it not be increased in respect to damages likewise caused by the negligence of agents in omitting to discover and remedy the defects?

He is now liable to employees only for defects known personally to himself, and unknown to the servant injured,—in other words, for defects which have come within his own knowledge or information. The practical difficulty of proving in court at a trial this actual knowledge or information, makes such a liability almost a barren security. But if, as is almost always the case in mechanical and manufacturing employments, the tools or machinery are not used by himself, but by his servants, employees, and agents, he is entirely free from responsibility. Such a burden of risk as is imposed upon him in his relations to third persons is entirely removed, and the servant must take the risk upon himself. Unless the employer is made responsible for the acts of his agents, he is not obliged to use even reasonable care in selecting tools and machinery, and keeping them in good condition, in detecting and obviating any defects. He may, so far as this liability to his employees is concerned, allow his servants to do as they please; to select unsuitable machinery, unsuitable in design or execution; to neglect to take proper care of it; may allow them to use it in a careless and improper manner, and therefore escape the consequences of their negligence. When it is remembered that this extension of the rule would not make him liable for secret defects, nor defects which a reasonable care could not discover and obviate, nor defects of which the person injured was aware, either through his

own knowledge or the information of others, the danger of extending the rule does not seem so great.

ARE THERE ANY AGENTS FOR WHOSE ACTS THE EMPLOYER
SHOULD BE MADE LIABLE?

In considering the application of any practical method of making responsible large employers of labor, such as railroad corporations, the owners of factories and mines, and persons carrying on any large mercantile, manufacturing, or mechanical business, with employees arranged in different classes, the superior having authority over the inferior grades, the question at once arises, For the acts of what agents should the employer be made liable, in order that the objects sought by a change in the law may be better accomplished? The general object to be accomplished is, in the words of Lord Sherbrooke, to make "the funds of every industrial undertaking liable to compensate any person employed in such undertaking for any injury he may receive by reason of the negligence of any person exercising authority mediately or immediately derived from the owners of such undertaking." To accomplish this object there seems to be no other way than to make the employer liable for the negligence of every superior workman, in whatever grade, from the employer down, who has authority over the servant injured. For instance, as a brakeman on a freight train might be injured by the negligent act, order, or direction of the board of directors, the superintendent, the general freight agent or the conductor of his train, each of whom is vested with authority over him, — it would be necessary, lest the corporation should escape liability for the negligence of some one of them, to make it liable for the negligence of all of them. In an employment where the labor is in such a way classified, where authority may be delegated and sub-delegated, the master should be made liable for the negligence of every man in the chain between the master and the injured employee. When the Parliamentary Committees had this subject under consideration, George Findlay, the Traffic Manager of the London and North Western Railway, being asked where the line of responsibility should be drawn, said that it was no use to make the corporation

liable for the acts of the manager alone; "you must make every man in active control over the staff" [ordinary employees] "responsible, if you are to accomplish the objects of those who brought in this bill;" so great is the authority over the management of trains necessarily left with officers of inferior grades. And James Grierson, the General Manager of the Western Railway, in corroborating this opinion, illustrated it by saying, "In fact, take the case of a signalman at a junction or a station: he then, in fact, is the manager of the railway for the time-being; he has the control of the drivers and the guards, and it is under his instructions that the work is carried on; by a mistake of his an accident occurs, and a driver [engineer] is killed." Mr. Justice Willes, in the case of *Murray v. Currie*,* has suggested the rule which should be followed out in determining this liability. "I apprehend," he says, "it to be a clear rule, in ascertaining who is liable for the act of a wrong-doer, that you must look to the wrong-doer himself, or to the first person in the ascending line, who is the employer and has control of the work." Where there are other workmen vested with authority which the wrong-doer is bound to obey, and intervening between him and the employer, under the legitimate extension of this rule, he should be responsible for their acts. Reference to section 1 of the Liability Act (Appendix A) will show how the English Parliament expressed in words the object sought to be accomplished.

SHOULD THE LIABILITY BE LIMITED IN AMOUNT?

The question naturally occurs whether any limit should be placed upon the amount of damages which can be recovered. In the third section of the English act, the Conservatives, after somewhat narrowing, by section 2, the nature of the liability created by the first section, affixed a limit to the sum which could be recovered equal to the estimated earnings for the three years preceding the injury.

This section prevented a man thrown out of employment for four years or more, made a sufferer for years, or a cripple for life, from recovering more than three years' wages. It

* 6 L. P. 24.

is not easy to see why all injuries should be treated alike. It is a crude justice which declines to discriminate between dissimilar cases, to investigate the circumstances of each case, to consider the facts on both sides, to weigh the evidence in the scales of a wise discretion, and mete out justice in unequal measure, as the unequal merits of different cases require. What would be thought of a criminal code which punished alike all crimes above a misdemeanor? which attached the same penalty to arson, highway robbery, rape, manslaughter, high treason, and murder? In the progress of criminal injustice towards justice, especially since Jeremy Bentham pointed out the necessity of reforming so many of its abuses, legislatures and judges have become more in the habit of distinguishing between the differing grades of crime, and no longer are all the higher offences punishable with death. What would be thought of a system of rewards and punishments, which bestowed the same praise upon the school-boy who learned his lessons well; upon the statesman or soldier who saved the State from anarchy and disunion; upon Grace Darling, for saving human lives at her own peril; upon Philip Sidney, for giving a glass of water to a soldier dying on the battle-field, more in need than himself? Such legislation as limits the amount of damages to three years' earnings is a step backward. What occasion exists for adopting so unjust a rule in relation to employees, when all other questions of damage are determined upon their merits,—upon the circumstances of each particular case? Damages to the person, to real estate, and to personal property, are assessed by courts or juries as each case requires. Why should such a distinction be drawn against employees? Is it said that juries generally award damages against corporations and wealthy employers? The obvious answer is, that they generally deserve a verdict against them; that in a very large majority of instances the plaintiff in a suit at law deserves a favorable verdict. If objection is made to the jury system as unjust to corporations, why is not the rule made general, that in no instance shall damages above a certain amount be recovered against them? If it is said that this rule has been adopted in relation to highway damages against towns, may it not be asked whether such a precedent ought to be followed?

SHOULD THE EMPLOYEE BE ALLOWED TO MAKE A CONTRACT
RELEASING HIS EMPLOYER FROM LIABILITY?

After the passage of the English Act, the question arose whether the employee could and would contract himself out of the operation of the act. There was nothing in it permitting or forbidding such a contract; and some of the large railroads and mining corporations attempted to compel their laborers to sign contracts of hire releasing them from liability for damages. There was no law to prevent the workmen from signing such contracts; but they were urged not to do so by their own reason and interest, as well as by the advice of Mr. Macdonald, Mr. William Crawford, Secretary of the Durham Miners, Mr. Benjamin Pickard, Secretary of the West Yorkshire Miners, and every one else who had earnestly labored to secure the passage of the act. Having obtained, after years of labor and agitation, a law of some benefit, — though the benefit was not so great as had been hoped for, — it seemed the height of folly to sign it away.

The chief, if not the only, advantage offered in consideration of this release, was an extension and enlargement of the benefits of insurance. The same paltry benefit which had been used to restrain the passage of the bill while it was before Parliament, — the benefit of receiving, upon payment by them of half the insurance premiums, a continuance of their wages for a few weeks or months, with an allowance of £40 or £50 in case of death, — was again offered to them, together with an increase amounting to about two-thirds of what they were already entitled to, provided they would sign away their rights under the act. Unless they would do this, they were in some instances threatened with a discharge from employment, and a discontinuance of the small contributions already made to their fund. In some places large public meetings were called to listen to these proposals, and to consider the wisdom of adopting them. There were several large meetings, — one in Liverpool, — of the employees of the London and North Western Railway, which were addressed by officers of the company, and also by their fellow-workmen. In most instances the workmen voted to adhere to their rights under the act. At some of the meet-

ings the vote was unanimous against bartering them away for what were thought trivial considerations. The clause limiting liability to the amount of three years' wages had made it impossible in general to recover more than from £150 to £200; and, because contributory negligence prevented the recovery of damages in all but from two to ten per cent of the cases of injury, the benefits of the act were in reality less than they at first sight appeared to be. But when the excitement had somewhat subsided, and the miners and laborers realized how slight the advantages given them really were, there was little doubt that more harmonious counsels would in many instances prevail, and that, in exchange for a more liberal extension of the benefits of mutual insurance, many of the laborers would be willing to contract themselves out of the act. The clause limiting liability to three years' wages, and the lack of any clause forbidding the making of any contract of release, were the powerful levers used by the employers to secure the adoption of their scheme of mutual insurance. In Durham, West Yorkshire, and other mining districts, it was for awhile feared that trouble might arise; and strikes were apprehended from the course adopted in some of the collieries of threatening to withdraw further contributions to the laborers' insurance and protective fund, as well as in consequence of the refusal to allow them to work, unless they would sign the contract waiving their right to damages.

The injustice of attempting to compel the laborer to sign such a contract, is manifest from the consideration that he is usually less able than the employer to care for himself, less provident and thoughtful for the future, and more ready, upon a slight necessity, to sacrifice a future advantage for a present benefit. Their positions are unequal. While in general there might be a difference of opinion as to the wisdom of making laws to restrict the right of contract, there is as little room as possible for a difference of opinion as to the need of affording the laborer some legislative protection. If ever a law restricting the right of contract ought to be made, if ever the State should extend over workmen a wider protection, making them, as seamen and minors are made, to a certain degree, wards of the State, it should be by prevent-

ing them from signing away their right to recover damages for personal injuries, which the delusion of hope so easily makes them believe is in reality a worthless benefit.

It is the lack of such a provision as this which has made the English Act of little value; has, during the past two years, kept the relation of employer and employed unstable and uncertain; has encouraged the former to persevere in getting the employee to sign a lease of liability, and has encouraged the employee to persevere in hoping that Parliament would come to his relief by amending the law.

In January, 1881, and within three weeks of the time when the English Act went into operation, Mr. Macdonald, Mr. Broadhurst, Mr. Burt, and Mr. Peddie, members of Parliament, introduced a bill to amend the law in this particular, by providing that the act of 1880 "should have effect, and be enforced by every court in every case, notwithstanding any contract or agreement excluding all or any of the provisions of said act, or otherwise interfering with the operation thereof: provided (1), that this act shall not affect any contract or agreement made before the passing of this act; and (2), that in determining in any case the amount of compensation payable under the said act by an employer, the court shall take into consideration the value of any payment or contribution made by such employer to such insurance fund or compensation fund, to the extent to which any person who would otherwise be entitled to the compensation under the act, has actually received compensation out of such payment or contribution at the expense of such employer." This bill was prepared to meet the exigencies which it was foreseen would arise, by the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress. It failed at that time to gain the co-operation of the Gladstone Ministry, because, as Mr. Dodson, who had charge, for the Government, of the Act of 1880 in its passage through the House of Commons, said, when the amendment was introduced, in answer to a question by Mr. Sheridan: "The Government have no intention, at all events before full experience of the working of the act, to propose a bill to amend its provisions. I especially hope that the power of free contract will, if resorted to, be used with such good sense, fairness, and mod-

eration by all concerned, that no occasion will arise for curtailing it in the interest of any party ;" which meant, perhaps, that if the employer made an unfair use of the right of free contract, the Government would pass the amendment. The subject is still, at this writing, under discussion in England, in the press, among the employees, and in Parliament. The law of this Commonwealth at present protects the employee in this respect.

Chapter 74, section 3, of the Public Statutes says: "No person or corporation shall, by a special contract with persons in his or its employ, exempt himself or itself from any liability which he or it might otherwise be under to such persons for injuries suffered by them in their employment, and which result from the employer's own negligence, or from the negligence of other persons in his or its employ."

SHORT HISTORY OF THE PASSAGE OF THE ENGLISH BILL.

After several years of discussion and agitation, the question of allowing workmen the same right to recover damages of their employers that other persons have, at last reached such a stage of advancement that it was thought advisable for the English Liberals to adopt the idea as a part of their political creed, in order to secure the votes of workmen who were in favor of it. This question was only a branch of the general subject of the rights of labor, which has been before the English people so many years; has resulted in the formation of separate societies, trades and protective unions; and has found advocates among the ablest and most liberal men of the Liberal party, by whom the rights of labor have been advocated in Parliament. And this reform, like many others, has gained its way gradually through the agency of a separate political organization. At the last general election, in 1879-80, the candidates at almost all the hustings throughout Great Britain were asked, before the polls were opened, if they would support this measure, and it was made a party issue. For eight or more years the question had been before the English people and Parliament; had received general public consideration; and its friends were too conversant with the arts of successful agitation and reform, to neglect so auspicious an opportunity

to secure a change in the law. On the 10th of February, 1880, the bill presented by the Earl De la Warr — which, with some amendments, on the 7th of September following became a law — was ordered printed by the House of Lords; but the session had progressed into the summer before the House of Commons went into committee for a discussion of the bill. Mr. A. Macdonald, who has since died, was one of the leaders in the cause. This bill fell so far below the wants of the foremost advocates of a change in the law, that Sir Henry Jackson expressed himself as altogether dissatisfied with it; and Mr. Pease feared the bill would do more harm than good to those whom it was intended to benefit.

The Parliamentary discussion, begun in July, was carried on at many sittings through that and the following month, Mr. Dodson having charge of the bill in behalf of the Government. As is usual in such cases, various amendments were proposed by conservative members hostile to the measure, among the first of which was one relating to the subject of mutual insurance, — a make-shift which has been urged through all the progress of this reform, from the time of its earliest discussion down to the present day, and which still threatens to defeat the objects of the act. It is not impossible that the accident insurance companies, which have been, and will probably continue to be, the principal gainers by this amendment, may have early been its promoters. Another amendment easily made, persistently urged, defeated in the House of Commons, but finally adopted in the House of Lords under the leadership of Lord Beaconsfield, limited the amount of compensation which could be recovered to the estimated earnings of the three years preceding the injury.

Another amendment, which forms the fifth sub-section of section 1, relating to damages recoverable by railway employees, at a general conference of members of Parliament, workingmen, railway servants, and their representatives, held before the bill was reported to the House, was deemed very unsatisfactory, but was finally assented to on the ground that it was the best that could probably be obtained in opposition to the powerful influence of the railroad lobby. In connection with the subject of accident insurance, it was stated in a published letter, by Mr. David Chadwick, after

a careful investigation, that upon the payment of six shillings a year by the workmen, and £200 by their employer, 3,000 persons could be insured, each in the sum of £50, to be paid in case of accidental death.

One of the motions to defeat the bill was made by Mr. Gorst to include within its operation all the workmen employed in Her Majesty's arsenals and dock-yards; and supported by Mr. Boord, Sir H. Wolff, Sir H. Holland and Mr. Newdegate. But the Attorney General and Mr. Childers pointed out that by a Treasury Minute the men in the dock-yards now enjoyed greater privileges than they would receive under the bill. Instead of receiving, in case of injury, compensation equal in amount to three years' wages, the "establishment men," so called, might be granted by the Treasury a maximum compensation equal to ten years' wages; and the non-establishment men might receive a sum equal in amount to their wages for nine years. In case of death, their widows and children would receive larger gratuities than this bill allowed; but it was, of course, discretionary with the Treasury to grant any allowance of any kind.

Before the bill passed the House of Lords, a powerful opposition was aroused. The associated coal owners of South Wales threatened, in case of its passage, to withdraw their contributions to the insurance fund; which was somewhat of an empty threat, because their contributions did not equal 25 per cent of the total premiums of the men. At the half-yearly meeting of the London and North Western Railway, Mr. Moon, the chairman of the Board of Directors, declared that the capitalists had not a fair hearing before Parliament; and he was, as it now appears, unnecessarily afraid that the passage of the bill would "drive the capital of the country away." And at the North London Railway meeting at Euston Station, on the day after the bill passed the House of Commons, Mr. Bancroft, the chairman, made special objection to the fifth sub-section of section 1, relating to railways, which had been added as an amendment to the original bill, because it was feared that without it railway companies might escape the imposition of suitable liabilities. But he expressed himself as willing to submit to the other provisions of this section.

The master-builders — how many it is not known — petitioned the House of Lords to have the third sub-section of section 1 stricken out; because, as this section stands, with the definition afterwards given to the expression “person who has superintendence entrusted to him,” the defence of common employment is almost altogether abolished; and likewise proposed an amendment to the fourth sub-section, which was afterwards substantially adopted as the third sub-section of section 2; and the powerful aid of Lord Cairns, a Conservative Ex-Chancellor, was invoked.

The former wrote for publication a letter in which, — while saying that the railway companies ought not to complain because they are obliged to assume towards their employees the same responsibility as they agreed, when they received their charters, to assume towards their passengers, — he expressed the opinion that freedom of contract ought not to be restrained.

Lord Cairns, in a letter to the “Times” signed “C,” while acknowledging the right of the workman to say that for the future he declines to be considered as making, at the time he enters into his employer’s service, an implied contract to run the risks of the employment, objects to the substitution attempted by the bill, of what he calls a Parliamentary contract of employers’ liability, for an implied contract of non-liability. He proposes to “get rid of the judge-made law of implied contract by a short enactment, that where a workman would otherwise be entitled to an action for negligence against his employer, he shall not be defeated merely by the circumstance that he and the person actually causing the injury were in a common employment; with a declaration that this enactment is not to interfere with any express contract on the subject which the employed and the employer may make.”

As Lord Cairns enjoys, with Lord Justice Blackburn, the enviable distinction of being one of the two ablest of living English judges, — if the merit of judicial opinions is to be taken as the criterion, — it will be well, perhaps, to print the entire letter: —

“The Employers’ Liability Bill has passed the House of Commons. At this season of the year it is impossible that there can be a real con-

sideration of such a bill by the House of Lords. I do not wish to inquire whose fault this is, or whether it is the fault of any one: I only desire to state what is the fact. The discussion of the measure in the House of Commons has shown one thing, if it has shown nothing else, — that the subject is much more difficult than was commonly supposed. An attempt has been made to lay down certain formulas or rules which are to meet each and every variety of the infinitely varying trades, employments and industries of the country. The result has been the introduction into the bill of a series of qualifications, modifications, limitations, exemptions and enlargements, which must necessarily lead to much uncertainty, great litigation, considerable ill-feeling, and probably considerable disappointment, and to a mass of new law gradually manufactured by judges, or, what is worse, by juries. These reflections, and the circumstance that it is in your columns alone that a deliberate hearing can now be obtained, induce me to ask in this way, Is it clear that this legislation begins at the right end? Or, rather, is it not clear that it begins at the wrong end? How or why is it necessary that Parliament should step in and define when and to what extent an employer of any of the various forms of labor in this country shall be liable to his workman for an injury occasioned by the negligence of a fellow-workman? Some fifty years ago the courts of law laid down that it was an implied term in every contract of hiring that the person hired took the risk of any negligence in a fellow-workman. This was not an unreasonable supposition in itself, and it was probably not untrue in fact, as things then stood. But there cannot continue to be an implied term in contracts where one of the parties to the contracts distinctly repudiates the existence of any such term. That is now the position of the workmen. They say, in substance, that whatever express contracts they may be willing to make, they have not made, and do not choose to have it asserted that they have made, a contract containing this implied term.

“It appears to me that this is the crucial question which the legislature have to meet, and that it would be better either to meet it directly, or else to leave the law as it stands. The present bill does not meet the question. It proposes to substitute, for the implied contract which the workmen disavow, another special Parliamentary contract, which neither employers nor employed have ever entered into, which they probably do not understand, and which, in numberless cases, will be found in practice to be so irksome to one or other or both of the parties, that they will begin at once to contract themselves out of the act. My proposal would be to get rid of the judge-made law of implied contract by a short enactment, that where a workman would otherwise be entitled to an action for negligence against his employer, he shall not be defeated merely by the circumstance that he and the person actually causing the injury were in a common employment; with a declaration that this enactment is not to interfere with any express contract on the subject which the employed and the employer may make. The result of such an enactment would be that every employer and workman would make the contract which would

be suitable for the particular employment. One employer would set up a system of insurance; another would indicate the particular servants for whose acts alone he would be answerable. Some might exclude particular risks, or make the liability or freedom from liability enter as an ingredient into the amount of wages. The employers and workmen are best able to understand their own work and their own interests. They are quite competent to make their own bargain on equal terms, and to regulate, so far as it is right to do so, the rate of wages by the amount of risk incurred. It may be said that a contract may, as the bill stands, be made to supersede the bill. My answer is, that the moral and social effect, where Parliament merely removes legal difficulties, and invites parties to make their contracts in the way that best suits them, is very different from the effect of a bill which makes, as it were, a Parliamentary contract for the parties, and then drives them by its inaptitude to make stipulations against it. I cannot think that the present bill, if it passes, can settle this question, and it may not be too late to suggest a more lasting solution of it."

When the bill came up in the House of Lords, the Lord Chancellor, Lord Selborne, explained at considerable length the condition of the law and the provisions of the bill, together with their probable effect, citing the law of France and of Germany as in harmony with the change proposed, as well as the law of the State of Missouri in this country. But, in this single particular, as has been seen, he seems to have been misinformed; for the effect of the Missouri statute was destroyed by the decision* of the judges that the phrase "any person" did not include a "fellow-servant." He closed with suggesting, on behalf of the government, two slight amendments.

Viscount Cranbrook commenced, on the part of the Conservatives, the discussion in opposition, using various arguments, not forgetting to present the horror so often apprehended by legislative assemblies, that low attorneys would profit by the litigation with which the country was in danger of being deluged. These apprehensions seem to have been groundless, as, during the first year in which the act was in operation, only thirteen claims, says an English law journal, were brought, of which five were unsuccessful, and the damages recovered in the other eight amounted on an average to £83.

Without attempting to give a summary of the dispute and

* See *ante*, pp. 41 and 42.

the arguments, which were in the main a repetition of the objections already discussed, the result will perhaps be understood by remembering that, on motion of Lord Bra-bourne, sub-section three of section 1 was stricken out, but afterwards agreed to because the Commons insisted upon its insertion; and the operation of the act was limited, upon the motion of the Earl of Beaconsfield, to Dec. 31, 1887, — seven years. The genius of legislation is compromise; but so much was given up on both sides, that neither the friends nor opponents of the measure were satisfied, and the employees are now insisting upon further legislation.

This history of the passage of the English act has been given to show the difficulty attending the reversal of a principle of common law, and to aid the discussion of the measure to come before our own legislature.

THE OPERATION OF THE ACT.

The passage of an act, limited in its operation to seven years, which restricted the amount of compensation to be recovered to three years' earnings, and which, according to the opinion of Mr. Moon, the chairman of the London and North Western Railway, was applicable to not more than two per cent of all the cases of death or injury occurring to employees, would not seem to be the occasion for strikes and disagreements between employers and the employed. And yet some large employers of labor had believed, or during the excitement of public speaking had worked themselves up to the belief, that the act would create a revolution in existing relations, would drive capital out of the country and laborers out of employment, and prove a hardship to one class, and of no benefit to the other. Why the hardship of paying damages is not correspondingly a benefit to the persons receiving them, is not apparent.

The act was to go into effect on the 1st of January, 1881, about four months after its passage; and the first question presented to both parties was whether the workmen could contract themselves out of it. Almost all the solicitors thought such a contract valid; but one of the judges, before whom a claim was presented, thought that to allow such a contract would be against public policy. The Attorney

General, Sir Henry James, said, in reply to a communication from the secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, asking if the signing by a workman of a release from all liability would, in the event of his death, prevent his widow and children from recovering damages :—

“In the event of a railway servant contracting to relieve the company of liability under the Employers' Liability Act, the company would not be liable, in case of his death, to the man's personal representatives, any more than they would be to him if injured and living.”

Having ascertained that a contract of release would defeat any claim for damages, some of the large employers of labor, unnecessarily apprehensive, as it now appears, began to take measures to secure such a release from each of their workmen; and, in order to accomplish this purpose, made proposals to extend the benefits of the insurance funds by increasing their subscriptions, and threatened to withdraw the subscriptions they were then making, and perhaps to discontinue work, unless those proposals were accepted. The summary discontinuance of labor called a strike is usually too great an injury to the employer, and the proprietors of mines have of late had too bitter an experience, to warrant their incurring, without due deliberation, the risk of such an event. However, the course which they pursued, without, perhaps, a sufficiently careful estimation of the value of the object sought, precipitated strikes in some of the mining districts, of short duration, to be sure, but sufficiently severe to raise the price of coals at Manchester, through the inability of the collieries to supply the demand of the factories, to almost famine prices.

In reviewing, in the light of to-day, the disagreements which attended the attempt of the employers, railroad corporations and proprietors of collieries, to obtain over their workmen what seems to be so paltry an advantage, it seems strange that a more careful estimate was not made of the benefit sought. It seems strange, if it is true, as reported by a leading law journal, that during the first eleven months eight judgments, amounting in all to £664, were obtained, that such ignorance as prevailed should have been allowed to blind the eyes of so many people; strange that the leaders

in this reform should not have better estimated the benefits which they hoped to confer upon the workingmen; and stranger still, that intelligent employers, with the best of opportunities for ascertaining their probable liabilities, with the facts in possession or within reach upon which to base a reliable estimate of the vast proportion of cases of injury cut off from the recovery of damages by the contributory negligence of the sufferers, should not have more readily acceded to the wishes of the promoters of this act.

The expectation that the flood-gates of litigation would be opened, and the courts deluged with actions for damages, happily has not been realized. Upon the authority of the "Law Times," a conservative journal of the proceedings of the courts, it is stated that during the first eighteen months of the operation of the act, less than one hundred cases had been brought to trial, a fair proportion of which had proved successful; that probably less than £3,000 had been recovered in damages, and an equal amount in costs; and, if the past year may be taken as a test, "the individual employer would almost be deemed justified in regarding his risk in the same extraordinary way as the risk from lightning or foreign invasion. Moreover, against this risk he can insure by payment of almost nominal rates." And, while the doctrine of common employment remains almost as before, there has been, on account of the ambiguity of the act, and the uncertainty as to its meaning, little gained for the employees except under the section relating to railways. This is not the first attempt at reform, which, in consequence of the legal astuteness of its opponents, has proved abortive.

With the first clause, which made them liable for "any defect in the condition of their ways, works, machinery and plant," the opponents of the bill seem to have expressed no dissatisfaction. With the second clause, which made them liable "for the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has any superintendence entrusted to him," they seem to have been satisfied. Against the fourth clause, which made them liable for "the act or omission of any person in the service of the employer, done or made in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer," etc., they seem to have made little opposition, and to have been satisfied

with the amendment made to it, providing "that where a rule or by-law has been approved or has been accepted as a proper rule or by-law by one of Her Majesty's principal secretaries of State, or by the Board of Trade, or any other department of the government," under or by virtue of an act of Parliament, etc., which allowed a railroad corporation or the proprietors of a mine or factory, or any employer of labor, to submit the body of rules and by-laws, made for the government of its workmen and the general conduct of its business, to proper government officers for approval, the employer should be released from liability under that clause of the act. And clause five, which made every railroad corporation liable for "the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway," does not seem to have been considered by several of the railroad companies as imposing a very unreasonable responsibility, does not appear to have caused, during almost two years, a loss worth considering by a wealthy corporation. It seems to have assisted, by awakening through fear of losses an unusual anxiety concerning the lives of their passengers, in creating a more general confidence in the safety of railway travel; and, if the immediate effect of the act has not been altogether what was expected by its friends, the remote effect has been a general benefit to the general public. Although this real or fancied security may not be lasting, because the railroad companies may soon relax the unusual efforts they have been impelled of late to make, it would seem at this time as though the substantial benefit which the workingman has failed to get under this clause has been realized by the general public.

Clause three, which imposed liability for "the negligence of any person in the service of the employer to whose orders or directions the workman at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed," awakened the most apprehension, because of the vague uncertainty as to how heavy a responsibility was really imposed. Lord Bra-bourne, at the instigation of some of the master-builders, vainly attempted, as has been said, to prevent its passage

through the House of Lords. The apprehension awakened by it seems, however, to have been unnecessary; for, upon the best information obtained, it has not permitted the recovery, in a single year, of an amount of damages equal to the sum total of the judgments ordinarily obtained in a single week in the municipal court of the city of Boston.

The resolution of the legislature directed an examination of the law and an investigation of the facts bearing upon this subject, which has been done fairly and candidly, as an inquiry after information, and not as an attempt to prove a theory. And, so far as the operation of the English act is concerned, it seems just to say that, in the direct benefit conferred upon workmen in the form of damages for personal injuries, it has fallen far short of the anticipations of its promoters. The amount of labor expended by some of them in securing its passage seems to have been well directed, but to have fallen short of their sincere desire to benefit a deserving class of men.

In view of the efforts being made in some of the mining districts to compel the miners to sign contracts of release, and of the fact that notices were being served upon them to the effect that work upon the old terms would cease upon the 1st of January, 1881, the day when the act went into effect, as well as in view of the negotiations with them commenced in consequence of the system of intimidation inaugurated, to which the attention of the government ministers had already been called in Parliament, Mr. Benjamin Pickard, the secretary of the West Yorkshire Miners' Association, which included a large number of men over whom he had a strong influence, wrote to them an earnest letter, urging them upon no consideration whatever to consent to the proposed arrangement, declaring against the amount of litigation apprehended, referring to the manner in which the provisions of the Mines Regulation Act of 1872 were accepted, and avowing that while his constituents had not obtained all which they desired, "they certainly are not about to sell for a mess of pottage what they have got." In the same month of December Mr. A. Macdonald, M. P., a leader in the cause, also wrote strongly urging the miners of South Wales to refuse to enter into any such arrange-

ment; and Mr. William Crawford, secretary of the large association of Durham miners, says in his monthly circular for December: "The act of Parliament has been passed at the special request of the workmen, and for their special protection, and it ought to be allowed to fully operate, irrespective of any other consequences whatever. To contract out of the act by any system of insurance would be turning all the efforts put forth, and work done for many years, into a meaningless farce, and expose ourselves to the merited contempt of all right-thinking persons. One great difficulty which presents itself to the owners is the immense costs which will be incurred in the law courts. I have given the matter much thought, and I think that this difficulty can be easily obviated to the satisfaction of all parties. What we must obtain is the unquestioned right of the workmen to claim from owners compensation in case of accidents which might, or would, by an exercise of care and caution on the part of charge men, have been prevented. Any step which leads to a shifting of the personal responsibility of owners for the safety of the men from their own to the shoulders of insurance companies, is a step in the wrong direction."

These may be taken as types of the opinion almost universally prevalent at this time among miners and operatives.

In December (1880), the London and North Western Railway began negotiations with the men in its employ, numbering over fifty thousand; and a meeting of more than one thousand of them was held at Crewe to listen to a report from a deputation sent to the directors; who, it appears, had found the latter anxious to know whether their employees preferred to accept the act, or a revised scale of insurance. As illustrative of the sentiments which, at this time, seem generally to have prevailed, it may be noted that at this meeting the workmen interrupted the speakers, who were urging the acceptance of the suggestions of the directors, with cries of "Let's have the act!" and it was resolved at the close of the meeting to settle the question by a ballot.

During the next few days various other large meetings of the men, embracing many thousands of them, were held, one at Leicester, one at Wolverton, one at Liverpool, and another among the men employed in the company's mines at

Wigan. The proposal submitted to the men by the directors was as follows: To raise the scale of benefit for those in the first class, who paid 3d. a week, from £40 to £100 in case of death; from £35 to £100 in case of disablement; and from 18s. to 21s. per week in case of temporary disablement. For those in the second class, who pay 2d. a week, to raise the scale from £35 to £80 in case of death; from £25 to £80 in case of disablement; and from 12s. to 14s. per week in case of temporary disablement. And for those in the third class, who pay a penny a week, to raise the benefit from £12 10s. to £40 in case of death; from £18 15s. to £40 in case of disablement; and from 6s. to 7s. per week in case of temporary disablement.

In the collieries of the Earl of Dudley in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, the severe course adopted by him in discharging the surgeons hitherto permanently employed by him to attend to the men injured in his service, and in withdrawing all subscriptions for assistance, together with the sum which it had been his custom to allow for funeral expenses, at first had the effect of provoking the miners to refuse absolutely to sign releases; but an arrangement was afterwards effected. The first case carried to the Court of Queen's Bench was a suit against him in which damages to the amount of £184 were recovered. In this case the implied effect of the act of a workman in accepting his proposal, by returning to work, was tested.

The miners of Fife and Clackmannan, the colliers and iron-workers of Thorncliffe, Chapeltown, and many of the miners of South Yorkshire and North Derbyshire, declined to contract out of the act. Among the miners of West Lancashire, who had established a permanent relief society, which was in a prosperous condition, was assisting two hundred widows and three hundred children, and had an accumulated fund of £20,000, there was a difference of opinion as to the better course to follow, and a general disposition to accept the terms proposed. In Monmouthshire and South Wales, as well as in South Staffordshire, there was early manifested a like disposition, and permanent relief societies were founded in both districts.

As fair a proposal as any was made by the Great Western

Railway, which not only offered liberally to increase its subscriptions to the insurance fund, but also (which manifested a disposition not to take advantage of its men) to allow them, or their representatives in case of death, six weeks in which to elect whether to accept the provisions of the fund, or to rely upon the provisions of the act. The feeling of mutual confidence existing between the officers and employees of this company, and of the London and North Western, resulted in the acceptance of the proposals finally made.

Of 30,000 miners, members of the Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society, 20,000 expressed their willingness to enter into an arrangement, 200 were unwilling, and 2,000 were willing to act with the majority. In some collieries in the Leigh and Wigan districts, and in Durham, strikes occurred; the men refused to contract out of the act, and passed resolutions requesting Mr. Macdonald to endeavor to have the act amended by making such a contract invalid. And in general about all that can be said is, that in some cases where fair and suitable proposals were made by the employers, they were accepted, while in others they were not.

It may be said that usually where large employers of labor did not succeed in securing releases, they resorted to the protection afforded by the accident insurance companies, who issued what are called "floating policies," assuming the risk of all damages which the person insured had been obliged to pay.

In speaking of the uncertainty which prevailed at the passing of the English act, as to its operation and the number of cases to which it would be applicable, Mr. F. G. P. Neison, a member of the London Statistical Society, in the discussion which followed the reading of Mr. Walford's paper "On the number of Deaths from Accidents, Negligence, etc., in the United Kingdom" (see *Journal of the London Statistical Society*, vol. XLIV., part iii., September, 1881), is reported as saying:—

"At that time a great number of employers were in deadly fear and tremor as to the responsibility which would be placed upon them by the passing of the act; and instructed him to inquire into the matter, to

ascertain what would be the practical operation of the bill; and for that purpose he had special facilities. Well, they naturally thought that if they took the question of mines first, they would undoubtedly be dealing with the most dangerous class of occupation in this country; and therefore the reports of the inspectors of mines for twenty years were carefully analyzed, and some large colliery accident funds supplied additional information. To sum up the matter, as far as mines were concerned, he might state that the result arrived at was that the rate of fatal accidents among miners might be safely put down at 23 per 10,000. It had been, some ten or fifteen years ago, as high as 36, but he was glad to notice that each year the rate had been reduced. They next proceeded to the subject of railways, and here he must say they were obliged to have recourse to returns other than those of the Board of Trade, which did not take in all the accidents that occurred. Well, the result of their investigations was this, that the rate of accidents was found to depend materially upon the nature of the traffic conducted upon the line. If they took a passenger line, like some of the lines south of London, they found that in the course of the year some 25 out of every 10,000 employees met with fatal accidents. But when they went to large goods traffic lines, like those north of the Thames, the rate ran up to 35; so that they were surprised to find that, while the accidents in mines were only 23 in 10,000, in railways, under the most favorable circumstances, the rate was 25. Since that inquiry he had had special facilities in connection with the large trades union in connection with the railways, and it was found that the facts arrived at were completely borne out by the experience of the union. They next proceeded to a branch of inquiry not mentioned there that evening. They investigated the returns of the navy for twenty years; and they found, although the rate of accidents in the navy had decreased very considerably in the last few years, taking an average of fifteen years, the rate of deaths from violence in that service was 40 in 10,000. In the mercantile marine the rate was astounding. They found there that instead of 40 the deaths were as high as 150. They found one very considerable element to account for this, and that was, that the deaths from shipwreck alone in the mercantile marine amounted to 80 in 10,000, which still left 70 due to causes other than shipwreck. Hitherto he had dealt with fatal accidents; but now, as far as non-fatal accidents were concerned, they found, taking the country as a whole, that about one-fifth of the men employed in and about mines met with an accident of greater or less intensity every year. In some mines they found the rate ran up to a half of those they employed. A significant fact in their inquiry was this, that they ascertained with regard to the north of England, that when the coal trade was bad, the rate of non-fatal accidents increased wonderfully, and men whose backs were sprained in times of depression, were never heard of in times of prosperity; but always, when the price of labor went down, the men got their backs sprained with greater intensity."

In considering these figures and the number of railway employees annually killed, which is about 25 in every 10,000

employed on passenger lines, and 36 in every 10,000 employed on lines doing both a passenger and freight business, it should not be forgotten that these figures do not represent the per cent of employees who can recover damages, because the defence of contributory negligence, as has been seen, greatly reduces this per cent. To increase to a considerable extent the workman's right to recover damages, will it not be necessary to lighten the severity of the rule of contributory negligence? From the estimates already given on page 94, it will be seen that in only a small per cent of cases of death or injury can damages be recovered. Mr. Moon, the chairman of the London and North Western Railway, in a statement to his employees, put the estimate as low as two per cent. To illustrate: This great railway employs over 50,000 men; and, if 23 in every 10,000 are annually killed, the number would amount to 115 persons, of which number six is about five per cent. If these six can each recover £450 as the maximum damages recoverable under the act, — which may be called, for the purpose of an estimate, three years' earnings, — the whole amount which for deaths can annually be collected of this railway company is £2,800, about \$14,000. If, as stated by Mr. Walford, 12,000 persons are annually killed by violence in Great Britain and Ireland, and, — as all are not killed in dangerous employments, — say two per cent can recover damages of £300 each, for three years' average earnings, the total amount which would probably be recoverable, under this act, for deaths throughout the United Kingdom, would be £72,000, about \$360,000. In Massachusetts there were 49 employees killed on the railroads in 1880, and 72 in 1881; and if, allowing for the dangerous nature of the employment, in five per cent of the cases damages are recoverable, there would have been less than three cases in 1880, and less than four cases in 1881, of deaths on the railroads for which damages could have been recovered. If \$5,000 could be recovered in each case, there would have been \$15,000 recoverable in 1880, and \$20,000 in 1881. And, in case there were three times as many serious injuries as deaths, — which is twice as liberal a proportion as the returns of the railroad companies and the reports of the railroad commissioners indicate, — there were nine

employees injured in 1880, and twelve in 1881, by whom damages were recoverable. If, on an average, \$5,000 was recoverable in each case, the amount of damages which could have been collected for all the injuries to employees on all the railroads of this Commonwealth would have been \$45,000 for the year 1880, and \$60,000 for the year 1881.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ENGLISH ACT.—DECISIONS UNDER IT.

Since this act^a went into operation, two years ago, several cases have been decided in the English courts, showing the effect of the act, the circumstances to which it is applicable, and the construction that should be put upon some of its various clauses.

The defence of common employment has not been abolished; and where the employee who causes and the employee who receives the injury are fellow-servants of the same grade, the liability of the master remains as before. Had it been intended to abolish this defence in all cases, it might have been done by a single sentence, without specifying in sub-sections the classes of cases to which it should be no longer applicable. In *Harrington v. Westthorp*,* it was held that a stevedore who, while stowing a cargo, was struck by a bale of goods, and injured through the negligence of another person engaged in manual labor, could not recover damages of their common employer. See also *Robins v. Cubitt*.† The act has made employers liable to workmen for the negligence of persons in authority over them, on the theory that the injury results from obedience to the orders of the employer or his agent; but it has not extended the liability to the acts of fellow-laborers of the same grade, not commissioned with authority over the person injured.

A husband is liable for the act of his wife, through whose negligence an injury is caused, because she is his agent, and her act is his act;‡ and a volunteer working without pay or reward is in no better position for recovering damages than a hired servant;§ a corporation is liable to its employees for the negligence of its manager or superintendent, who is its servant, and intrusted as its agent with

* L. T., March 11, 1882.

† 46 L. T. Rep. (N. S.) 535.

‡ *Miell v. English*, 15 L. T. 249.

§ *Degg v. Midland Ry Co.* 26 L. J. Ex. 171.

^a For full text see Appendix A.

its authority; and is also liable for the acts and resolutions of its directors, if within the scope of the authority vested in the corporation by its charter, because they are the acts and resolutions of the corporation itself;* and all the members of a partnership are liable to its servant for the negligence of one of the partners,† although they are not liable to one of their servants for the negligence of another servant of the same grade and without authority over the person injured. Under the partial definition of common employment as an employment where the person injured and the person doing the injury are at work to accomplish one and the same ultimate object, are at work for the same master, and derive their authority from the same source, ‡ the master cannot be held liable for negligence except he was so liable before the act was passed, or has been made specifically liable by the first and second sections of the act. It is still a defence when not in the act specifically declared otherwise.

None of the duties which, before the act went into effect, the master owed to his servant, have been changed: the duty of exercising due care (1) whenever he personally superintends or engages in the work; § (2) of exercising due care in the selection and employment of proper and competent servants, in order that each one of them may not be exposed to extraordinary risks by the negligence of unfit fellow-servants; ¶ (3) in providing and maintaining proper materials, tools, implements, machinery and plant,** which duty does not, however, amount to a warranty that they are absolutely fit for the purpose for which they are used, and free from all defects; (4) in carrying on his work or business under a safe and proper system of regulations; †† (5) in conforming to any statutory regulations which have been prescribed by the legislature, as regulations in relation to the erection of fire-escapes on factory buildings. But, while these duties remain the same, other addi-

* *Hough v. Railway Co.*, 100 U. S. 213-218.

† *Ashworth v. Stanwix*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 183.

‡ *Farwell v. B. & W. R. Co.* 4 Met. 49, cited in 3 Macq. 316.

§ *Roberts v. Smith*, 26 L. J. Ex. 319.

¶ *Wilson v. Merry*, L. R. 1 Scotch App. 326-332.

** 3 Macq. 266, 288.

†† *Sword v. Cameron*, 1 D. 493; see 3 Macq. 266, 289.

tional duties have been imposed by the addition of other liabilities, and the increase of the number of remedies.

The act is designed to extend benefits to persons engaged in physical and manual labor, and affords no additional protection to persons engaged in intellectual pursuits, to persons who may be said to work with their heads, instead of their hands. The first section begins with these words: "Where, after the commencement of this act, personal injury is caused to a workman;" and workman is defined by the eighth section to mean "a railway servant and any person to whom the Employers' and Workmen's Act (1875) applies." By this act of 1875 the term "workman" "means any person who, being a laborer, servant in husbandry, journeyman, artificer, handicraftsman, miner, or otherwise engaged in manual labor, whether under the age of twenty-one or above that age, has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract . . . be expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and be a contract of service or a contract personally to execute any work or labor;" but it does not include a domestic or menial servant. It is also enacted by section 13 that the term shall not include seamen or apprentices to the sea; and by section 12, that it shall apply only to an apprentice to the business of a workman, as that term has already been used, upon whose binding to apprenticeship no premium is paid in excess of £25; or to an apprentice who is bound under the provisions of the act which relates to the relief of the poor. It does not include workmen in the employ of the government, — workmen engaged in the royal dock-yards, — because an act does not apply to the crown without an express provision to that effect. The compensation awarded is not intended to be exemplary damages, nor an absolute remuneration for pecuniary loss, but what, under all the circumstances, is a reasonably fair compensation; and any sum recovered by suit, or accepted on agreement, is a bar to an action afterwards brought by the representatives of the person injured.

Various decisions have been made under the first and second sections, as to what are the circumstances under which the right to compensation exists; but it can never

exist where the injury is too remotely the result of the act, complained of. Upon this subject Baron Pollock, in *Rigby v. Hewitt*,* says: "Every person who does a wrong is at least responsible for all the mischievous consequences *that may reasonably be expected to result under ordinary circumstances from such misconduct.*" By the terms of the act, "the workman, or, in case the injury results in his death, the legal personal representatives of the workman, and any person entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the workman had not been a workman of nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in his work."

That the workman can contract out of the act is no longer doubtful, unless the House of Lords should reverse the decision of the Court of Queen's Bench in the case of *Griffiths v. the Earl of Dudley*.†

Soon after the passage of the act, the attorney general and several leading solicitors expressed the opinion that there was no restriction upon the right of contract; and in consequence the Earl of Dudley, among other large employers of labor, notified the miners in his collieries on the first of January, 1881, the day the act went into operation, that they must, if they continued to work, waive the benefits of the act. "Conditions of employment," so called, were circulated through the collieries, containing stipulations,— "that the persons employed at the colliery must be, and continue to be, during such employment, ordinary members of the colliery club or Permanent Relief Society, under its then present or any future name; that the employer should be, and continue to be, an honorary member of the society, and should subscribe thereto not less than theretofore; that, in consideration of such payment by the employer, and on being employed at the colliery, and as part of the terms of employment, every person so employed undertook for himself and his representatives, and any person entitled in case of his death, to look to the funds of the society alone under the rules and constitution thereof for compensation in case of injury sustained in such employment, whether resulting in death or not; and that neither the employer, nor any

* 5 Exch. 243.

† L. R. 9 Q. B. D. 357.

other person in his employment, whether a fellow-servant or not, should be liable in respect of any defect, negligence, act or omission under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, or otherwise, or in respect of any negligence occasioning such injury; that the contract should remain in force and operate as a contract between the workman and the owner for the time being of the colliery, so long as the workmen continued to be employed at the colliery." This document was also posted in the hovels of the workmen, and in conspicuous places throughout the collieries.

Upon a suit brought in the Dudley County Court, and carried to the Queen's Bench, by the widow of one Griffiths, a workman killed in the pit-shaft through the negligence of an inspector of machinery, it was held by the Queen's Bench that such a contract was not against public policy; that the workman could and did contract himself out of the act, and could and did bind his widow and legal representatives by such a contract. The effect of the act was simply to negative the implication of an agreement by the workman in the contract of service, and in this way to render his contract not to claim compensation invalid; but the implication was overcome by an express contract of release.

Under the first sub-sections of the first and second sections which cover injuries caused "by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the service of the employer," if the defect "arose from or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence (1) of the employer, or (2) of some person in the service of the employer, entrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works, machinery or plant were in proper condition," the term "ways" may be taken to mean the streets, lanes, passages or approaches leading to and connected with the employer's business or place of business. In *Etherington v. Harrison* (L. T. Dec. 31, 1881), and in *Huxam v. Thoms* (L. T. Jan. 28, 1882, Q. B. D.), it was decided that a plank "run" or "gang-way" leading from one building to another, and in *Moore v. Shaw* (L. T. Nov. 20, 1882, Q. B. D.) that a scaffold erected for the use of workmen in building a church, was a "way;" but it had before been held not to apply to a tramway which rests upon the soil without being

affixed to it.* “Plant” is a general term, used more especially in England, and includes tools, implements, machinery, rolling-stock, fixtures, apparatus, or appliances ordinarily used in carrying on any trade, manufacture, or business.† These clauses do *not* impose an obligation of absolute *warranty* or *insurance* against defects. In *Langham v. Young*,‡ decided in the Westminster County Court, it was held that they did not impose a warranty against *latent defects*, which decision was affirmed in *Whittaker v. Balmforth*,§ although in this case the employer was held liable for his foreman’s negligence in selecting an eye-bolt. Neither do they impose a warranty that the machinery is as *safe as possible* against accidents, and adapted to prevent every *possible* carelessness.||

The second sub-section applies to “the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has any superintendence intrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence.” The meaning of the words, “in the service of the employer” depends upon the relations existing between the master and servant, the characteristics of which relationship are (1) a hiring, together with the several rights of (2) direction, and control, and (3) dismissal (4) upon payment of wages.** The injury must have occurred during the exercise of this superintendency, although in point of time it may have happened after the superintendency had ceased.† †

The third sub-section applies to the negligence “of any person in the service of the employer to whose orders or directions the workman at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed.” An “order” has been called negligent when the acts which, in discharge of the order, it is reasonably necessary for the workman to do, involve extraordinary risk; as, for instance, to use a hand crane for the purpose of moving a wheelbarrow of sand, when the sand

* *Beaufort (Duke of) v. Bates*, 3 D. F. J. 381, s. c. 31 L. J. Ch. 481.

† See Wharton’s Law Lexicon.

‡ Law Times, July 30, 1881.

§ Law Times, Sept. 10, 1881.

|| *Robins v. Cubitt*, L. T. R. (N. S.) 535, s. c. L. R. Q. B. D.

** *McGinn v. Pilling*, L. T. Dec. 31, 1881.

†† *Owen v. Maudslay*, L. T. Nov. 19, 1881; Q. B. D. Feb. 18, 1882.

might instead have been carried by spadefuls.* But if there is no negligence attributable to the workman who gave the order, and the accident occurred without negligence on the part of any one, the master will not be liable; and where a workman was assisting, under the direction of the foreman, in raising a steam engine, and when it had been raised several inches, the foreman let go for the purpose of putting a brick under it, thereby causing the engine to fall and crush the workman's fingers, it was held that the "order" was not negligent.†

The fourth sub-section of section 1, and the second sub-section of section 2, relate to an act or omission "done or made in obedience to (1) the rules or by-laws, or in obedience (2) to particular instructions given to any person delegated with the authority of the employer in that behalf," provided "the injury resulted from some impropriety or defect in the rules, by-laws or instructions therein mentioned." These clauses amount to an absolute warranty that the rules and by-laws shall be free from "improprieties" and "defects," and make the employer responsible for the injury caused by the act of any workman of any grade which results from his execution of such an order. An "impropriety" in a rule may be defined to be an unfitness in the method prescribed to accomplish the purpose intended,—unfitness either in the manner in which the purpose shall be accomplished, in the time or place at which it shall be done, or the circumstances which shall attend its accomplishment; and "defect" may be defined to include any neglect or omission in the rule to provide for the accomplishment of the purpose intended. There is nothing in the act which makes it necessary that the rule should be in writing, although the term "by-laws" may have been intended to mean a written rule. The further provision allowing a rule or by-law, which has been approved or accepted by certain public officers, to be considered free from improprieties or defects, is similar to provisions in the Petroleum Act of 1871, the Mines Regulation Act of 1872, the Explosives Act of 1875, and the Alkali Act of 1881.

* *Laming v. Webb*, L. T. Feb. 4, 1882.

† *McManus v. Hay*, 19 S. L. R. 345.

Sub-section five, which relates to "the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway," extends to railway companies a wider liability than is imposed upon other employers, because of the peculiarly dangerous risk attending this employment, upon the safe conduct of which the security of travellers so much depends, and because of the unusual difficulty of making it sure that railroads may not escape liability through the variety of dissimilar occupations in this employment. The framers of the act found this section, not included in the original bill, absolutely essential to the accomplishment of their purposes; and it is quite likely that this is the only section of any special value to the persons intended to be benefited. The terms "charge or control" are important words in the clause; and in *Haysler v. Great Western Railway Co.** the question as to the extent of their meaning was raised, and they were given, for the purposes of the case, a construction sufficiently broad to allow two persons at the same time to be in charge and control of an engine.

The same words were also under consideration in *Cox v. The Great Western Railway Co.*,† where a "capstan-man" in the employ of the company, engaged in propelling a series of trucks along a line of rails for the conveyance of goods and freight, injured a fellow-employee engaged at the time in a similar occupation at the other end of the line, and about one hundred yards off. The motion was given to the trucks from a capstan moved by hydraulic power from a stationary engine. The questions of fact were allowed by the court to be left to the jury, — (1) whether the "capstan-man" had the charge or control of a train upon a railway, and (2) whether he was negligent; and both were answered in the affirmative. This case also decides that a series of trucks (twelve trucks in this case), laden with goods instead of passengers, constitutes a "train upon a railway;" and perhaps the further question that the act applies to stationary or traction engines.

Under section 7, which provides that "a notice in re-

* L. T. Dec. 17, 1881; Q. B. D. Dec. 10, 1881.

† L. R. 9, Q. B. D. 106.

spect of an injury under this act shall give the name and address of the person injured, and shall state in ordinary language the cause of the injury, and the date at which it was sustained," it was held in *Stone v. Hyde*,* that the notice shall not be expressed in technical language with the particularity of a statement of claim; that a statement, in ordinary language, of the name and address of the person injured, with the cause and date of the injury, was sufficient. This notice, it is apparent from the context, must be in writing; a verbal notice cannot be served on the defendant, as the section further prescribes.† It need not be given by the person injured, but may be given by his solicitor, or perhaps by any person, in behalf of the workman, who has knowledge or information of the injury; and it is thought that it may even be contained in more than one letter or document.‡ And by the same section it is also provided that any defect or inaccuracy shall not render the notice invalid, unless the defence is prejudiced thereby, or there was an intention to mislead.§

The defence of contributory negligence remains unchanged by the act. In the original bill it was provided, at the end of the first section, "that this section shall not apply where the workman injured materially contributed by his own negligence to the cause of his injury." This clause would have mitigated somewhat the severity of the rule of contributory negligence, the application of which prevented the person injured, in ninety-five cases out of a hundred, as has been seen, from recovering damages, by allowing him to recover damages where his negligence had not contributed materially to the injury. But in the process of revising the bill, under the supervision of able counsel, in order to make it conform more completely to the interests of employers, this clause was stricken out, and thus the work was finished of making the bill what may now, with propriety, be called a sham reform.

The term "contributory negligence," which is used to designate this doctrine, is likely to mislead, because it seems

* 46 L. T. R. (N. S.) 421.

† *Moyle v. Jenkins*, L. T. Dec. 16, 1881; 51 L. J. Q. B. 112.

‡ *Keene v. Millwall Dock Company*, 46 L. T. R. (N. S.) 472.

to indicate that the person injured cannot recover where he, by his negligence, consented or contributed to the injury. But when more carefully expressed in ordinary language, the rule is that the person injured cannot recover damages, when, however negligent the other party might have been, the injury might have been prevented by the exercise of ordinary care on his part, — of such care as a reasonably prudent man of ordinary intelligence would have exercised under like circumstances. It may be true that the negligence of the other was of the grossest kind; but, when it is equally true that the injury might have been prevented by the exercise of ordinary care, the law says that the negligence of the other would have done no injury without the negligence of the person injured; and says, furthermore, that the burden of proof shall rest upon the latter; and, because he is the plaintiff, he shall show by a reasonable preponderance of evidence, that he was in the exercise of ordinary care, and the injury is in no degree attributable to the want, on his part, of such care.* If a railway train should pass a station without giving warning of its approach by whistling, and a person crossing the track without looking for the approach of a train should be injured, he would be guilty of contributory negligence.† If the proprietor of a colliery should for weeks allow a statutory special rule, requiring the hoisting ropes to be examined every day, to be disregarded, and in consequence of this violation a workman should be injured who himself neglected upon this notice to examine the rope after a fire had occurred in the mine, he would be guilty of contributory negligence.‡

In the application of this rule its hardship becomes more manifest because it is applied by jurors, in the calmness of a court room, upon evidence submitted after the act has resulted in an injury, and argued upon by counsel able to point out some way in which the injury might possibly have been avoided. While the doctrine of contributory negligence in all its severity remains unchanged,§ another clause

* *The Margaret*, L. R. 6, P. D. 76; *Horton v. Ipswich*, 12 Cush. 488.

† *Slattery v. D. W. & W. R. Co.* 3 App. cases 1155.

‡ *Senior v. Ward*, 28 L. J., Q. B. 139.

§ See *Pitman v. Bennett*, L. T. February, 25, 1882.

of the act defines a failure to give notice of a known defect or neglect to be such an omission as is equivalent to contributory negligence. Sub-section three of section 2 says, "No right to compensation shall exist in any case where the workman knew of the defect or negligence which caused his injury, and failed within a reasonable time to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or some person superior to himself in the service of the employer, unless he was aware that the employer or such superior already knew of the said defect or negligence." This, without doubt, places upon the person suing an obligation to give notice of any defect known to him, and to prove at the trial that he has not violated that obligation. The information must relate to the defect which caused the injury; and, when the notice has been given to the employer or any superior servant, the workman cannot be accused of contributory negligence. Should he, however, continue in the service, and receive injury from this defect or any other neglect complained of, there is nothing in the act to prevent the use of the defence that he thereby consented to take the risk of the defect or neglect.

Attention has already been called to the fact that only partially has the defence of common employment been abolished, and that little more has been done in this direction than to make the employer liable for the negligence of a person entrusted with superintendency or with superior authority. "At the time of the passing of the act, the law stood thus," says Mr. Justice Field, in the case of *Griffiths v. the Earl of Dudley*:* "It was an implied term of the contract between employer and workman, that the latter should not recover damages if he was injured by the negligence of a person in the common employment." And if, he continues, the effect of section 1 is to do away with this implied term, the contract of service, upon which both rely, is likewise done away with, and there is no contract left by virtue of which any right of action exists; and, moreover, the workman becomes a trespasser upon the employer's premises. The cases of *Priestly v. Fowler*,† of *Farwell v. the Boston & Worcester Railroad*,‡ and of the *Bartonshill*

* L. R. 9 Q. B. D. 357, 363.

† 3 M. & W. 1.

‡ 4 Met. 49.

Coal Co. v. Reid,* already cited several times, established this doctrine of implied contract, and the common employment incident thereto, which was carried so far in Wilson v. Merry as to excuse an employer from all liability for the negligence of his foreman or superintendent. And the act seems only to have gone so far as to change the rule of Wilson v. Merry, and leave the principle of implied contract and common employment as it was laid down in these earlier cases.

No consideration of the operation of the act would be of much value which failed to mention the relief afforded the employers by the aid of insurance. Two courses were open to them; either, first, to make their contributions to the insurance and protective funds large enough to induce their workmen to contract out of the act; or, second, to submit to its terms, and, by obtaining floating policies in accident insurance companies, to make the burden as light as possible. It was soon found that by the payment of almost nominal rates, general floating policies could be obtained; and that those employers who did not succeed upon payment of small contributions to the funds in avoiding the provisions of the act, might safely submit with little fear of the ruin and bankruptcy so foolishly apprehended. The lamentable ignorance which prevailed two or three years ago, as to the amount of damages recoverable, was dispelled only when some persons, first among whom were the accident insurance companies, made a careful collection of the facts and statistics in relation to violent deaths and injuries, and therefrom estimated the proportion of deaths and injuries probably resulting from contributory negligence. When it was found how very small a proportion was left, for which in each case the maximum rate of damages was only about £225, the employers must have laughed at the obstacles which they found existed only in their imagination, and the friends of the reform must have felt that they had gained a hollow victory. For even this slight liability the employer has a remedy, sometimes perhaps of little value, against the person by whose negligence he has been compelled to pay damages to his workman; and even when this liability has

* 3 Macq. 266, 283.

been assumed for him by some accident insurance company, the latter, upon payment of the loss, has, by what is called the right of subrogation, the privilege of prosecuting the remedy in his name.

DECISIONS IN COUNTY COURTS UNDER THE ENGLISH ACT.

The county courts have, under section 6, original jurisdiction of all actions under the act, subject to removal to a superior court, in like manner and upon the same conditions as other actions begun in the county courts. While the decisions of these courts are not of like character with those of the higher courts, some of them at least are worthy of grave consideration, as they are rendered by lawyers of the rank of Queen's counsel, appointed to try questions of fact with the aid of a jury. All the decisions under the act of the higher courts have, it is believed, been referred to, and, unless some oversight has occurred, all the decisions of the county courts made between November, 1881, when the act may be said to have been fairly in operation, and the present time (December, 1882), have been digested here. In the absence of opinions by judges of appellate courts, they are of peculiar importance, as the only judicial construction placed upon the act.

Ways, Works, etc. — *Topham v. Goodwin*, Law Times, Nov. 5, 1881; section 2, sub-section 1, and section 2, sub-section 3.

The question was, whether a certain form of machinery (*viz.*, a loose pulley or some other proper means of throwing a saw out of gear) rendered it defective within the meaning of this section. The court decided in favor of the defendant.

Etherington v. Harrison, L. T., Dec. 31, 1881, section 1, was decided by the jury in favor of the plaintiff on a question of fact, whether a loose plank in a scaffolding was such a defect in the "ways and works" used by the defendant in his business as to make him responsible, upon its being brought to his notice, for an injury sustained through the plank falling down upon the plaintiff.

Huxam v. Thoms, L. T., Q. B. D., Jan. 28, 1882, section 1. A scaffold is part of the ways and works. The

plaintiff fell off the scaffold. It was held that there was evidence on the part of defendant, sufficient to make him liable under section 1.

Smith v. Lafons, L. T., July 22, section 1, sub-section 1. The plaintiff, in the course of employment, was standing on a bridge owned by the defendant, which overtopped a public road, and while there standing was knocked over by a team attempting to pass underneath it, causing the injury for which he sued. The driver of the team was ordered to go ahead by a policeman in the employ of the defendant. It appeared also that the bridge was insecurely fastened to the walls on either side. The defendant was held liable, under section 1, sub-section 1, for a defect in ways, works, etc.

Batchelor v. Tilbury, et al., L. T., Aug. 12, 1882, section 1, sub-section 1. Plaintiff was a "bricklayer's laborer." Defendants were in partnership as builders. Plaintiff sued for injuries caused, while in their employ, by the "fall of a scaffold placed on joists supported on a quartering sustained by 'corbels.'" The corbels in this case were flat iron plates, "without any turn-up at the ends or sides," and used for the purpose of insertion in the wall. The wall which was being built was a party wall between two houses. One of the corbels had to be removed, as it crossed a chimney or flue; and it was owing to the careless manner in which this corbel was reset by one of the bricklayers, that the scaffolding fell and injured the plaintiff. It was held that "scaffolding was no doubt part of the works in building; and the works should be sufficiently supported and firm while in use, to insure safety to the workmen employed in the work, that they might go about their work with a free mind and ready will;" and judgment was accordingly given for the plaintiff, who was held to have exercised due care under the circumstances.

Franks v. the India Rubber, etc., Co., L. T., Oct. 7, 1882, section 2, sub-section 1. The plaintiff, while engaged in operating a cutting-machine, was standing on some loose planks, which, slipping from under him, threw him on to the machine, and caused the injury for which he sued. It was held that this was not a defect in the "plant" within the meaning of the act, and, even if it were, that the defendants could not have been held liable, as it was not shown

that the defect had arisen "or had not been discovered" through his negligence or that of his superintendent.

Notice (defective), Service, etc. — *Moyle v. Jenkins*, L. T., Dec. 16, 1881. This case involved the question of giving notice. It was decided that it must be in writing, all the judges intimating, however, that perhaps the act might be improved by amendment in that respect.

Adams v. Nightingale, L. T., Dec. 24, 1881, sections 4 and 7. It was held that "notice of injury, left after business hours, under certain circumstances was insufficient." In this case, one copy of the notice was left at a late hour in the afternoon (five minutes to six) with a little boy from five to seven years old, son of the foreman; while another was left at the same hour in a little wooden house belonging to the foreman, where he paid off his laborers. Still a third was left with a laborer on the premises at 5.30 o'clock.

The same case was decided in the Queen's Bench, April 15, 1882. It was held, in this court, that "a notice under the act must be served in such a manner that it is reasonable to expect that it will come to the defendant's knowledge in the ordinary course of business;" and further, that "the defendant's knowledge of the injury suffered by the plaintiff, within six weeks, did not cure any informality with regard to the notice."

Hunter v. Dickinson, L. T., March 25, 1882. This was a case of defective notice. The court, in commenting upon the latter part of the seventh section, is reported as saying that an error inadvertently made in giving notice, as a wrong date, etc., might be amended; but, where there was no statement at all of how the injury happened, except the words "in consequence of certain defective arrangements," it could not be said that any notice had been given.

Macey v. Hodson et al., L. T., Dec. 24, 1881. This case involved the question of waiver of notice. It was held that the fact that one of the defendants promised on three separate occasions to compensate the plaintiff, was not "a reasonable excuse" for the want of notice."

Franks v. Silver & Co., L. T., May 27, 1882, section 4, County Court rules, 1880, rule 3. This is the same case as

Franks *v.* India Rubber Co. (*ante*, p. 132). It was held that, where a notice under section 4 merely stated that the injury was caused "in consequence of being directed to stand upon a loose board in running water," and the bill of particulars, required by the county court rules (rule 3) to be attached to the summons, stated that it was the result of a "defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the business of the employers," the plaintiff had not fulfilled the requirements of the act.

Who is a Contractor? — McGinn *v.* Pilling & Co., L. T., Dec. 31, 1881, sections 1, 2, and 8, and sub-sections thereof. Where the plaintiff was injured by the negligence of a sub-contractor, in whose employ he was at the time, it was held that, under a strict construction of the word "employer," as contained in the sub-sections of section 1, the defendants were not liable, as the plaintiff was not employed by them. In this case all the materials for the work were furnished by the defendants, and the sub-contractor who hired the plaintiff was a man of no substance, having, it appears, just come out of the workhouse.

Harrison *v.* Dawson, L. T., Oct. 14, 1882, section 8. "The plaintiff was employed by the defendant to take a barge" to a dock and unload it. "In pushing the barge from its moorings," he "stepped on a carling or beam" used to support some boards, some of which proved to be rotten, and others had been taken away. The "carling" went from under him, and he was precipitated into the hold, breaking his leg by the fall. The plaintiff received a stipulated amount for his services, having the liberty to employ help if he saw fit. He did, as a matter of fact, employ others. It was held that, under these circumstances, a "lighter man" was a contractor, "and not a workman, within the act."

Negligent Order. — Haysler *v.* the Great Western Railway Company, L. T., Dec. 17, 1881, section 1. The plaintiff, while in the course of his employment of tending an engine, was injured through the negligence of an engineer or fireman in the employ of the company. The court declined to express an opinion as to who was "in charge" of the engine, but

decided that there was evidence sufficient, on the whole, to give judgment for plaintiff, and accordingly decided in his favor.

Hatfield v. Enthoven, L. T., Dec. 31, 1881, section 1, sub-section 1. (Discretion allowed workmen in obeying a negligent order.) This case involved a question of "some nicety" as to whether it was within the scope of employment to perform a certain act (viz., removing a crane) which caused an injury to plaintiff, and which it was necessary for him to perform before he could obey orders. The court, "although with some doubt" as to the fact in this particular case, decided in favor of the plaintiff.

Laming v. Webb, L. T., Feb. 4, 1882, section 1. Held, that it was evidence of negligence, sufficient to create liability, to order a minor to alter some machinery while it was in motion.

In *Smith v. Lafons*, before quoted, the defendant was held liable, under section 1, sub-section 2, "with some doubt," for the negligence of one entrusted with superintendence.

Harrington v. Westhorp, L. T., March 11, 1882, section 1, sub-section 3. An employer is not liable for negligence of manual laborer. Admitting that the defendants were negligent in this case, contrary to the finding of the jury, still *semble* the defendants would not be liable, as the act which is alleged to have caused the injury was done by one who was only temporarily acting as foreman, "but whose usual duties were those of manual labor."

Boatwright v. Downing, L. T., Aug. 15, 1882, section 1, sub-sections 2 and 3. A person engaged in manual labor is not a superior workman. A person ordinarily engaged in manual labor, whose order, as to how a pole should be used in raising a beam, the person injured obeys, is not a superior workman or a superintendent under sub-sections 2 and 3 of section 1. The plaintiff was directed by the foreman of the defendant to obey the orders of E, an under foreman; E directed him to assist two manual laborers in raising a beam by the aid of a pole. The injury was caused by the unskillfulness and want of proper judgment of plaintiff and E in putting up the pole. As E was an ordinary foreman, and usually engaged in manual labor, it was held that he was not

a person for whose acts the employer was liable, as one intrusted with superintendence, or as a superior workman, under sub-sections 2 and 3 of section 1. This case is not quite so strong as *Harrington v. Westhorp* (*ante*, p. 135), because here the person who caused the injury was not only ordinarily engaged in manual labor, but also had no authority whatsoever to superintend the particular work in question.

Owens v. Maudsley & Co., L. T., Nov. 19, 1881, section 1. This case turned on the question whether the under foreman of the company was negligent. The jury found that there was negligence in not turning a boiler-plate in such a manner as to make it safe to remove a boiler, and held the company liable. The appeal to the Queen's Bench was afterwards dismissed, and the judgment sustained.

Trivett v. Midland Railway Company, L. T., June 3, 1882, section 1, sub-sections 2 and 3. The plaintiff, while at work on one of the company's engines under the orders of a foreman, was injured through the negligence of a superintendent in giving an order for reversing the engine without previously warning the plaintiff, according to the rule of the company, whereby the plaintiff was injured.

Clowes v. the Atlantic Patent Fuel Company, L. T., Oct. 28, 1882, section 1, sub-section 5. The plaintiff was employed by the defendant as "handy" man, his duties being simply to obey orders. While obeying the orders of a foreman, or superior workman in the employ of the company, who directed him to sand the rails so as to give the engine a better start, the engine was suddenly set in motion, without any warning, as was the custom in such cases, and caused the injury for which this suit was brought. The court held that the company was liable for the negligence of its driver in starting the engine without warning, under section 1, sub-section 5, which makes the master liable for the negligence of a workman in the management of a locomotive.

Contributory Negligence. — *Pitman v. Bennett*, L. T., Feb. 25, 1882. It was held that contributory negligence was a defence, except where the employer or his superintendent have notice of a defect within the meaning of the third exception in section 2, which obliges a workman to give

notice to his employer, or some superior person, of the defect, if known to him, which caused the injury.

Warren v. Bates, L. T., Oct. 14, 1882, section 1, sub-section 1, and section 2, sub-section 1. "The plaintiff, being in charge of an engine and boiler at the defendant's mill, improperly placed heavy weights upon the safety-valve; and, although he was aware that the gauge-glass was out of order, owing to there being a quantity of mud in the boiler, failed to try the test-taps attached to the boiler for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of water in it. The plaintiff having been injured by the boiler exploding: Held, that the above facts constituted contributory negligence on the part of the plaintiff, and that he was therefore not entitled to recover, under section 1, sub-section 1, and section 2, sub-section 1, notwithstanding that the boiler was in a defective condition from want of cleaning, owing to the negligence of the defendant's foreman."

In *Topham v. Goodwin*, above cited, the question whether there was any contributory negligence on the part of the plaintiff (a minor), in handling machinery while it was in motion, was decided in favor of the defendant.

Actual Employment necessary.—*Lovell v. Charrington*, L. T., March, 1882. It was held that the act did not apply in this case, as it was proved, as matter of fact, that the plaintiff was not in the employ of the defendant at the time the injury occurred.

Employee's Right to Contract himself out of the Act; Widow and Legal Representatives deprived of any Claim for Damages.—*Griffiths v. Lord Dudley*, L. T., June 3, 1882, Q. B. D. It was held that, even if the employee could contract himself out of the act, "yet he could not contract to deprive his widow or other personal representative of the benefit of that statute." (On a rule *nisi* granted to show cause, etc., this decision was afterwards over-ruled, the court holding that under such a contract his legal representatives would be cut off from all right of action.)

What is Plant? — *Banks v. Murrell*, L. T., June 17, 1882, section 1, sub-section 1. The plaintiff, while at work filling coal bins for the defendant, was injured through the giving way of a defective partition in one of the bins. It was held that this was a defect in the "plant," for which the company were liable under sub-section 1 of section 1, which makes them responsible without being notified of any defect.

Compensation. — Amount of compensation for injuries to be recovered by an "army reserve pensioner."

Bolton v. Midland Railway Company, L. T., July 8, 1882, section 3. The plaintiff, who was on the "reserve list," and entitled to a pension of sixpence per day, sued the company for extra compensation on account of the loss of his pension through injuries sustained by the negligence of a superior workman in the company's employ. It was held that he was entitled to damages under section 3, allowing a sum not exceeding the estimated earnings of three years; but it does not appear distinctly whether the loss of his pension should be included in the compensation awarded.

DISCUSSION OF THE SUBJECT IN THIS COUNTRY.

This subject has for years attracted the attention of lawyers, who in their professional practice have abundant opportunity of seeing the hardship and misery caused by the unjust distinction made between the liability of employers to third persons and to their employees. It is of frequent occurrence to hear or read of an instance where a corporation which is answerable for an injury to one of its workmen at the bar of conscience and of public opinion, is released from liability at the bar of what is called justice. A single instance will illustrate the hardship of the rule. An Italian, just landed in this country, ignorant of its language and its people, was hired to shovel gravel on one of our railroads by a sub-contractor of the company. He worked at loading and unloading a gravel train with a gang of men, two of whom were assigned to each car. He worked, with another laborer, on the last car. The train had been loaded, and was backing down, over a temporary, poorly-laid track, to be unloaded, which was done by dump-

ing or upsetting the car. The train had backed down, and had stopped, as he supposed, at the place where his car was to be dumped; and he, with the others, had got up from the gravel where they had been sitting, when the engineer gave the train a sudden jerk forward, in order to get headway for the purpose of backing still further. The Italian was thrown off backwards under the wheels, run over, and seriously injured. Upon a suit for damages, it was proved at the trial that, although the railroad company owned the engine, and the engineer who caused the injury was in their employ, the engine, and with it the engineer, was let to the sub-contractor, to work under his direction and control; and therefore, under the rule of common employment, the engineer and the Italian were fellow-employees for the sub-contractor. The poor fellow, who could recover no damages, had no money, was unable to work, was a cripple for life, and shortly afterwards became an inmate of one of the State almshouses.

It may be said that he ought to have sat still on the top of the gravel until the train had finally stopped; and that by getting up he was guilty of contributory negligence. But this was a fact for the jury to pass upon, which they were prevented from considering by the application of the rule of common employment. It may be said that, admitting the engineer to have been careless, while the laborer was not, the company ought not to be held responsible for his carelessness, because it had done its best to employ a competent man. But, even if it had done its best, the law, whether justly or unjustly, has for centuries made every company, every partnership, corporation, or individual, responsible for contributory negligence to every other person who is thereby injured, except to its own employee. Why should the law make an exception in the case of an employee?

This question has been often asked by lawyers and others, and the conventional answer given is, that the employee agrees to take the risk of the employment, and is paid for taking it. That he is paid for taking the risk is proved to be a mistake by a comparison of the rate of wages paid employees in dangerous employments with the wages paid

men of like capacity in other employments. On the other hand, that he agrees to take the risk is proved by saying that the courts have made for him an implied contract to this effect. To which it is answered that the laborer, while denying that the courts ever had a right to make for him such a contract, denies further their right to imply such a contract any longer, in the face of his express denial that he agrees or will submit to such a contract. No court can imply a contract contrary to the express desire of one of the persons made a party to it. While there may have been among lawyers and others a difference of opinion as to the justice in all cases, or wisdom, of a general change of the law, the hardship of compelling the workman to endure in silence an injury caused by another workman acting in strict obedience to the authority conferred upon him by their employer, has generally been recognized, although of late but little discussed in the courts, because the rule of common employment has become so strongly established as to make exception to it of no avail. When, however, in consequence of the terrible explosions occurring in English, Welsh, and Scottish coal mines, by which scores of miners were killed at a time, public attention in England was called to the poverty and misery resulting in part from what many thought a gross defect in the law; and when, also, after years of agitation, Parliament had passed the Employers' Liability Act, it began to be thought possible in this country to effect a reversal of the common law.

Within the past few years this subject has been before the legislatures of several of the States, which, as has been seen, have passed laws making employers liable for injuries in certain cases, although no such general change has been made as that by the English Parliament. During the past two years the subject has been before the legislatures of several States, New York and Connecticut among others, which have as yet made no change. Two years ago it was brought before the legislature of Massachusetts by a petition signed by Wendell Phillips, Benjamin F. Butler, Delano A. Goddard, Edwin B. Haskell, and editors of several other leading newspapers published in the State, and other prominent citizens; but, upon reference to the judiciary committee,

and a hearing thereon, the petition was opposed by counsel for all the railroads running into Boston, and defeated. Last year the subject was renewed, and, upon hearing, on the recommendation of the committee, was referred by a resolution of the legislature to the Bureau of Statistics of Labor for consideration.

SUMMARY OF REASONS AND OBJECTIONS.

In closing the discussion of this subject, it may be well, even at the risk sometimes of repetition, to give a summary of some of the objections to and the reasons in favor of a change in the law. One of the most frequent objections against compelling the employer to compensate his employee for the negligence of a fellow-workman is, that he ought not to be obliged to answer for the acts of another, when he is himself without fault. To which objection the answer is made, that when the employer, by the employment of another whom he vests with a general authority to act in his stead, chooses to part with his own authority, and trust to the judgment and discretion of some one else, he ought to abide the consequences, whether good or bad. When the employee does well, he reaps the profits; when the employee does ill, he ought to suffer the losses; and public policy requires that, as some one must bear the burden of the risk, it should rest upon the shoulders of the person who employs, pays and controls the workman. And, moreover, as the law has for centuries imposed upon the employer a similar obligation towards all other persons, making him answerable to the world in general for the negligence of his servants, such an exception to a general principle of liability ought not to exist without some special reason therefor. If it is a hardship to be obliged to pay for the wrong-doing of a servant whenever the act is not a wilful act, it is a hardship which the wisdom of our ancestors imposed, and which has not been removed by the wisdom of later times.

Another objection, often urged, is that the employee enters into the contract of employment with full knowledge of the dangers, with the risk computed in his wages. As to the first part of this objection it may be asked whether, unless the employment is of a very dangerous nature, the risk of injury is often considered at the time the contract is

made, or any thought taken as to where the responsibility for damages would rest. And, as no such risk is assumed, on a railroad for instance, by the traveller when he buys his ticket, while, on the contrary, the company is made by law responsible for the competency of its servants and the safety of the journey, it is natural to ask why a different rule should be made to apply to a brakeman or conductor. Whether the danger of injury is computed in the wages, is a question of fact dependent upon a knowledge of the wages paid to workmen of like capacity in less dangerous employments, which it is evident could be obtained only after a careful investigation of the manifold causes which determine the rate of wages. If, however, only a casual inquiry were made as to the wages paid to laborers of the same grade in other employments, it would be found that the workman is paid for the labor performed, with no compensation whatever for the risk of injury.

But the present state of the law, it is said, rests upon a contract of service implied by the courts; because, when the rule was adopted, the judges thought that public policy required an agreement of non-liability, rather than one of liability. But is not this rather a question of political economy than one to be passed upon by the courts? And is it not possible that what was thought a wise public policy for the State to adopt a half-century ago, when manufactures and railroads were in their infancy, ought to be changed by the legislature, now that the consolidation of capital in great monopolies has become an object of apprehension? In order to foster these commercial enterprises, is it any longer necessary to exact so heavy a contribution from the laboring class, and impose the burden of so severe a protective system upon our own instead of foreign laborers? While the judges who made this law may have been wise in their generation, is it not probable that the wisdom of time and experience may think that public policy requires a change in the law?

Again, it is urged that the employee ought to be left to his remedy against the fellow-employee who caused his injury. Hardly any one would be so simple as to consider this remedy of any practical value, because, unfortunately, most workmen are not able to pay a judgment for damages,

or even a bill of costs. Besides, until within a year, — until the case of *Osborne v. Morgan* * overruled the case of *Albro v. Jaquith*, † decided in 1855, it has been impossible for such a judgment to be obtained. Neither does it seem altogether right to compel an employee, acting in good faith, using his best judgment, as the agent of some one else known to be his principal, to pay for the consequences of doing as he was generally authorized. But, waiving this for the sake of the argument, the law gives the employer a like remedy, by allowing him to recover of the negligent employee any damages he has been obliged to pay as a consequence of his negligence. ‡

In view of this condition of the law, the question may with some pertinency be asked, Why should not the employer be left to his remedy against his employee for reimbursement?

That the dictates of humanity, as well as the promptings of self-interest, stimulate employers of labor to do a great deal towards protecting the lives and limbs of their workmen, there is no doubt. That they would not intentionally allow any neglect in the selection of workmen, of the materials used in the machinery worked, is equally certain. But, notwithstanding all this, there are doubtless many accidents and injuries occurring daily, which, with a little more precaution in the particulars mentioned, might have been prevented. Workmen generally are not in a position to say with whom they will work; or what materials or machinery shall be used; and, if greater precautions are to be taken, they must be provided for by employers. If the ordinary dictates of humanity and self-interest are not sufficient to make life more secure, ought not their interest in the welfare of their workmen to be increased by imposing a heavier pecuniary responsibility? Where an appeal to the generous impulses of the heart is not a sufficient protection, should not an appeal be made to the more subtle instincts of the pocket?

And in this connection it may perhaps be well to allude to the argument that a heavier responsibility is already imposed by requiring the employer to use due care in

* 130 M. 102.

† 4 Gray, 99.

‡ *White v. Phillipston*, 10 Met. 111; also 1 Allen, 102.

selecting and maintaining the tools, implements, stock, materials, and plant used by his workmen. Upon consideration, this, however, will seem to be an insufficient safeguard, because its value has been frittered away by the decisions of the courts, which declare that there is no liability unless the defect complained of was unknown to the person injured, while it was known to the employer, but not communicated. The employer is not liable unless he knew of the defect and declined to communicate it; or, in other words, he is not liable for his ignorance; and if for any reason he leaves the duty of detecting defects to another employee, he escapes all risk of damages. While perhaps it would not be wise to make him liable for secret defects, by making him a warrantor or insurer of the safety of the stock or appliances used in his business, would it not be well, instead of leaving him almost entirely free from liability, to make him responsible for defects to his workman, as he is now responsible to strangers? Is not this one of the exceptions to a general principle, one of the anomalies in the law which works an injustice?

Should it be said that the servant is not the master's agent, and therefore the master should not be responsible for his acts, the question is at once asked why he is not the master's agent. This brings up the real legal question at the bottom of this controversy, which involves the making of an implied contract for the parties by the courts, in the absence of an express contract. How is an agency created? Principally by virtue of the contract of service. What is the agency created? That depends principally upon the contract of service and the general authority usually conferred by the customs and usages of business upon workmen in the same class of employment. That the workman is an agent for the performance of some acts there is no doubt; but whether he is the agent for doing the particular act which caused the injury, is the question in dispute. How can this be answered? It is a question of fact simply, and not of law, and one manifestly to be answered from a knowledge of all the facts tending to explain the scope of the agency. And, as it is a question of fact, is it not one which, by analogy to the practice established in the courts for deciding

other matters of fact, ought to be decided by a jury, upon consideration of all the evidence? Even if decided by the judges, should it be determined by simply saying that the employee is not an agent for doing the act which caused the injury, because they (the judges) think it against public policy to imply a contract of liability?

That a workman knows the habits of his fellow-laborers better than does his employer, is doubtless true of persons engaged in domestic and menial service, working in the same household and under the same roof, at the same bench, in the same shop, or in the same gang, or, in brief, when engaged in similar occupations. And for this reason the Scotch courts attempted to limit the operation of common employment to the class of similar occupations; and, if they had been allowed to persist in this direction, and their example had been imitated by the courts of England and America, it is probable that by this limitation the hardship of this rule of non-liability would have been avoided. The doctrine of common employment, so called, was evidently intended by the judges who invented it to apply only to persons engaged in similar occupations. By widening its application to all persons at work for one master, or paid from one purse, it was made to include persons entirely unacquainted with each other's character, habits, ways, and manners of doing work, traits of carefulness or carelessness; in large factories, workshops, manufactories, or upon railroads extending over miles of country, with workshops in various places, workmen at many stations, engineers, conductors, firemen, brakemen, baggage masters on many trains, hundreds of employees, in manifold and dissimilar occupations; it was made to include men who never saw or perhaps never heard of each other, and therefore knew less of each other's habits than the superintendent, the board of directors, or the employers, who engaged them with some knowledge at least of their character, skill, proficiency and capacity.

That a change in the law would diminish wages is not certain, because it would seem the natural result of heavier responsibility to employ, with more care and circumspection in the selection, more competent and experienced workmen, who, being of a superior grade, would require superior pay.

As a legitimate result, in railroad and other specially dangerous employments, the public as well as the employee would be more secure.

A frequent objection to changing the burden of liability from the employee to the employer is, that employees would thereby become more careless of their own lives and safety, as well as of the welfare of others; and railway travel especially would become less safe. This objection presumes that employees would purposely and dishonestly injure themselves in order to obtain damages. But the consideration should not be overlooked, that whenever any person is found guilty of such an act of wickedness, he is prevented from recovering damages by the rule of contributory negligence. It is only in instances of dishonesty towards himself and his employer, which remain undetected or unproved at the trial of the cause, that unjust damages would be recovered. Would not such instances be of infrequent occurrence? Are not the means for eliciting the truth, and the securities against imposture provided in the administration of justice, through the agency of judges, jurors, counsel, parties and witnesses, so perfect that little danger need be feared? Seldom does a sham or fraud withstand the ordeal of a jury trial. Is it often that such a man could long remain in any employment without his true character becoming known? Most men are almost always honest. And not only are most men honest because it is right, but many refrain from doing wrong, because honesty is the best policy. Moreover, is not life too dear, and pain too much dreaded, to make it probable that any man could become not only so degraded, but so callous to suffering, as to wilfully run the risk of losing an arm or a leg or his health, for the purpose of getting a partial compensation in money? And, if such instances are likely to occur so infrequently, ought the law, which tries to prescribe a rule of action that will do the greatest good to the greatest number, to be restrained from doing an act of justice to the many, lest a few dishonest persons should abuse the right?

Against the danger that excessive damages would be awarded, the ordinary protection afforded by courts of justice exists, which, in all other causes where damages are in

question, has for centuries existed as a suitable means of estimating the amount to be awarded. If verdicts are usually for the plaintiff, and against corporations, it is likewise true that plaintiffs are usually right. At least, no better and more practicable method has been devised for determining what is right and what is wrong, than what are called courts of justice. There seems to be little force in an argument which declines to pass a law because the amount of damages recoverable under it must be determined in the same way that land damages and other personal damages are determined; especially when the rule suggested is the best known method of deciding such a question; or, if it is not, some better method may be easily incorporated in the act.

The kindred danger, that a change in the law would be followed by a flood of litigation, seems to be groundless. A similar fear, existing prior to the passage of the English act, proved to be a mere fiction of the brain. How many bills have been defeated because it was feared attorneys would profit from resulting litigation? How many times has this argument been used by persons interested in defeating a measure? In the first eighteen months after the passage of the English act, as the statistics show, less than a hundred actions were brought under it in England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales, and less than £3,000 in damages recovered, with a like amount in costs. According to an estimate already given, based upon the most reliable data to be obtained, the probable number of maintainable suits against the railroads of this State during the year 1880-81 was twelve, and the probable amount of damages which could have been recovered was \$60,000.

Should it be said that one reason why it is sought to make the employer liable is simply because he has money, it might be candidly admitted that no wise friend of the laboring man would be in favor of a change in the law unless it was likely to do him some good; but it might also be answered that, as the employer reaps the profits of every profitable act, why should he not suffer the losses of unprofitable acts? Admitting that the workman is his employer's agent, commissioned with a general authority to use his own discretion, in place of the judgment of his principal, why, when the exercise

this discretion proves unfortunate, should not the principal suffer the consequences? The prosecution of business is not like the game of pitch-penny played by the gambler, according to the rule of "Heads I win, and tails you lose." The same objection might be made with equal force against the liability of employers to third persons, or against any bill which seeks to make persons of property responsible for their wrongs or breaches of contract.

Several objections having been alluded to, it remains to summarize some of the reasons not specifically suggested in favor of a change in the law. Without asserting that an employee has a natural right to compensation for injuries directly or indirectly caused by his master, — which is a right oftener asserted by philosophers and publicists than by lawyers and legislators, — there is no doubt that ever since the reign of Charles the Second an established principle of common law has held every man responsible for his own torts and breaches of contract, a precedent which our ancestors might have found in the Roman Law. As early as the reign of William the Third, Lord Holt held a master liable for the negligence of his servant. The application of this general principle was without exception till the year 1837, when, as has been already related, Lord Abinger, in a case not very carefully considered, judging from the analogies reasoned from in the opinion, decided that a master was not liable for the negligence of his servant, whenever injury was thereby caused to a fellow-servant.* Shortly afterwards, at the time when railroads and manufacturing enterprises were in an early stage of development, this exception was followed and emphasized in this State by Judge Shaw in the case of *Farwell v. the Boston and Worcester Railroad*; † ever since which time the exception may be said to have been a part of the body of our law.

The liability imposed upon a master for the negligence of his servant may be said to exist under two sets of circumstances, in one of which there exists a relation between the master and the person injured, while in the other no relation exists. In one class of circumstances it exists by virtue of an express or implied contract; while the ground of

* *Priestly v. Fowler*, 3 M. & W. 1.

† 4 Met. 49.

liability in the other is the general obligation resting upon every member of the community so to act that no harm shall, by his negligence or that of his servant, be caused to any other person. This latter obligation is known as the principle of *respondeat superior*, which compels the master to respond for such negligence in damages; and is stated by Blackstone in these words: "If a 'master' by his negligence does any damage to a stranger, the 'master' shall answer for his neglect." Those who seek to base upon this principle their right to a change in the law of liability for the negligence of fellow-employees, say that the term "stranger," because, in the development of railroads and commercial and industrial enterprises, of the wide extent and remoteness of the relationship existing between an employer and his workman, should apply to all workmen not at work strictly under the eye and supervision of the master.

On the other hand, those persons who seek to base their right to a change of the law upon the relationship existing by virtue of the contract of service, say that where nothing to the contrary is expressed, the courts should imply a contract of liability, instead of implying, as they have done, a contract of non-liability. They assert, furthermore, a fact which is not denied, that the implied contract of non-liability is judge-made law, established by virtue of the right of the courts to decide what is public policy, and what the public policy of the country requires; that public policy no longer requires, if it ever did, the existence of such a rule of law; and that the legislature should, as it has a right to do, assert its prerogative, and declare a different public policy, by abolishing the exception made to the general liability of the master for the negligence of his servant.

In emphasizing the injustice of this exception, an argument is drawn, by analogy, from the liability imposed upon a common carrier for the loss, by fire or other means except the act of God or public enemies, of merchandise, livestock, and chattels entrusted for conveyance and safe delivery. And, as a change in the law will in this country affect railroad companies and common carriers of passengers more than other employers of labor, the analogy,

drawn from the contract of warranty and insurance that no injury shall occur to whatever is entrusted for safe delivery, is thought to be perfect. If this be so,—and it seems to be,—why should the law be more careful in the protection afforded to merchandise, than in the security placed around human life? Why should the State compel a railroad company to pay for the loss or injury of a horse, an ox, or a bale of goods, and allow men to be killed and maimed without the risk of paying damages?

And, as one of the incidental results of compelling common carriers of passengers to be as careful of their employees as they are of trunks and merchandise would be the employment of more competent and careful men, the security of travellers would be increased; and this is one of the weightiest reasons for changing the law. Scarcely a day occurs without an accident on some of the railroads of the State or country. As has been stated, during the nine years from 1872 to 1881 inclusive, there were 11,759 persons reported killed or injured on the various railroads of the country; and 2,744 reported killed or injured by the railroads of this Commonwealth. Almost every one of these deaths or injuries might, by the exercise of proper care, have been prevented. No one will deny that every step taken in the direction of making life more secure, and suffering less frequent, is a step in the right direction. Is it not possible that such a change in the law may be such a step?

Should it be asked if the workman cannot better provide against the carelessness of his fellow-workman than can the employer, it might be replied, that, although their co-operation is always necessary to secure safety, the value of any suggestions or complaints is diminished by the fact that the workman has no power to carry his ideas into execution. Employers of labor would naturally consider frequent complaints against their employees, frequent suggestions as to the necessity of repairs in the works or machinery, as officious interferences. And those who receive with good grace what are always in the nature of accusations, might not wish to encourage their occurrence, and might not accede readily to requests for improvements. It is a natural

characteristic to prefer to manage one's own business in one's own way, without too much interference from men hired and paid for their labor. But some one must be held responsible for every act of negligence, if its repetition would be prevented; and, when attempting to make accidents less frequent, is it not wiser to increase the employer's responsibility than to trust to his workmen to correct the evils of his manner of carrying on business?

It should not be forgotten that, in many cases where the employer escapes legal liability by means of the defence of common employment, the servant who, entrusted in his master's absence with the exercise of a general discretion, caused the injury, is more competent for performing the duties than his employer. In operations requiring skilled laborers, mechanics, and artificers, how seldom is it that the employer can do the work imposed upon those under him! How many men who can pay for the labor can perform it? When, therefore, it is thought unjust to impose responsibility for negligence upon the man who hires the workman, it should be remembered that oftentimes the person commissioned to act for him is better able than he to perform the duties imposed.

The injustice which sometimes is wrought in applying the defence of common employment is seen by remembering the variety of dissimilar occupations which it includes. The essence of common employment is a common employer, and all persons paid by the same person, or paid from the same purse, are fellow-employees. All the employees of a railroad company, of a colliery, of a steamboat company, of a factory, of a foundry, of a horse railroad or express company, whether employed in the same city, county or state, under the same or different foremen or superintendents, engaged at the main office or a branch office, known to each other or unknown, are fellow-employees, and are by law presumed to be sufficiently well acquainted with each other's habits and character to be compelled to run the risk of injury from each other's carelessness. Menial and domestic servants employed under the same roof, and therefore well acquainted with each other, should without doubt be considered fellow-employees. But the earliest use of this

doctrine was in its application to similar occupations only.

Because every man is liable for his own wrongful acts, employers who personally superintend or direct their own workmen are liable for personal injuries caused by what is really their own negligence. But when, in the increase of business, it becomes necessary to employ others to work for them, away from under their eyes, but obedient to their general authority, this liability for injuries to their employees ceases, although they still remain liable for similar negligence to others. It is thus seen that while the small manufacturer, in order to avoid suits for damages, must take precautions against the carelessness of his workmen, the large manufacturer is relieved from such a necessity.

And this anomaly becomes more marked in the organization of individuals into corporations. For, while a few persons acting together as co-partners are justly liable for their own and each other's negligence, upon complying with a simple perfunctory requirement of the law, and thereby becoming a corporation, they escape this liability, because they are no longer acting for themselves and each other, but as agents for the corporation, which is exempted from liability for the negligence of its agents in causing injury to each other.

It should not be forgotten that the laws of Great Britain, France, and Italy impose a general liability upon employers, whenever the negligence of their servants causes personal injury; while the law of Germany, as well as of several of the United States, has been so changed as to impose special liability upon railroad corporations for such acts of negligence.

DIFFICULTIES OF DRAWING A BILL.

It is oftentimes easier to point out the necessity for reform than to show how to accomplish it; and easier to prove that the law should be changed, than to show how it should be done. And, while many persons will agree in thinking that something ought to be done to change the law, they will doubtless differ as to whether the change shall be radical, liberal, or conservative; while there will be, perhaps, a dif-

ference in opinion among some of each of these classes as to the form and the particular phraseology of a bill looking to a change.

The first subject to be considered is how far the law should be changed; and upon this it must be conceded that it would be useless to make any change, unless the employer was made liable for the acts of his authorized agents in all cases where he has delegated his authority. Whether this should be done by saying that common employment shall no longer be a defence to actions against employers for personal damages, or that the particular instances in which he should be liable should be specified, is an important question. This problem has been solved in some of the States, as has been seen, by enacting that in actions of this kind against railway companies common employment shall not be a defence. The difficulty of accurately defining the term, of saying exactly what common employment is, and the danger lest some uncertainty should exist as to the exact scope of such a bill, as well as the consideration that it might not be wise to make so sweeping a change, are objections to this form of a bill. For example: The term, no doubt, includes menial and domestic servants; and would it be wise to make the head of a family responsible for the negligence of the servants who live under his roof? responsible, to use an illustration of Lord Abinger's, to one servant for the negligence of the chambermaid in putting him into a damp bed, or the cook's neglect to keep clean the copper vessels in the kitchen? Should it be attempted to draw the bill in this way, as was done by Mr. Macdonald, it might be advisable to except the master from liability for the acts of domestic servants. Should it be desired to draw the bill by specifying particularly when he shall be liable, leaving him free from liability when not otherwise specified, there is room for difference of opinion as to how far it shall be extended, — whether, for instance, an action shall be created for the negligence of the principal person in authority, the superintendent, which action has been shown to be of little value; or for the negligence of every superior workman, of whatever grade (which seems to be the only way to accomplish an important change), are questions for consideration.

One of the earliest of the bills presented to Parliament was brought in by Mr. Morrison, Mr. Hind-Palmer and Mr. Andrew Johnson in the year 1872; and Mr. Wright, a London barrister, assisted in drawing up and settling its terms. These gentlemen adopted this latter course, and specified in considerable detail the instances wherein a liability should be allowed to attach. But, while the discussion of the subject went on in Parliament among the friends of the employees, and the able secretaries, Parliamentary agents, and solicitors of their large associations, and when several special committees of Parliament had had the subject under consideration, and at last it had been thoroughly considered and comprehended by several of the leading members of the present Gladstone Ministry, — it was found possible to draft the bill in the few words of the second, third, and fourth sub-sections of the first section of the Act of 1880. These make the employer liable for the negligence of any person entrusted with superintendence, and of any superior workman whose orders or directions the person injured was bound to obey, or the act or omission of any workman who was acting in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer.

THE GLADSTONE BILL.

The caption and first section of the bill brought in and advocated by the English Liberals (before it was amended in the House of Lords by the Conservatives) is as follows:—

“AN ACT to extend and regulate the liability of employers to make compensation for personal injuries suffered by workmen in their service.

“*Be it enacted, etc.:*

“SECTION 1. Where, after the commencement of this act, personal injury is caused to a workman:—

“(1.) By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the business of the employer; or

“(2.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has any superintendence entrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence; or

“(3.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, to whose orders or directions the workman at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed; or

“(4.) By reason of the act or omission of any person in the service of the employer, done or made in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the employer in that behalf; or

“(5.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, points,* locomotive engine or train upon a railway,—

“The workman, or, in case the injury results in death, the legal personal representatives of the workman, and any persons entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the workman had not been a workman of nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in his work.”

BILLS PRESENTED.

We present for the action of the legislature, as the result of the very full consideration of the subject committed to us, two bills; the first, comprehending the features of the Gladstone Bill presented to Parliament by the Earl De la Warr, with sections added to make the measure practical in this State. This bill changes the doctrine of the courts on common employment to a limited extent, and is incorporated in this report for the reason that many legislators may desire to act upon a limited bill.

The second, and the bill we recommend as being most in harmony with existing legislation and the course of law in this State, is a bill which simply seeks to abolish common employment as a defence in actions contemplated by it.

I.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

In the Year One Thousand Eight Hundred and Eighty-Three.

AN ACT relating to the Liability of Employers for Personal Injuries sustained by their Employees.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives, in General Court assembled, and by the authority of the same as follows:—

SECTION 1. Where, after the commencement of this Act, personal injury is caused to an employee,—

(1.) By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with, or used in, the business of the employer; or

(2.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the

* As the railroad trains of this State are not run and controlled in precisely the same way as English railways, this, in order to be applicable to our system, would need to be slightly changed; “points” should read “switch.”

employer, who has any superintendence entrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence; or

(3.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, to whose orders or directions the employee at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed; or

(4.) By reason of the act or omission of any person in the service of the employer done or made in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the employer in that behalf; or

(5.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, switch, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway,—the employee, or, in case the injury results in death, the legal personal representative of the employee, and any persons entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the employee had not been an employee of, nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in his work.

SECT. 2. Written notice of any injury shall be given to the employer or his legal representatives by or on behalf of the person injured; or, in case of his death, by or on behalf of his legal representatives, within sixty days of the injury or death, stating the time, place, and cause thereof; and the action thereon shall be commenced, if at all, within six months from the date of the accident; or, in case of death, within six months from the date thereof.

SECT. 3. This act shall take effect on the first day of January, eighteen hundred and eighty-four.

II.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

In the Year One Thousand Eight Hundred and Eighty-three.

AN ACT

Relating to the Liability of Employers for Personal Injuries sustained by their Employees.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

1 SECTION 1. Whenever an action is brought
2 against an employer to recover damages for per-

3 sonal injuries received by an employee while in
4 the discharge of his duty, the fact that the injury
5 was caused by or through the negligence of a
6 fellow-employee shall not prevent the recovery of
7 damages, unless the employee materially contrib-
8 uted by his own negligence to the cause of the
9 injury, or both the person causing and the person
10 receiving the injury were engaged at the time of
11 the injury in domestic or menial service.

1 **SECT. 2.** Written notice of any injury shall be
2 given to the employer or his legal representatives
3 by or on behalf of the person injured; or, in case
4 of his death, by or on behalf of his legal repre-
5 sentatives, within sixty days of the injury or death,
6 stating the time, place, and cause thereof; and
7 the action thereon shall be commenced, if at all,
8 within six months from the date of the accident;
9 or, in case of death, within six months from the
10 date thereof.

1 **SECT. 3.** This act shall take effect on the first
2 day of January, eighteen hundred and eighty-
3 four.

APPENDIX A.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT, 1880.

(43 & 44 VIC. c. 42) 7th SEPT., 1880.

AN ACT to extend and regulate the liability of employers to make compensation for personal injuries suffered by workmen in their service.

Be it enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

SECT. I. Where, after the commencement of this Act, personal injury is caused to a workman,—

Amend-
ments of
law.

(1.) By reason of any defect in the condition of ways, works, machinery or plant, connected with or used in the business of the employer; or

(2.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has any superintendence entrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence; or

(3.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, to whose orders or directions the workman, at the time of the injury, was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed; or

(4.) By reason of the act or omission of any person in the service of the employer, done or made in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the employer in that behalf; or

(5.) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway,—

The workman, or, in case the injury results in death, the legal personal representatives of the workman, and any persons entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the workman had not been a workman of nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in his work.

SECT. II. A workman shall not be entitled, under this Act, to any right of compensation or remedy against the employer in any of the following cases (that is to say):—

Exceptions
to amend-
ments of
law.

(1.) Under sub-section 1 of section I, unless the defect, therein mentioned, arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied, owing to the negligence of the employer, or of some person in the service of the employer, and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works, machinery or plant were in proper condition.

(2.) Under sub-section 4 of section I, unless the injury resulted from some impropriety or defect in the rules, by-laws, or instructions therein mentioned; provided that where a rule or by-law has been approved or has been accepted as a proper rule or by-law by one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, or by the Board of Trade, or any other department of the Government, under or by virtue of any Act of Parliament, it shall not be deemed, for the purpose of this Act, to be an improper or defective rule or by-law.

(3.) In any case where the workman knew of the defect or negligence which caused his injury, and failed, within a reasonable time, to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or some person superior to himself, unless he was aware that the employer or such superior already knew of the said defect or negligence.

SECT. III. The amount of compensation recoverable under this Act shall not exceed such sum as may be found to be equivalent to the estimated earnings, during the three years preceding the injury, of a person in the same grade employed during those years in the like employment, and in the district in which the workman is employed at the time of the injury.

SECT. IV. An action for the recovery, under this Act of compensation for an injury, shall not be maintainable unless notice that injury has been sustained is given within six weeks, and the action is commenced within six months from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury, or, in case of death, within twelve months from the time of death; provided always, that in case of death the want of such notice shall be no bar to the maintenance of such action, if the judge shall be of opinion that there was reasonable excuse for such want of notice.

SECT. V. There shall be deducted from any compensation awarded to any workman, or representatives of a workman, or persons claiming by, under or through a workman in respect of any cause of action arising under this Act, any penalty or part of a penalty which may have been paid in pursuance of any other Act of Parliament to such workman, representatives, or persons in respect of the same cause of action; and where an action has been brought under this Act by any workman, or the representatives of any workman, or any persons claiming by, under or through such workman, for compensation in respect of any cause of action arising under this Act, and payment has not previously been made of any penalty or part of

Limit of sum recoverable as compensation.

Limit of time for recovery of compensation.

Money payable under penalty to be deducted from compensation under act.

a penalty, under any other Act of Parliament in respect of the same cause of action, such workman, representatives or person shall not be entitled thereafter to receive any penalty or part of a penalty under any other Act of Parliament, in respect of the same cause of action.

SECT. VI. (1.) Every action for recovery of compensation under this Act shall be brought in a county court, but may, upon the application of either plaintiff or defendant, be removed into a superior court in like manner and upon the same conditions as an action commenced in a county court may be by law removed. Trial of actions.

(2.) Upon the trial of any such action in a county court before the judge without a jury, one or more assessors may be appointed for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of compensation.

(3.) For the purpose of regulating the conditions and mode of appointment and remuneration of such assessors and all matters of procedure relating to their duties, and also for the purpose of consolidating any actions under this Act in a county court, and otherwise preventing multiplicity of such actions, rules and regulations may be made, varied and repealed from time to time, in the same manner as rules and regulations for regulating the practice and procedure in other actions in county courts.

“County Court” shall, with respect to Scotland, mean the “Sheriff’s Court,” and shall, with respect to Ireland, mean the “Civil Bill Court.”

In Scotland any action under this Act may be removed to the court of session at the instance of either party, in the manner provided by and subject to the conditions prescribed by section 9 of the Sheriff Courts (Scotland) Act, 1877. 40 and 41
Vic. c. 50.

In Scotland the sheriff may conjoin actions arising out of the same occurrence or cause of action, though at the instance of different parties and in respect of different injuries.

SECT. VII. Notice in respect of an injury under this Act shall give the name and address of the person injured, and shall state in ordinary language the cause of the injury and the date at which it was sustained, and shall be served on the employer, or, if there is more than one employer, upon one of such employers. Mode of
serving no-
tice of in-
jury.

The notice may be served by delivering the same to or at the residence or place of business of the person on whom it is to be served.

The notice may also be served by post by a registered letter addressed to the person on whom it is to be served, at his last known place of residence or place of business; and, if served by post, shall be deemed to have been served at the time when a letter containing the same would be delivered in the ordinary course of post; and, in proving the service of such notice,

it shall be sufficient to prove that the notice was properly addressed and registered.

When the employer is a body of persons corporate or unincorporate, the notice shall be served by delivering the same at or by sending it by post in a registered letter addressed to the office, or, if there be more than one office, any one of the offices of such body.

A notice under this section shall not be deemed invalid by reason of any defect or inaccuracy therein, unless the judge who tries the action arising from the injury mentioned in the notice, shall be of opinion that the defendant in the action is prejudiced in his defence by such defect or inaccuracy, and that the defect or inaccuracy was for the purpose of misleading.

Definitions. SECT. VIII. For the purpose of this Act, unless the context otherwise requires, —

The expression, "person who has superintendence entrusted to him," means a person whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence, and who is not ordinarily engaged in manual labor;

The expression, "employer," includes a body of persons corporate or unincorporate;

38 and 39
Vic. c. 90.

The expression, "workman," means a railway servant and any person to whom the Employers and workmen Act, 1875, applies.

(38 and 39 Vic., chap. 90, sect. 10. In this Act, the expression "workman" does not include a domestic or menial servant, but, save as aforesaid, means any person who, being a laborer, servant in husbandry, journeyman, artificer, handicraftsman, miner, or otherwise engaged in manual labor, whether under the age of twenty-one years or above that age, has entered into or works under a contract with an employer; whether the contract be made before or after the passing of this Act, be express or implied, oral or in writing, and be a contract of service, or a contract personally to execute any work or labor.)

Commence-
ment of act.

SECT. IX. This Act shall not come into operation until the first day of January, 1881, which date is in this Act referred to as the commencement of this Act.

Short title.

SECT. X. This Act may be cited as the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, and shall continue in force till the thirty-first day of December, 1887, and to the end of the then next session of Parliament and no longer, unless Parliament shall otherwise determine; and all actions commenced under this Act before that period shall be continued as if the said Act had not expired.

APPENDIX B.

EXTRACTS FROM CIRCULAR ISSUED BY BALTIMORE & OHIO RAILROAD COMPANY, PROMULGATING THE ORGANIZATION OF AN EMPLOYEES' RELIEF ASSOCIATION.

BALTIMORE & OHIO RAILROAD COMPANY,
BALTIMORE, May 1, 1880.

To the Employees of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company and of its Divisions and Branches:

The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company having been petitioned by its employees to aid and countenance them in the organization of a benevolent relief society, and being desirous of securing to them the advantages which experience has uniformly shown may be enjoyed by the employees of railroad and other large corporations, where associations of that character are in operation, has devised for them a plan embodying, as it believes, the best features of such associations.

Reasons for organizing annuity society.

Also, having learned of the pecuniary necessities of persons formerly in its service, and being anxious and solicitous that its present and future employees, although escaping accidents and sickness whilst in the discharge of duty, shall not find themselves without the means of support, whenever, through approaching old age or the contraction of infirmities, they become unable to perform the services assigned them or earning a livelihood in other pursuits, it has added to the indemnity features of the plan a superannuation or annuity provision, which it commends to their consideration and adoption.

Reasons for introducing annuity feature.

To give force and effect to this plan and as an earnest of its solicitude for their comfort and welfare, the company has contributed \$100,000 as the nucleus of a fund from which its employees can derive pecuniary relief in the event of becoming incapacitated for earning their livelihood, or by means of which, in the event of death, they may leave some provision for their families, upon condition that they will second its endeavor to promote their welfare by making such contributions to the fund as will secure its permanency and effectiveness.

Contributions of B. & O. R. R. Co. to fund.

The company will also, without expense to the fund, give the services of its staff in conducting the clerical and other business necessary to its proper management; office-room for

B. & O. R. R. Co. to pay expenses of management.

its records, etc.; and, whenever it is necessary or desirable to employ females or children for such work as they are qualified to perform, preference will be given to the widows, wives, sisters and children of its faithful contributing employees, over other applicants, in the order above named.

Free transportation of contributor's children.

Half rate transportation for contributors and families.

Medical attendance.

It will also make arrangements by which the children of those contributing to the fund, under sixteen years of age, shall travel free when going to or returning from school, over all its lines, for distances under ten miles, and will give half-fare transportation to contributors, their wives and children, travelling over its lines.

Skilful medical attendance will be provided free of expense to all contributors who may be injured while performing any duty assigned them by competent authority.

AN INDEMNITY FOR ACCIDENT AND DEATH CONSEQUENT THEREUPON, SICKNESS AND DEATH FROM NATURAL CAUSES.

Division of contributors into classes.

In order to insure a proper and just discrimination in the imposition of rates between the employees whose occupations render them peculiarly liable to accidents and others not so liable, they will be divided into two classes, viz.:—

1st Class. Those engaged in operating trains and rolling stock;

2d Class. Those not so engaged.

The first class will contribute monthly, in advance, according to the following scale, viz.:—

Those receiving \$35 and under per month will contribute \$1.00 a month, entitling each to one benefit.

Those receiving over \$35 and not more than \$50 per month, will contribute \$2.00 a month, entitling each to two benefits.

Those receiving over \$50 and not more than \$75 per month, will contribute \$3.00 a month, entitling each to three benefits.

Those receiving over \$75 and not more than \$100 per month, will contribute \$4.00 a month, entitling each to four benefits.

Those receiving over \$100 per month will contribute \$5.00 a month, entitling each to five benefits.

Specifying who shall contribute to 1st class.

The second class according to the following scale, viz.:—

Those receiving \$35 and under per month will contribute 75 cents a month, entitling each to one benefit.

Those receiving over \$35 and not more than \$50 per month, will contribute \$1.50 a month, entitling each to two benefits.

Those receiving over \$50 and not more than \$75 per month, will contribute \$2.25 a month, entitling each to three benefits.

Those receiving over \$75 and not more than \$100 per month, will contribute \$3.00 a month, entitling each to four benefits.

Those receiving over \$100 per month will contribute \$3.75 a month, entitling each to five benefits.

Specifying who shall contribute to 2d class.

As the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company agrees to bear all the expenses incident to the management of the fund, the contributors to it will receive, *without deduction for expenses*, all the benefits secured by their own payments and the company's contribution, and any surplus remaining at the end of each year will be devoted to the reduction of the rates of their contributions.

Fund not to be taxed for expenses, and contributors to receive benefit of surplus.

Participation in the benefits of this Association is to be voluntary as regards officials receiving an annual compensation of over \$2,000, and those whose duties are in nowise hazardous and such as to render them liable to railroad casualties. All other employees on the main stem, branches and divisions are expected to subscribe to so much of its relief features as relate to indemnity, for injuries or death, occurring while in the discharge of duty and in the company's service.

Designates who may participate in benefits of fund.

The fund thus constituted is to be controlled by a committee of management, partly elected by the contributors, and partly appointed by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, in manner hereinafter explained; and devoted exclusively to relieving the necessities of those contributing to it, in the following contingencies, viz. :—

Funds — how controlled.

For what purposes used.

1. In case of the temporary disablement of any contributing employee whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, the payment to him or to his order, of a daily allowance, payable monthly, for a period not exceeding six months from the date of accident.

Temporary disablement payments.

2. In case of permanent disablement, happening to a contributing employee, from accident whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's employ, incapacitating him from earning a livelihood, the monthly payment of a specified allowance for his support *during the continuance of such disablement*.

Permanent disablement payments.

3. In case of the death of a contributing employee by accident arising whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, the payment of a specified sum to the person designated by him to receive the same, or to his legal representative.

Indemnity for death by accident.

4. In case of injury or sickness from any cause *other* than accident whilst in the discharge of duty in the company's service, causing total inability to labor, the monthly payment of a specified allowance for his support, for a period not exceeding one year from commencement of disability.

Sick payment.

5. In the event of the death of a contributing employee, occurring from any *other* cause than accident arising whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, the payment of a specified sum to the person designated by him to receive the same, or to his legal representative.

Indemnity for death from natural causes.

The allowances thus indicated shall be based upon the contributions made by the beneficiary, according to the following scale :—

Allowances — how calculated.

SCALE.

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
	In case of temporary disablement by accident, whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, the same being professionally certified in such manner as may be required by the committee of management, the monthly payment, for a period not exceeding six months, of	In case of permanent disablement and incapacity to resume employment arising from accident whilst in the discharge of duty in the company's service, the same being professionally certified in such manner as may be required by the committee of management, the monthly payment (after the sixth month) during continuance of such disablement, of	In case of death arising from accident whilst in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, subject to rules governing this class of cases, the payment to the person designated by the deceased, or to his legal representative, within sixty days after death, of	In case of injury or sickness from any cause <i>other</i> than accident whilst in the discharge of duty in the company's service, causing total inability to labor, subject to the rules governing this class of cases, the payment (not longer than one year) of a daily allowance of	In case of death arising from any cause <i>other</i> than accident whilst in the discharge of duty in the company's service, subject to rules governing this class of cases, the payment to the person designated by the deceased, or to his legal representative, within sixty days after death, of
	PER DAY.	PER DAY.			
Those receiving per month \$35 and under,	\$0 50	\$0 25	\$500	\$0 50	\$100
Those receiving per month over \$35 and not more than \$50,	1 00	0 50	1,000	1 00	200
Those receiving per month over \$50 and not more than \$75,	1 50	0 75	1,500	1 50	300
Those receiving per month over \$75 and not more than \$100,	2 00	1 00	2,000	2 00	400
Those receiving per month over \$100,	2 50	1 25	2,500	2 50	500

Contributors may take higher benefits.
Contributions — how levied.

Any contributor will be entitled to the higher rates of relief by paying the contributions provided for those rates.

Contributions will, in all cases, be deducted monthly from the members' wages, so that payments will be required of them only when they have earned wages; and the allowance will, in all cases, be proportioned to the monthly contributions paid by each person in the several classes into which the contributors have been divided.

Disablement allowances to be paid monthly.

In cases of disablement the allowance will be paid not less than once every month; before each payment, whether for temporary or permanent disability, satisfactory evidence of its existence must be furnished.

* * * * *

To constitute a lawful claim for accident indemnity there must be:—

1st. Exterior or patent evidence of injury, and satisfactory testimony that it resulted from accident whilst in the discharge of duties assigned the contributor by the company, and incapacitates him from earning a livelihood. What constitutes a legal claim for accident indemnity.

2d. In case of death, that the injuries sustained by such accident were the sole and direct cause of death; or

3d. Not resulting from accidents whilst performing the company's service, that it was not caused by injuries received whilst engaged in unlawful enterprises or riots. The managers are to be the exclusive judges as to whether the injuries have been so caused and received, and their decision shall be final and conclusive. What constitutes claim for death indemnity.

All legitimate claims for death allowance will be paid in full, irrespective of any previous payments which may have been made under the head of temporary disability allowance; but the managers are to have power to require such information and particulars as they deem necessary to establish the validity of the claim of any person applying for allowance. Death claims to be paid in full, irrespective of previous payments.

In urgent cases the managers have power to pay part of the death allowance within a shorter period than sixty days, but the whole will always be paid within that time. Death allowance to be paid within sixty days.

* * * * *
The several subscriptions to the fund will be deducted monthly, or whenever salaries are paid by the company's paymasters, in advance, and will be held subject to investment or disbursement as the managers may decide. Collection of subscriptions.

* * * * *
The managers are to be chosen partly by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, on account of its interest in the fund, and partly by the contributors to it. The company are to choose four, and the contributors five—the majority of those selected. Managers—how chosen.

* * * * *
The condition of the fund is to be annually investigated and reported on by a proper and competent person, to be selected by the managers for that purpose. Annual investigation into condition of fund.

* * * * *
The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company guarantees fulfilment of the benefits herein indicated. B. & O. R. Co. guarantees benefits herein enumerated.

RELIEF AND ANNUITY FEATURES.

CONSTITUTION.

- Title of Association.** **ARTICLE I.** This society shall be known as "The Baltimore & Ohio Employees' Relief Association."
- Objects.** **ARTICLE II.** Its object shall be to provide for its members while they are disabled by accidents, sickness or by old age, and, at their deaths, for their families.
- Surgical attendance.** **ARTICLE III.** Such provision shall include:—
 1st. Surgical attendance for its members, when injured by accidents while in the discharge of duty and in the service of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, or of any other railroad company whose employees shall be admitted to the privilege of membership by a vote of the managers of this society, who shall contract with physicians and surgeons residing at all practicable points along the lines of the roads aforesaid for such attendance.
- Allowance for temporary disablement.** 2d. There shall be paid to every contributor of the smallest (or 1st) class thus injured by accident, while totally unable to labor, fifty cents for each working day thus lost, and to contributors of higher classes larger sums, proportionate to their contributions; but, after six months' disability, these payments shall be reduced one-half. They shall not be made until certificates satisfactory to the managers have been received from the supervisor or head of department or division, that the accident occurred while the person injured was in the discharge of duty and in the company's service, and from one of the society's surgeons that this accident had caused total disability for labor for the time specified in the certificate.
- Allowance for permanent disablement.** 3d. In the event of the death of a contributor, occurring solely by reason of, and at the time or within six months after an accident, while in the discharge of duty in the service of either of the companies aforesaid: in the case of a contributor of the smallest class there shall be paid to the person designated by him in the application for membership to receive the same, or to his legal representative, if there be no such person, the sum of \$500, and in the cases of contributors of higher classes larger sums, proportionate to their monthly contributions; but all the payments shall be conditioned upon the
- Indemnity for death from accident.**

certification of the requirements above specified, by one of the designated surgeons of the society and by the member's supervisor, head of department, or other official of higher authority.

As it is not contemplated in this scheme to give double benefits in cases of disability or death resulting from accidents, the benefits herein promised shall not be payable nor paid when the contributor, or any person entitled to damages because of the accident to him, whether resulting in death or not, has or makes a claim against said company, or any of the companies operating its branches or divisions (including the Chicago division), until there be first filed with the committee a release, satisfactory to them, releasing said companies from such damages, signed by all persons entitled to the same.

Relinquishment of claims for damages.

4th. There shall be paid to every contributor of the smallest (or 1st) class, in the case of injury or sickness arising from any *other* cause than accident occurring in the discharge of duty in the company's service, while totally unable to labor, fifty cents for each working day thus lost, and to contributors of higher classes larger sums, proportionate to their contributions. But these payments shall only continue one year after the employee ceases to contribute to the relief fund, and shall not be made in cases of disablement of less than six working days' duration, and then only when certificates satisfactory to the managers have been received from a duly registered medical practitioner, corroborated by the contributor's superintendent or head of department, that sickness or injury had caused total disability for labor for the time specified in the certificate.

Indemnity for sickness from ordinary causes.

5th. In the event of the death of a contributor, occurring while in the service of either of the aforesaid companies, neither by his own act, nor by the hands of justice, nor in violation of the laws of the State wherein he was injured or died, nor by such accidents as will secure relief from this society as already provided for in this constitution, there shall be paid: in the case of each contributor in the smallest class, to the person designated in his application for membership to receive the same, or, if there be no such person, then to his legal representative, the sum of \$100, and in the cases of contributors in higher classes larger sums, proportionate to their monthly contributions; conditioned, however, upon the presentation of proof satisfactory to the managers that death occurred within the requirements herein set forth.

Indemnity in case of death from natural causes.

ARTICLE IV. Participation in the benefits of this Association shall be voluntary as regards officials receiving an annual compensation of over \$2,000, and those whose duties are in nowise hazardous and such as to render them liable to railroad casualties. [All other employees on the main stem, branches and divisions are expected to subscribe to so much of its relief features as relate to indemnity for injuries or death occurring while in the discharge of duty and in the company's service.

Subscriptions.

When employees may waive ordinary death payments.

Employees who are unmarried or who have no immediate families dependent upon them for support, may waive the benefits accruing in case of death from any cause other than from injuries received in the discharge of duty; in which case a reduction of twenty-five cents per month on smallest, and proportionately larger reductions on other contributions, will be allowed.]

Contributors disabled from natural causes shall hold their right to death indemnity for one month.

ARTICLE V. When a contributor shall be disabled by sickness or accident from earning any wages, and it shall be so certified by a surgeon employed by the society, he shall, notwithstanding, be entitled to the benefits of this society for one month after the time for which his contributions have been paid, and also for a period extending from the day he resumes labor to the first subsequent payment of wages.

Nature and amount of members' contribution.

ARTICLE VI. For the several benefits herein set forth—medical attendance, temporary and permanent disablement indemnity, allowance for death by accident and death from other causes—each member receiving a monthly compensation of \$35 and under shall pay, in advance, a monthly contribution of \$1, if engaged in operating trains or rolling stock, or 75 cents per month if not so engaged; which shall entitle him to the benefits above assigned to the contributors in the smallest class.

First, or smallest class.

Those receiving over \$35 and not more than \$50 per month, shall pay double the contributions paid by the smallest class of contributors, and receive double their benefits.

Payments by 2d class of contributors.

Those receiving over \$50 and not more than \$75 per month, shall pay three times as much as the smallest class of contributors, and receive three times their benefits.

Payments by 3d class of contributors.

Those receiving over \$75 and not more than \$100 per month, shall pay four times as much as the smallest contributors, and receive four times their benefits.

Payments by 4th class of contributors.

Those receiving over \$100 per month shall pay five times as much as the smallest contributors, and receive five times their benefits.

Payments by 5th class of contributors.

Provision reducing rates of contribution.

ARTICLE VII. These rates of payment shall continue only the first year of membership, and at the end of September of every year the managers shall make up a statement of the receipts from the members and of the payments to them, and of the future liabilities of the Association to them, as ascertained by some competent person to be employed by the managers for that purpose; and the whole of the surplus thus ascertained shall be used to reduce the next year's contribution, or to increase the allowance for natural deaths, or shall be otherwise devoted to promoting the interests of the Association, in such manner and at such times as shall be deemed best by the committee of management.

Uses to which company's con-

ARTICLE VIII. As the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company for the purpose of guaranteeing the above payments and of

lesseuing the contributions of the members of this society, have consented to bear all the expenses necessary to the proper management of its affairs, and have contributed \$100-000 towards its funds, the whole of the interest received from its contribution shall also be used every year to lessen the contributions of the company's employees.

tribution shall be applied.

ARTICLE IX. The managers shall, from time to time, provide for the visitation of the persons on the allowance list besides that of the attending surgeon or physician, and no member refusing to submit to an examination by such visitor shall be entitled to receive any benefits from the fund during the continuance of such refusal.

Extra visitation of disabled members.

ARTICLE X. All liabilities on account of death shall be payable within sixty days after receipt of notice of death.

Payment of death liabilities.

ARTICLE XI. The monthly payments shall, in all cases, be deducted from the wages of the members; when there are no wages, no payments can be made.

Contributions — how and when collected.

ANNUITY FUND.

ARTICLE XII. Any one may make regular contributions to this fund, of any amount he sees proper to set aside as the basis of an annuity.

Annuity contributions.

ARTICLE XIII. If he continues his contributions until he has arrived at the age of sixty-five, he shall receive an *annual* allowance, as long as he lives, of ten cents for each and every dollar he has paid into the annuity fund; and an addition of one-half cent on the dollar for every year his contributions have continued. To illustrate: —

Nature and extent of annuity allowance.

If he begins at thirty-five and continues his contributions until he reaches the age of sixty-five, at the rate of five dollars a month, he will have paid into the annuity fund, in the thirty years, eighteen hundred dollars; which will entitle him to an *annual* allowance for the remainder of life, of ten cents on the dollar, or one hundred and eighty dollars, and an addition of one-half cent on each dollar for the thirty years his contributions have continued, or fifteen cents on each of the eighteen hundred dollars he has paid; making an addition of two hundred and seventy dollars, and the whole allowance, four hundred and fifty dollars, each year he lives after attaining the age of sixty-five.

Illustration.

ARTICLE XIV. If at any time he stops his contributions to, but does not withdraw them from the annuity fund, he shall receive, after arriving at the age of sixty-five, an *annual* allowance, for the remainder of life, of ten cents on the dollar for all he has paid into it, and an addition of one-half cent on the dollar for each of the years — counting from the middle of the period during which he contributed — to sixty-five. To illustrate: —

Rights of those discontinuing contributions.

If he begins at forty-five to contribute at the rate of five

Illustration.

dollars a month, and stops at fifty-five, his contributions will have amounted to six hundred dollars; which will entitle him, after arriving at the age of sixty-five, to an *annual* allowance of ten cents on the dollar on all he has contributed, or sixty dollars a year, and an addition of one-half cent on the dollar for each year counting from fifty—the middle of the period during which he has contributed—to sixty-five; making in all fifteen years (seven and one-half cents on each dollar paid), or forty-five dollars a year; which, added to the sixty, will make one hundred and five dollars *annual* allowance to be paid him as long as he may live.

Rights in event of death.

ARTICLE XV. If he shall die before arriving at the age of sixty-five, the person designated in his certificate, or, if there be no such person, his legal representative, shall receive all he has contributed to this fund, *and one-half more*.

Amount returned in case of withdrawal from fund.

ARTICLE XVI. If he shall withdraw from participation in the benefits of this fund, there shall be returned to him three-fourths of the total sum he has contributed thereto.

Annuity may compound life payments.

ARTICLE XVII. Any member, after becoming a recipient on this fund, may at any time before arriving at the age of seventy receive a sum, in one payment, equal to five years' allowance under the schedule, in place of all future allowances.

COMMITTEE OF MANAGEMENT.

Constitution of Committee of managers.

ARTICLE XVIII. The president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company shall be, *ex officio*, a member of the committee of management, which, in addition, shall consist of four members to be appointed by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, and five elected by the contributors.

Election for managers.

ARTICLE XIX. The first election for managers shall take place on the first Wednesday after the first day of July, 1880, and until that election takes place the president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company shall designate the persons to represent the contributors in the board. Subsequent elections shall take place on the first Wednesday following the first day of January of every year.

Voting by contributors.

ARTICLE XX. At these elections for managers each person shall be entitled to vote in proportion to his monthly contributions, and shall have the right to vote by proxy.

Managers not entitled to compensation.

ARTICLE XXI. No person shall be entitled to receive any compensation or salary by reason of his service upon the committee of management.

Investment of funds.

ARTICLE XXII. The moneys belonging to the fund of this society, not wanted for immediate use, shall be invested by the managers in United States bonds, Maryland State and Municipal bonds, Baltimore & Ohio Railroad bonds, stocks or other obligations, and other first-class securities. All securities and the moneys necessary to meet current expenses shall be entrusted to the official custody of the treasurer of the Baltimore

Custody of funds.

& Ohio Railroad Company, to be held subject to the requisition of the committee of management.

ARTICLE XXIII. All the benefits offered by this society are guaranteed by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company.

Benefits guaranteed by B. & O. R. R. Co.

ARTICLE XXIV. The managers will elect a secretary from the contributors, who shall perform the usual duties attached to that office.

Appointment and duties of secretary.

ARTICLE XXV. Should any difference arise between any claimants for the benefits herein set forth and the committee of management, it shall be submitted to three arbitrators; one to be chosen by each party and the third by the two thus chosen; whose decision shall be final.

Settlement of disputes.

ARTICLE XXVI. All the contributions due by the members of this society shall be paid in advance, by being deducted from the monthly wages due them by either of the companies aforesaid, and every person signing these rules hereby assents to such reduction.

Contributions — when paid.

ARTICLE XXVII. None of the provisions of this constitution shall be altered, modified or repealed, nor shall any new rule be made, except at a general meeting of the committee of management. Three months' notice must be given of any such proposed change or modification, and every such amendment, repeal, of an old rule, or introduction of a new one, shall be inoperative until confirmed by a two-thirds majority vote of the members of this society, or by two-thirds of the committee of management, at a subsequent general meeting.

Modification, repeal, &c., of rules.

BY-LAWS OF THE RELIEF ASSOCIATION.

1st. Whenever suit is brought by a member of the Association against the B. & O. R. R. Co., or any of the companies operating its branches or divisions, including the Chicago division, such member shall forfeit all claim to any benefits accruing to him subsequent to the date of the institution of the suit.

2d. No member of the Association shall, without the assent in writing, of the Secretary of the Association, assign or transfer to any person, other than the one named in his application, any benefit due him by the Association under its constitution and by-laws, and any such attempted assignment without such written consent shall be a forfeiture of all claims of the beneficiary or transferee to such benefits.

3d. Each and every vacancy occurring in the committee of management shall be filled through the election, by the committee, of a member of the Relief Association, to serve the unexpired portion of the term of the committeeman whom he succeeds.

No em-
ployee over
forty-five
years ad-
mitted to
Relief As-
sociation.

Regulations
regarding
joining As-
sociation.

Examina-
tion of ap-
plicants for
admission
to com-
pany's ser-
vice.

Minors.

Premiums.

Liability of
Association
for pay-
ments to
members.

Return of
premiums
on leaving
service.

4th. 1. Ample opportunity to investigate the merits and witness the practical operations of the Association having been given all employees, and it being important for its future welfare that some attention be given the physical condition of those hereafter seeking admission, notice is given that no employee of the company over forty-five years of age, and who cannot produce a medical certificate of sound health, will be admitted to share its privileges and benefits.

2. It is the duty of all officials employing men for the company's service to see that they are in good physical health and free from disease, and are not over forty-five years of age. In order to enable them to do this, they can at all times command the services of the medical inspectors to examine applicants for admission to the service. It is also their duty to see that applications are properly filled up, witnessed by some person permanently employed by the company, and promptly forwarded to the Secretary of the Association at Camden Station.

All minors' applications for membership must have the consent of parent or guardian written on their faces.

Employees are entitled to the benefits of the Association only from the date of perfecting their applications for membership.

3. Premiums are deducted monthly, in advance, on the pay-rolls of the company (the word month in this connection being construed to mean calendar month). They must be paid for the time intervening between the date of the application and the next month's payment. The amount thus due may be paid on entering the service, otherwise it must be added to the first full monthly premium, and deducted on the pay-roll, — proper notation thereof being made.

4. As the Relief Association was organized by the Baltimore & Ohio Company solely for the benefit of its own employees, and as, under the terms of the constitution, the responsibility of the Association ceases from the date a member leaves the service of the company (unless he be then drawing allowance from the Association for sickness incurred or accident received while in the service), no insurance premium is to be deducted from the final payment to a member, and so much of the premium last paid by him as covers the fractional part of the month succeeding the date he leaves the service is to be returned to him by the person paying his wages. A separate receipt is, in every instance, to be taken for such refundment, and forwarded to the Secretary of the Association at Camden Station, when the money thus refunded will be properly credited to the party paying it. The retained pay-rolls will ordinarily show the amount to be refunded, but where they are not accessible, or the amount cannot be satisfactorily ascertained, the information can be procured from the Secretary of the Association.

5. When disabled for duty by any cause specified in the constitution, members are entitled to the payments provided therein, for every day during the time thus *totally disabled* (Sundays and legal holidays excepted), upon complying with the regulations for the establishment of claims announced in the constitution and orders heretofore promulgated. Allowances cannot be made where the disablement does not cause *total* inability to labor.

Sundays and holidays not included in allowances.

6. It is the duty of each and every member abstaining from labor on account of physical disability to perform his work, to immediately inform his timekeeper or other person designated to receive such reports.

Reports of disability.

The Association is bound to the payment of allowances only when the disablement is thus reported; and no claim that has not been so reported will be considered.

Payments made only when disability is reported.

It is also the duty of every one having control of men, to report to the Secretary of the Association with the utmost promptness, each case of accidental injury or sickness or death occurring among the members. At the same time they must send duplicates of such notifications to the nearest medical inspector, through the head of department, or those designated by him, whereby examination of the claims will be greatly facilitated.

Allowances will in no case antedate such notification.

7. It is incumbent upon every member entitled to allowance from the Association to see that his claim is prepared in due form and forwarded to the nearest medical inspector or the secretary at Baltimore.

Claims to be forwarded only after being perfected.

The receipt attached to the certificate of disablement should in each case be signed before it is forwarded to the secretary, in order to obviate inconvenience and delay in afterwards procuring such signature.

8. The counter-signature of a higher official than the one certifying to the disablement is required in every case where the certifying official is not above the rank of a supervisor. The official signing such a certificate of disablement must have personal knowledge of the facts therein stated or, at least, satisfy himself of their correctness before certifying; being held responsible for the consequences of such certification.

Certification.

9. Under the terms of the constitution of the Association no claim for *death* allowance, either accidental or natural, can be entertained or allowed, unless it be established to the satisfaction of the committee that the member, at the time of death, or at the time of receiving the injury or incurring the sickness causing death, was in the service of the Baltimore & Ohio Company.

Death allowance — when made.

A member of the Association leaving the service of the company, while he is undergoing injury or sickness, for which

Members leaving company's ser-

vice — to what entitled.

allowance is made, is still entitled to continuance of the same as provided for in the constitution and for the period therein stipulated.

When claims will be paid.

10. Vouchers for money due by the Association will only be issued once a month, on the following dates:—

On Main Stem and branches.

In payment of all claims originating on the main stem and branches, received at the office of the Association in Baltimore, in proper shape for settlement, on or before the tenth day of each month, vouchers will *only* be issued on the 20th of the same month (on the 21st in case the 20th be Sunday).

On Pittsburgh and Trans-Ohio Divisions.

For all claims originating on the Pittsburgh division and Trans-Ohio divisions, received at the office of the association in Baltimore, in proper shape for settlement, on or before the last day of each month, vouchers will *only* be issued on the 10th of the succeeding month (on the 11th in case the 10th be Sunday).

To enable the management to carry out this programme effectively, it is absolutely essential that all parties use the utmost diligence in preparing and forwarding claims as promptly as practicable.

Members notified when vouchers issue.

Each member entitled to allowance will be notified to whose care the voucher issued in settlement thereof has been sent. Those to whom such vouchers are sent will be held responsible for their prompt and safe delivery to their owners. Should a voucher be lost, no duplicate will be issued for sixty days, and no original voucher presented for payment *after* sixty days have elapsed from its date must be paid, until it is ascertained from the Secretary of the Association that no duplicate has been issued.

Allowances made only upon final certificate by inspectors.

11. It is the province of the medical inspectors to decide when a member is unfit for duty, and the payment of sick or accident allowance is usually made dependent upon their favorable report. No allowance will be paid a member after the date fixed by the inspector for his return to duty, unless unforeseen circumstances render it clearly impracticable for him to obey the direction, which must be clearly shown before further payment will be made.

Medical attendance — when furnished.

12. Medical attendance is only furnished at the expense of the Association in cases of disablement from injury received from accident occurring in the discharge of duty. It is not made compulsory upon a member to secure the services of a physician simply for the purpose of signing the certificate required to perfect his claim. If the Association is promptly notified of the sickness, one of its inspectors will at once look into the case, and inspectors are authorized to sign all certificates in lieu of physicians.

Surrender of certificate of membership.

13. Every member leaving the service must surrender his certificate of membership to the official paying him, who will indorse upon its back, over his signature, the cause of leaving

the service and the amount of premium returned to the member.

14. Any employee discharged or leaving the company's service, must, on re-entering the same, make application for membership in the Association, without reference to previous employment.

Applica-
tions for
member-
ship.

15. Attention is called to Article XI. of the constitution, which provides that "the monthly payment shall in all cases be deducted from the wages of the members; when there are no wages, no payments can be made." In explanation of this provision it may be stated that premiums are *only* deducted from the *wages* of members, and that when, through *sickness* or *accident*, absence with leave, or suspension, they have earned no wages, no premium is expected from them.

When pre-
miums are
to be paid.

ARTICLE V. of the constitution provides that when a contributor shall be disabled by sickness or accident from earning any wages, and it shall be so certified by a surgeon employed by the society, he shall, notwithstanding, be entitled to the benefits of this society for one month after the time for which his contributions have been paid, and also for a period extending from the day he resumes labor to the first subsequent payment of wages.

In other words, though *sickness* or *accident* prevent a member from earning wages and paying his premium, he is not to be thereby debarred from the benefits of the Association *from the time he does resume work to the time he again commences paying premiums*; but, without charge for back insurance, is entitled to all benefits between the time of such resumption of work and the time he again commences paying premiums in advance from wages earned.

It being a recognized fact, that in severe cases of injury, hospitals offer better facilities for securing speedy recovery than can be had elsewhere, the management in the interest of those members of the Association who may meet with accidents whilst in the discharge of duty, and may prefer hospital treatment, have made special arrangements with prominent hospitals in Chicago, Columbus, Wheeling, Pittsburgh, and Baltimore, for *boarding* and attending those so disabled, who will thereby secure to themselves the advantages of the best surgical treatment and appliances, careful nursing and all the comforts of a home. Under this arrangement the Association is to pay for the medical attendance and the member for his board — which latter, in no event, need exceed \$2.50 per week, and which can be paid out of his allowance from the Association.

Hospital
treatment
for mem-
bers.

The management reserves to itself the power of approving or declining each application for this privilege.

All requests for admission to hospitals will be addressed to the Secretary of the Association.

APPENDIX C.

MASSACHUSETTS EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT.

(Chapter 270, Acts of 1887.)

AN ACT TO EXTEND AND REGULATE THE LIABILITY OF EMPLOYERS
TO MAKE COMPENSATION FOR PERSONAL INJURIES SUFFERED BY
EMPLOYEES IN THEIR SERVICE.

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

Liability of
employers
for personal
injuries
suffered by
employees
in their
service.

SECTION 1. Where, after the passage of this act, personal injury is caused to an employee, who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time:—

(1) By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works or machinery connected with or used in the business of the employer, which arose from or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer or of any person in the service of the employer and entrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works or machinery were in proper condition; or

(2) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, entrusted with and exercising superintendence, whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence.

(3) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has the charge or control of any signal, switch, locomotive engine or train upon a railroad, the employee, or in case the injury results in death the legal representatives of such employee, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the employee had not been an employee of nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in its work.

Liability
where an
employee is
instantly
killed, etc.

SECTION 2. Where an employee is instantly killed or dies without conscious suffering, as the result of the negligence of an employer, or of the negligence of any person for whose negligence the employer is liable under the provisions of this act, the widow of the deceased, or in case there is no widow, the next of kin, provided that such next of kin were at the time of the death of such employee dependent upon the wages of such employee for support, may maintain an action for damages therefor and may recover in the same manner, to the same extent, as if the death of the deceased had not been instantaneous, or as if the deceased had consciously suffered.

SECTION 3. The amount of compensation receivable under this act in cases of personal injury shall not exceed the sum of four thousand dollars. In case of death, compensation in lieu thereof may be recovered in not less than five hundred and not more than five thousand dollars, to be assessed with reference to the degree of culpability of the employer herein, or the person for whose negligence he is made liable; and no action for the recovery of compensation for injury or death under this act shall be maintained, unless notice of the time, place and cause of the injury is given to the employer within thirty days, and the action is commenced within one year, from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury or death. * [The notice required by this section shall be in writing, signed by the person injured or by some one in his behalf; but if from physical or mental incapacity it is impossible for the person injured to give the notice within the time provided in said section, he may give the same within ten days after such incapacity is removed, and in case of his death without having given the notice and without having been for ten days at any time after his injury of sufficient capacity to give the notice, his executor or administrator may give such notice within thirty days after his appointment.] But no notice given under the provisions of this section shall be deemed to be invalid or insufficient solely by reason of any inaccuracy in stating the time, place or cause of the injury: *provided*, it is shown that there was no intention to mislead, and that the party entitled to notice was not in fact misled thereby.

Amount of compensation receivable under this act.

SECTION 4. Whenever an employer enters into a contract, either written or verbal, with an independent contractor to do part of such employer's work, or whenever such contractor enters into a contract with a sub-contractor to do all or any part of the work comprised in such contractor's contract with the employer, such contract or sub-contract shall not bar the liability of the employer for injuries to the employees of such contractor or sub-contractor, by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant, if they are the property of the employer, or furnished by him, and if such defect arose or had not been discovered or remedied, through the negligence of the employer or of some person entrusted by him with the duty of seeing that they were in proper condition.

Liability of employer to employee of a contractor or sub-contractor.

SECTION 5. An employee or his legal representatives shall not be entitled under this act to any right of compensation or remedy against his employer in any case where such employee knew of the defect or negligence which caused the injury, and failed within a reasonable time to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or to some person

Employer not liable, if employee knew of defect which caused accident and failed to give notice thereof.

* The portion in brackets was an amendment which was approved March 22, 1888, forming Chapter 155, Acts of 1888.

superior to himself in the service of the employer, who had entrusted to him some general superintendence.

Compensation where employer has contributed to an insurance fund for benefit of employees.

SECTION 6. Any employer who shall have contributed to an insurance fund created and maintained for the mutual purpose of indemnifying an employee for personal injuries for which compensation may be recovered under this act, or to any relief society formed under chapter two hundred and forty-four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and eighty-two, as authorized by chapter one hundred and twenty-five of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, may prove, in mitigation of the damages recoverable by an employee under this act, such proportion of the pecuniary benefit which has been received by such employee from any such fund or society on account of such contribution of said employer, as the contribution of such employer to such fund or society bears to the whole contribution thereto.

Not to apply to injuries to domestic servants, etc., by other fellow employees.

SECTION 7. This act shall not apply to injuries caused to domestic servants, or farm laborers, by other fellow employees, and shall take effect on the first day of September, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven.

Approved May 14, 1887.

45
REPRINT EDITION.

EARLY FACTORY LABOR

IN

NEW ENGLAND.

[FROM THE FOURTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS
OF LABOR, FOR 1883.]

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
CARROLL D. WRIGHT,
CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,

BY
HARRIET H. ROBINSON.

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REPRINTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE PROVISIONS OF CHAP. 7,
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EARLY FACTORY LABOR

IN

NEW ENGLAND.



EARLY FACTORY LABOR IN NEW ENGLAND.

The life of a people or of a class is best illustrated by its domestic scenes, or by character sketches of the men and women who form a part of it. The historian is a species of mental photographer; he can present only views of the life and times he attempts to portray. He can no more give the whole history of events than the artist or photographer can in detail bring a whole city into his picture. And so, in this brief record of a life that is past, I can give you but a few views of that long-ago faded landscape, — taken on the spot.

When I look back into the factory life of forty or forty-five years ago, I do not see what is called “a class” of young men and women going to and from their daily work, like so many ants that cannot be distinguished one from another, — I see them as individuals, with personalities of their own. This one has about her the atmosphere of her early home. That one is impelled by a strong and noble purpose. The other, — what she is, has been an influence for good to me and to all womankind.

Yet they were a class of factory operatives, and were spoken of (as the same class is spoken of now) as a set of persons who earned their daily bread, whose condition was fixed, and who must continue to spin and to weave to the end of their natural existence. Nothing but this was expected of them, and they were not supposed to be capable of social or mental improvement. That they could be educated and developed into something more than mere work-people, was an idea that had not yet entered the public mind. So little does one class of persons really know about the

thoughts and aspirations of another. It was the good fortune of these early-mill girls to teach the people that this sort of labor is not degrading; that the operative is not only "capable of virtue," but also capable of self-cultivation.

In what follows, I shall confine myself to a description of factory life in Lowell, Massachusetts, from 1832 to 1848, since, with that phase of Early Factory Labor in New England, I am the most familiar, — because I was a part of it.

In 1832, Lowell was little more than a factory village. Five "corporations" were started, and the cotton mills belonging to them were building. Help was in great demand and stories were told all over the country of the new factory place, and the high wages that were offered to all classes of work-people; stories that reached the ears of mechanics' and farmers' sons and gave new life to lonely and dependent women in distant towns and farm-houses. Into this Yankee El Dorado these needy people began to pour by the various modes of travel known to those slow old days. The stage-coach and the canal-boat came every day, always filled with new recruits for the army of useful people. The mechanic and machinist came, each with his home-made chest of tools and his wife and little ones. The widow came with her little flock and her scanty housekeeping goods to open a boarding-house or variety store, and so provided a home for her fatherless children. Troops of young girls came from different parts of New England, and from Canada, and men were employed to collect them at so much a head, and deliver them at the factories.

Some of these were daughters of sea captains (like Lucy Larcom), of professional men or teachers, whose mothers, left widows, were struggling to maintain the younger children. A few were the daughters of persons in reduced circumstances, who had left home "on a visit" to send their wages surreptitiously in aid of the family purse. And some (like the writer) were the granddaughters of patriots who had fought at Bunker Hill, and had lost the family means in the war for independence. There were others who seemed to have mysterious antecedents, and to be hiding from something; and strange and distinguished looking men

and women sometimes came to call upon them. Many farmers' daughters came to earn money to complete their wedding outfit, or buy the bride's share of housekeeping articles.

A very curious sight these country girls presented to young eyes accustomed to a more modern style of things. When the large covered baggage wagon arrived in front of a "block on the corporation" they would descend from it, dressed in various and outlandish fashions (some of the dresses, perhaps, having served for *best* during two generations) and with their arms brimful of handboxes containing all their worldly goods. These country girls as they were called, had queer names, which added to the singularity of their appearance. Samantha, Triphena, Plumy, Kezia, Aseneth, Elgardy, Leafy, Ruhamah, Lovey, Almaretta, Sarepta, and Florilla were among them. They soon learned the ways of the new place to which they had come, and after paying for their transportation they used their earnings to re-dress themselves, and in a little while they were as stylish as the rest. Many of them were of good New England blood, and blood tells even in factory people. They had always been taught that "work is no disgrace."

At the time the Lowell cotton mills were started the caste of the factory girl was the lowest among the employments of women. In England and in France, particularly, great injustice had been done to her real character. She was represented as subjected to influences that must destroy her purity and self-respect. In the eyes of her overseer she was but a brute, a slave, to be beaten, pinched and pushed about. It was to overcome this prejudice that such high wages had been offered to women that they might be induced to become mill-girls, in spite of the opprobrium that still clung to this degrading occupation. At first only a few came; others followed, and in a short time the prejudice against factory labor wore away, and the Lowell mills became filled with blooming and energetic New England women. They were naturally intelligent, had mother wit, and they fell easily into the ways of their new life. They soon began to associate with those who formed the community in which they had come to live, and were invited to their houses.

They went to the same church, and sometimes, perhaps, married into some of the best families. Or, if they returned to their secluded homes again, instead of being looked down upon as "factory girls," by the squire or the lawyers' family, they were more often welcomed as coming from the metropolis, bringing new fashions, new books and new ideas with them.

The early mill-girls were of different ages. Some (like the writer) were not over ten years of age; a few were in middle life, but the majority were between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five. The very young girls were called "doffers." They "doffed," or took off, the full bobbins from the spinning-frames, and replaced them with empty ones. These mites worked about fifteen minutes every hour and the rest of the time was their own. When the overseer was kind they were allowed to read, knit, or go outside the mill-yard to play. They were paid two dollars a week. The working hours of all the girls extended from five o'clock in the morning until seven in the evening, with one-half hour each, for breakfast and dinner. Even the doffers were forced to be on duty nearly fourteen hours a day. This was the greatest hardship in the lives of these children. Several years later a ten-hour law was passed, but not until long after some of these little doffers were old enough to appear before the legislative committee on the subject, and plead, by their presence, for a reduction of the hours of labor.*

Those of the mill-girls who had homes generally worked from eight to ten months in the year; the rest of the time was spent with parents or friends. A few taught school during the summer months. Their life in the factory was made pleasant to them. In those days there was no need of advocating the doctrine of the proper relation between employer and employed. *Help was too valuable to be ill-treated.* If these early agents, or overseers, had been disposed to exercise undue authority, or establish unjust or arbitrary laws, the moral strength of the operatives, and

*In 1847, or about that date, on invitation of William Schouler, a member of the legislature from Lowell; several mill-girls went before the Legislative Committee on the Hours of Labor, then sitting at the State House, to represent the interests of the Lowell operatives on this question.

the fact that so many of them were women, would have prevented it. A certain agent of one of the first corporations in Lowell (an old sea captain), said to one of his boarding-house keepers: "I should like to rule my help as I used to rule my sailors, but so many of them are women I do not dare to do it."

The knowledge of the antecedents of these operatives was the safeguard of their liberties. The majority of them were as well, if not better born, than their "overlookers," and they were also far better educated.

Except in rare instances, the rights of the mill-girls were secure. They were subject to no extortion, and if they did extra work they were always paid in full. Their own account of labor done by the piece was always accepted. They kept the figures, and were paid accordingly.* Though their hours of labor were long, yet they were not overworked. They were obliged to tend no more looms and frames than they could easily take care of, and they had plenty of time to sit and rest. I have known a girl to sit twenty or thirty minutes at a time. They were not driven. They took their work-a-day life easy. They were treated with consideration by their employers, and there was a feeling of respectful equality between them. The most favored of the girls were sometimes invited to the houses of the dignitaries of the mills, and thus the line of social division was not rigidly maintained.

The agents and overseers were usually married men, with families of growing sons and daughters. They were members, and, sometimes, deacons of the church, and teachers in the same Sunday school with the girls employed under them. They were generally men of moral and temperate habits, and exercised a good influence over the help. The feeling that the agents and overseers took an interest in their welfare, caused the girls in turn, to feel an interest in the work for which their employers were responsible. The conscientious among them took as much pride in spinning a smooth thread, drawing in a perfect web, or in making good cloth, as they would have done if the material had been for their own wearing. And thus was practised, long before it

* This was notably the case with the weavers and drawing-in girls.

was preached, that principle of true political economy,—the just relation, the mutual interest that ought to exist between employers and employed.

At first the mill-girls had but small chance to acquire book learning. But evening schools were soon established, and they were well filled with those who desired to continue their scant education, or supplement what they had learned in the village school or academy. Here might often be seen a little girl of ten puzzling over her sums in Colburn's Arithmetic, and at her side another "girl" of fifty poring over her lesson in Pierpont's National Reader. In 1836 or thereabouts, a law was made by several corporations which compelled every child under fourteen years of age, to go to school three months in the year. And then the little doffers (and I was one of them) had another chance to nibble at the root of knowledge.

Some of these evening schools were devoted entirely to one particular study. There was a geography school in which the lessons were repeated in unison in a monotonous, sing-song tone. There was also a school where those who fancied they had thoughts were taught by Newman's Rhetoric to express them in writing. In this school the relative position of the subject and the predicate in a sentence was not always well taught by the master; but never to mix a metaphor or to confuse a simile was a lesson he firmly fixed in the minds of his pupils.

Life in the boarding-houses was very agreeable. These houses belonged to the corporation, and were usually kept by widows (mothers of some of the mill-girls), who were often the friends and advisers of their boarders. Each house was a village or community of itself. There fifty or sixty young women from different parts of New England met and lived together. When not at their work, by natural selection they sat in groups in their chambers, or in a corner of the large dining-room, busy at some agreeable employment. They wrote letters, read, studied, or sewed, for, as a rule, they were their own seamstresses and dress-makers.

These boarding-houses were considered so attractive that strangers, by invitation, often came to look in upon them,

and see for themselves how the mill-girls lived. Dickens, in his *American Notes*, speaks with surprise of their home-life. He says, "There is a piano in a great many of the boarding-houses, and nearly all the young ladies subscribe to circulating libraries." There was a certain class feeling among these households; any advantage secured to one of the number was usually shared by others belonging to her set or group. Books were exchanged; letters from home were read, and "pieces," intended for the Improvement Circle, were presented for friendly criticism. They stood by each other in the mills. When one wanted to be absent half a day, two or three others would tend an extra loom or frame apiece, so that the absent one might not lose her pay. At this time the mule and spinning-jenny had not been introduced, and two or three looms, or spinning-frames, were as much as one girl was required to tend. More than that was considered "double work."

The society of one another was of great advantage to these girls. They discussed the books they read; debated religious and social questions; compared their thoughts and experiences, and advised and helped one another. And so their mental growth went on and they soon became educated far beyond what their mothers or their grandmothers could have been. It may be well to mention here that there were a few of the mill-girls, who came to Lowell solely on account of the social or literary advantages to be found there. They lived in secluded parts of New England, where books were scarce, and there was no intelligent society. They had comfortable homes, and did not perhaps, need the *money* they would earn, but they longed to see

"This wonderful city of spindles and looms,
And thousands of factory folks."

And the fame of the circulating libraries that were soon opened drew them and kept them there, when no other inducement would have been sufficient. I knew one who spent her winters in Lowell for this very purpose. She was addicted to novel-reading and read from two to four volumes a week. While she was at her work in the mill, the children of the family where she boarded were allowed to

read the books. It was as good as a fortune to them. For six and a quarter cents a week the novels of Richardson, Madame D'Arblay, Fielding, Smollett, Cooper, Scott, and Captain Marryatt could be devoured by four hungry readers.

The early mill-girls were omnivorous readers of the few magazines and newspapers. From an article on this phase of the subject in the *Offering* — “Our Household,” I am able to quote a sketch of one factory boarding-house interior. The author said, — “In our house there are eleven boarders, and in all thirteen members of the family. I will class them according to their religious tenets as follows: Calvinist, Baptist, Unitarian, Congregational, Catholic, Episcopalian, and Mormonite, one each; Universalist and Methodist, two each; Christian Baptist, three. Their reading is from the following sources: — They receive regularly fifteen newspapers and periodicals. These are, the *Boston Daily Times*, the *Herald of Freedom*, the *Signs of the Times* and the *Christian Herald*, two copies each; the *Christian Register*, *Vox Populi*, *Literary Souvenir*, *Boston Pilot*, *Young Catholic's Friend*, *Star of Bethlehem* and the *Lowell Offering*, three copies each. A magazine [perhaps the *Dial*] one copy. We also borrow regularly the *Non-Resistant*, the *Liberator*, the *Ladies' Book*, the *Ladies' Pearl* and the *Ladies' Companion*. We have also in the house what perhaps cannot be found anywhere else in the city of Lowell, — a Mormon Bible.”

It is well to consider, for a moment, some of the characteristics of the early mill-girls. We have seen that they were necessarily industrious. They were also frugal and saving. It was their custom the first of every month, after paying their board bill (\$1.25 a week), to put their wages in the savings bank. There the money stayed, on interest, until they withdrew it, to carry home or to use for a special purpose. In 1843 over one-half of the depositors in the Lowell Institution for Savings were mill-girls, and over one-third of the whole sum deposited belonged to them, — in round numbers, \$101,992. It is easy to see how much good such a sum as this would do in a rural community where money, as a means of exchange, had been scarce. Into the barren homes many of them had left, it went like a quiet stream,

carrying with it beauty and refreshment. The mortgage was lifted from the homestead; the farmhouse was painted; the barn rebuilt; modern improvements (including Mrs. Child's *Frugal Housewife*) were introduced into the mother's kitchen, and books and newspapers began to ornament the sitting-room table.

Young men and women who had spent their two or three years of probation in the Lowell Mills, often returned to the old place, bought land, built their modest houses, and became new and prosperous heads of families. Some of the mill-girls helped maintain widowed mothers, or drunken, incompetent, or invalid fathers. Many of them educated the younger children of the family and young men were sent to college with the money furnished by the untiring industry of their women relatives.

The most prevailing incentive to labor was to secure the means of education for some *male* member of the family. To make a *gentleman* of a brother or a son, to give him a college education, was the dominant thought in the minds of a great many of the better class of mill-girls. I have known more than one to give every cent of her wages, month after month, to her brother, that he might get the education necessary to enter some profession. I have known a mother to work years in this way for her boy. I have known women to educate young men by their earnings, who were not sons or relatives. There are many men now living who were helped to an education by the wages of the early mill-girls.*

It is well to digress here a little, and speak of the influence the possession of money had on the characters of some of these women. We can hardly realize what a change the cotton factory made in the status of the working women. Hitherto woman had always been a money *saving* rather than a money earning, member of the community. Her labor could command but small return. If she worked out

* Mr. T. W. Higginson has given evidence to this fact in one of his articles, in which he said: "I think it was the late President Walker who told me that in his judgment one quarter of the men in Harvard College were being carried through by the special self-denial and sacrifices of women. I cannot answer for the ratio, but I can testify to having been an instance of this myself; and to having known a never-ending series of such cases of self-devotion."

as servant, or "help," her wages were from 50 cents to \$1.00 a week; or, if she went from house to house by the day to spin and weave, or do tailoress work, she could get but 75 cents a week and her meals. As teacher her services were not in demand, and the arts, the professions, and even the trades and industries, were nearly all closed to her.

As late as 1840 there were only seven vocations outside the home into which the women of New England had entered.* At this time woman had no property rights. A widow could be left without her share of her husband's (or the family) property, an "incumbrance" to his estate. A father could make his will without reference to his daughter's share of the inheritance. He usually left her a home on the farm as long as she remained single. A woman was not supposed to be capable of spending her own, or of using other people's money. In Massachusetts, before 1840, a woman could not, legally, be treasurer of her own sewing society, unless some man were responsible for her.

The law took no cognizance of woman as a money-spender. She was a ward, an appendage, a relict. Thus it happened, that if a woman did not choose to marry, or, when left a widow, to re-marry, she had no choice but to enter one of the few employments open to her or to become a burden on the charity of some relative.

In almost every New England home could be found one or more of these women sitting "solitary" in the family; sometimes welcome, more often unwelcome; leading joyless, and in many instances, unsatisfactory lives. The cotton factory was a great opening to these lonely and dependent women. From a condition of almost pauperism they were placed at once above want. They could earn money and spend it as they pleased. They could gratify their tastes and desires without restraint and without rendering an account to anybody.

At last they had found a place in the universe, and were no longer obliged to finish out their faded lives a burden to their male relatives. Even the *time* of these women was their own, on Sundays, and in the evening, after the day's

* According to the Census of 1880 the women of Massachusetts are now employed in 284 branches of industry, including the arts and professions.

work was done. For the first time in this country the labor of woman, as a class, had a money value. She had become not only an earner and producer, but also a spender of money; a recognized factor in the political economy of her time.

The history of Lowell gives a good illustration of the influence of women, as an independent class, upon the growth of a town or a community.

As early as 1836, ten years after its incorporation, Lowell began to show what the early mill-girls and boys could do towards the material prosperity of a great city. It numbered over 17,000 inhabitants, — an increase of over 15,000 during that time.

The old Middlesex Canal, opened in 1797, had long since ceased to accommodate the growing traffic. The stage-coach could not fetch and carry fast enough, and, in 1835, the Boston and Lowell Railroad, the first enterprise of the kind in the United States, went into operation. Churches and schoolhouses were building, and the new-made city showed unmistakable signs of becoming, what it has since been called, the "Manchester of America." But the money of the operatives alone could not have so increased the growth and social importance of a city or a locality. It was the result, as well, of the successful operation of the early factory system, managed by men who were wise enough to consider the physical, moral, and mental needs of those who were the source of their wealth.

The early mill-girls were religious by nature and by Puritan inheritance. On entering the mill, each one was obliged to sign a "regulation paper," which required her to attend regularly some place of public worship. They were of many creeds and beliefs. In one boarding-house, that I knew, there were girls belonging to eight different religious sects.

In 1843, there were in Lowell, fourteen regularly organized religious societies. Ten of these constituted a Sabbath School Union, which consisted of over five thousand scholars and teachers; three-fourths of the scholars, and a proportion of the teachers, were mill-girls. Once a year, every fourth of July, this Sabbath School Union, each section, or division, under its own sectarian banner, marched in procession to the grove on Chapel Hill, where a picnic was held, with lemon-

ade, and long speeches by the ministers of the different churches. The mill-girls went regularly to meeting and Sabbath School, and every Sunday the streets of Lowell were alive with neatly-dressed young women, going or returning therefrom. Their fine appearance on the Sabbath was often spoken of by strangers visiting Lowell.

Dr. Scoresby, in his *American Factories and their Operatives*, holds up the Lowell mill-girls as an example of neatness and good behavior to their sister operatives of Bradford, England. Indeed, it was a pretty sight to see so many wide-awake young girls, in the bloom of life, clad in their holiday dresses.

It is refreshing to remember their simplicity of dress; they wore no ruffles and very few ornaments. It is true that some of them had gold watches and gold pencils, but they were worn only on grand occasions. As a rule the early mill-girls were not of that class that is said to be "always suffering for a breast-pin." Though their dress was so simple and so plain, yet it was so fitting that they were often accused of looking like ladies. And the complaint was sometimes made that no one could tell the difference in *church*, between the factory girls and the daughters of some of the first families in the city.

The morals of the early mill-girls were uniformly good. The regulation paper, before spoken of, required each one to be of good moral character, and if any one proved to be disreputable, she was at once turned out of the mill. Their standard of behavior was high, and the majority kept aloof from those who were suspected of wrong-doing. They had, perhaps, less temptation than the working-girls of to-day. They were not required to dress beyond their means; and comfortable homes were provided by their employers, where they could board cheaply. Their surroundings were pure, and the whole atmosphere of their boarding-houses was as refined as that of their own homes. They expected men to treat them with courtesy; they looked forward to becoming the wives of good men. Their attitude toward the other sex was that of the German *fräulein*, who said, "Treat every maiden with respect, for you do not know whose *wife* she will be."

The health of the early mill-girls was good. The regularity and simplicity of their lives and the plain and substantial food provided for them kept them free from illness. From their Puritan ancestry they had inherited sound bodies and a fair share of endurance. Fevers and similar diseases were rare among them, and they had no time to pet small ailments. The boarding-house mother was often both nurse and doctor, and so the physician's fee was saved. There was, at that time, but one *pathy* to be supported by the many diseases "that flesh is heir to."

Their reformatory spirit is worthy of mention. They were subscribers to the newspapers, and it was their habit, after reading their copies, to send them by mail to their widely scattered homes, where they were read all over a village or a neighborhood.

By reading the weekly newspapers the girls became interested in public events. They knew all about the Mexican war, and the anti-slavery cause had its adherents among them. Lectures on the doctrine of Fourier were read, or listened to, and some of them were familiar with, and discussed the Brook Farm experiment.

Mrs. Bloomer, that pioneer of the modern dress reform, found followers in Lowell; and parlor meetings were held at some of the boarding-houses to discuss the feasibility of this great revolution in the style of woman's dress.

One of the first strikes that ever took place in this country was in Lowell in 1836. When it was announced that the wages were to be cut down, great indignation was felt, and it was decided to strike or "turn out" *en masse*. This was done. The mills were shut down, and the girls went from their several corporations in procession to the grove on Chapel Hill, and listened to incendiary speeches from some early labor reformers.

One of the girls stood on a pump and gave vent to the feelings of her companions in a neat speech, declaring that it was their duty to resist all attempts at cutting down the wages. This was the first time a woman had spoken in public in Lowell, and the event caused surprise and consternation among her audience. One of the number (the writer), a little girl eleven years old, had led the turn-out

from the room in which she worked. She was a "little doffer," and they called her a ring-leader.

It is hardly necessary to say that, so far as practical results are concerned, this strike did no good.

The corporations would not come to terms. The girls were soon tired of holding out, and they went back to their work at the reduced rate of wages. The ill-success of this early attempt at resistance on the part of the wage element seems to have made a precedent for the issue of many succeeding strikes.

It seems to have been the fashion of the early mill-girls to appear in procession on all public occasions. Mr. Cowley, in his *History of Lowell*, speaks of President Jackson's visit to that city in 1833.

He says: "On the day the president came, all the lady operatives turned out to meet him. They walked in procession, like troops of liveried angels clothed in white [with pink parasols], with cannons booming, drums beating, banners flying, handkerchiefs waving, etc. The old hero was not more moved by the bullets that whistled round him in the battle of New Orleans than by the exhilarating spectacle here presented."

This is but the brief story of the life of a class of common every-day work people; such as it was then, such as it might be to-day. The Lowell mill-girls were but a simple folk, living in Arcadian simplicity as was the fashion of the times. They earned their own bread, and often that of others. They eked out their scant education by their own efforts, and read such books as were found in the circulating libraries of the day. They sought to help one another. They tried to be good, and to improve their minds. They were wholly untroubled by conventionalities or thoughts of class distinctions, dressing simply, since they had no time to waste on the entanglements of dress. Such were their lives. Undoubtedly there must have been another side of this picture, but I give the side I knew best — the bright side!

It now remains for me to speak of the intellectual tendencies of a portion of the early mill-girls. Their desire for self-improvement had been to a certain extent gratified, and they began to feel the benefit of the educational ad-

vantages which had been opened to them. They had attended lyceum lectures, learned what they could at the evening schools, and continued their studies during their yearly vacations, or while at their work in the mill. I have known one girl to study Greek and Latin, and another algebra, while tending her work. Their labor was monotonous and done almost mechanically, but their thoughts were free, and they had ample time to digest what they learned, or think over what they had read. Some of these studious ones kept note-books, with abstracts of their reading and studies, or jotted down what they were pleased to call their "thoughts." Many of the pieces that were printed in the *Lowell Offering* were thought out amid the hum of the wheels, while the skilful fingers and well-trained eyes of the writers tended the loom or the frame. It was natural that such a studious life as this should bear some fruit, and this leads me to speak of the *Lowell Offering* just mentioned, a publication that may be called the natural outgrowth of the mental habit of the early mill-girls. The first number of this unique magazine was issued in October, 1840, the last in December, 1849. There are seven volumes in all. The story of its publication is as follows: The Rev. Abel C. Thomas and the Rev. Thomas B. Thayer, pastors of the first and second Universalist Churches in Lowell, had established improvement circles composed of the young people belonging to their respective parishes. These meetings were largely made up of young men and women who worked in the mill. They were often asked to speak, but as they persistently declined, they were invited to write what they desired to say, and send it, to be read anonymously at the next meeting. Many of the young women complied with this request, but it is recorded that the young men were of "no great assistance." These written communications were so numerous that they very soon became the sole entertainment of what Mr. Thomas called "these intellectual banquets."*

* In 1842, *The Factory Operatives Magazine*, a sort of rival publication, was started by some persons of a different religious sect, who were in spirit opposed to the Universalist editors of the *Lowell Offering*. It was edited by two factory girls, Abby A. Goddard and Lydia S. Hall, who were also writers for the *Offering*: It lived one year, and not being successful, was then consolidated with the original magazine.

It may be said, that these improvement circles were not the first formed among the early mill-girls. In 1836 there was one composed entirely of young girls who worked on the Lawrence corporation, who thus, according to their constitution, "desired to improve the talents God had given" them. This may, perhaps, be called the first woman's club on record. In 1843 there were at least five of these improvement circles, composed entirely of mill-girls.

A selection from the budget of articles read at their circles, was soon published by Mr. Thomas and Mr. Thayer in pamphlet form and called the *Lowell Offering*. These gentlemen conducted the *Offering* two years, and then it passed into the hands of Miss Harriet Farley and Miss Harriot F. Curtis, both operatives in the Lowell mills. Under their joint editorship it lasted until it was discontinued for want of means, and perhaps new contributors. All the articles in the *Offering* were written by mill-girls. In speaking of this matter, its first editor, Mr. Thomas says: "Communications much amended, in process of training the writers, were rigidly excluded from print, and such articles only were published as had been written by females employed in the mills." He continues, "and thus was published not only the first work written by factory girls, but also the first magazine or journal written exclusively by women in all the world."

The *Offering* was a small, thin magazine, with one column to the page. The price of the first number was six and a quarter cents. Its title-page was plain, with a motto from Gray, — the verse beginning:

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene."

This motto was used for two years when another was adopted:

"Is Saul also among the prophets?"

In January, 1845, the magazine had on its outside cover a vignette, a young girl simply dressed, with feet visible and sleeves rolled up. She had a book in one hand and her shawl and bonnet were thrown over her arm. She was represented as standing in a very sentimental attitude, contemplating a bee-hive at her right hand. In the back-

ground, as if to shut them from her thoughts, was a row of factories, and the motto was :

“ The worm on the earth
May look up to the star.”

This rather abject sentiment was not suited to the independent spirit of most of the contributors, who did not feel a bit like worms, and in the February number it was changed to one from Bunyan :

“ And do you think that the words of your book are certainly true?
Yea, verily.”

It finally died, however, under its favorite motto :

“ Is Saul also among the prophets? ”

The *Lowell Offering* was welcomed with pleased surprise. It found subscribers all over the country. The *North American Review*, whose literary *dictum* was more autocratic than it is to-day, endorsed it, and expressed a fair opinion of its literary merit. It said : —

“ Many of the articles are such as to satisfy the reader at once, that if he has only taken up the *Offering* as a phenomenon, and not as what may bear criticism and reward perusal, he has but to own his error, and dismiss his condescension as soon as may be.”

Other leading magazines and journals spoke favorably of its contributions. It made its way into lonely villages and farm-houses and set the women to thinking, and thus added its little leaven of progressive thought to the times in which it lived. It found subscribers in England. Dickens read it and praised its writers.* Harriet Martineau prompted a fine review of it in the *London Athencæum*, and a selection from its pages was published, under her direction, called *Mind Among the Spindles*.

* When Dickens visited this country, in 1842, he went into the Lowell factories and a copy of the *Offering* was presented to him: He speaks of it as follows:—“They have got up among themselves a periodical, called the *Lowell Offering*, whereof I brought away from Lowell four hundred good solid pages, which I have read from beginning to end. Of the merits of the *Lowell Offering*, as a literary production, I will only observe—putting out of sight the fact of the articles having been written by these girls after the arduous hours of the day—that it will compare advantageously with a great many English annuals.”

It is not necessary to speak here of the literary merits of the articles in the *Lowell Offering*. They are the crude attempts of those who were but children in literature, and the wonder is that what they wrote is half so good as it is.

These factory-girl writers did not confine their talents within the pages of their own publication. Many of them wrote for the literary newspapers and magazines. One sometimes filled the poet's corner in *Zion's Herald*; another took that envied place in the *Ladies' Casket*; a third sent poetic effusions to the *Lowell Courier and Journal*.*

In 1848, seven books had been published, written by contributors to the *Lowell Offering*.†

Though the literary character of these writings may not rise to the present standard of such productions, yet still at that season of intellectual dearth they must have had a certain influence on the literature of the land. And without claiming too much credit for the authors, it is but fair that some attempt should be made, as another has said, "to reveal the halo which should extend to us from this representative body of New England women."

These authors represent what may be called the poetic element of factory life. They were the ideal mill-girls; full of hopes, desires, aspirations; poets of the loom, spinners of verse, artists of factory life.

The names of the *Lowell Offering* writers, so far as I have been able to gather them, are as follows: Sarah Bagley, Josephine L. Baker, Adeline Bradley, Fidelia O. Brown, M. Bryant, Alice Ann Carter, Eliza J. Cate, Betsey Chamberlain, L. A. Choate, Kate Clapp, Louisa Currier, Maria Currier, Lura Currier, Harriot F. Curtis, Catherine Dodge, M. A. Dodge, Harriet Farley, Margaret F. Foley,

* William Schouler, of the *Lowell Journal*, published the *Offering* in 1845, and his young sub-editor, William S. Robinson, afterwards well known by his *nom de plume* of "Warrington," wrote favorable notices of the magazine, and when he could do so without letting "the editor step aside to make way for the friend," sometimes admitted its writers into the columns of that leading Whig newspaper. It may be added here, that this gentleman, in his zeal for the writers of the *Lowell Offering*, went so far as to take one of the least known among them as his companion for life.

† They were *Lights and Shadows of Factory Life*, and *Rural Scenes in New England* by Eliza Jane Cate; *Kate in Search of a Husband*, *Jessie's Flirtations*, and *S. S. Philosophy* by Harriot F. Curtis; *Domestic Sketches* by Abby A. Goddard, and *Shells from the Strand of the Sea of Genius* by Harriet Farley.

A. M. Fosdick, Abby A. Goddard, M. R. Green, Lydia S. Hall, Jane B. Hamilton, Harriet Jane Hanson, Eliza Rice Holbrook, Eliza W. Jennings, Hannah Johnson, E. Kidder, Miss Lane, Emeline Larcom, Lucy Larcom, L. E. Leavitt, Harriet Lees, Mary A. Leonard, Sarah E. Martin, Mary J. McAfee, E. D. Perver, E. S. Pope, Nancy R. Rainey, Sarah Shedd, Ellen L. Smith, Ellen M. Smith, Laura Tay, Abby D. Turner, Elizabeth E. Turner, Jane S. Welch, Caroline H. Whitney, A. E. Wilson, and Adeline H. Winship. Many of the writers signed fictitious names, — such as Ella, Adelaide, Dorcas, Aramantha, Stella, Kate, Oriana, Ruth Rover, Ione, and Annaline. Lucy Larcom, M. Bryant, Harriet Farley, Margaret Foley, and Lydia S. Hall were the poets of the magazine. Lucy Larcom published her first poem in the *Offering*, in 1842. It was called *The River*. It is almost superfluous to say that Miss Larcom and Miss Foley long since became celebrated: one as a poet and the other as a sculptor of rare merit.

Miss Larcom has published, in all, ten volumes of prose and verse, and in her poem, *An Idyl of Work*, she tells the story of her life as a Lowell factory girl. Harriot F. Curtis was a prolific writer for newspapers and magazines (notably N. P. Willis' *Home Journal*) under the *nom de plume* of "Mina Myrtle." She was the author of several novels, and published two, — *Kate in Search of a Husband*, and *Jessie's Flirtations*. The last still holds its original place in the advertising list of Harper's Select Library of Novels, and in 1882 was republished. Harriet Farley wrote and published several books. Eliza Jane Cate published eight books of stories and sketches, and was a contributor to Peterson's and other magazines. Among the published writings of Harriet H. Robinson are: *Warrington Pen Portraits*, *Massachusetts in the Woman Suffrage Movement*, and *The New Pandora*, a drama, published in 1889.

But there were representative women among the mill-girls who were not writers for the *Offering*. This was but one phase of their development. Many of them have exerted a wide-spread influence in other directions. They went forth from their *Alma Mater*, the Lowell Factory, carrying with them the independence, the self-reliance taught

in that hard school, and they have done their little part towards performing the useful labor of life. Into whatever vocation they entered they made practical use of the habits of industry and perservance learned during those early years.

Skilled labor teaches something not to be found in books or in colleges. Their early experience developed their characters, and, like good blood, told in them, and helped them to fight well the battle of life.

In order to show how far the influence of individuals belonging to such a class of work-people may extend, it will be well to mention the after-fate of some of the early mill-girls. One became an artist of note, another a poet of more than local fame, a third an inventor, a fourth one of the foremost advocates of woman's rights; a fifth, the founder of a free public library in her native town.* A sixth went to Mexico as wife of a major-general in the army of that republic. It is said that this officer was at one time acting president of the republic, and that his factory-girl wife revelled for a space "in the halls of the Montezumas." A few became teachers, authors, and missionaries. A great many married into the trades and professions. Some went West with their husbands, took up land, and did their part towards settling that vast region. A limited number married those who were afterwards doctors of divinity, major generals, and members of congress. It may be said here that at one time the fame of the *Lowell Offering* caused the mill-girls to be considered very desirable for wives; and young men came from near and far to pick and choose for themselves, and generally with good success.

These women were all self-made in the truest sense, and it is well to mention their success in life, that others, who now earn their living at what is called "ungenteel" employments, may see that what one does is not of so much importance as what one is. I do not know why it should not be just as commendable for a women who has risen to higher employments, to have been once a factory-girl, as it is for an ex-governor and major-general to have been a "bobbin-boy." A woman ought to be as proud of being self-made

* Sarah Shedd, of Washington, N. H.

as a man, — not proud, in a boasting way, but proud enough to assert the fact in her life and in her works.

In this brief sketch of early factory life I have tried to show that it was the means of education to a large class of men and women, who, without the opportunity thus afforded, could not have become developed, and their influence on modern civilization would have been lost. In short, that New England itself, and perhaps the whole country, would not have been what it is to-day, but for the influence of these early cotton mills, managed as they were by an enlightened factory system. Thousands of unknown men and women who once earned their living in this way, have settled in different sections of the country. These old factory girls and old factory boys are to be found everywhere, in all classes and in all vocations, and they ought to be as proud of their dear old *Alma Mater* as the Harvard graduates are of their college.

It is often said that the life described cannot be repeated, and that the modern factory operative is not capable of such development. If this is a fact may there not be a reason for it? The factory of to-day ought to be as much of a school to those who work there as it was to the operative of forty years ago. The class may be different, but the chances of education should correspond to its needs. The same results, perhaps, cannot be reached, because the children of New England ancestry had in them some germs of intellectual life. But is it not also possible that the children of the land of Thomas Moore, of Racine and of Goethe may be something more than mere clods? I do not despair of any class of artisans or operatives. There is among them all some germ of mental vigor, some higher idea of living, waiting for a chance to grow. The same encouragement on the part of employers, the same desire to lift them to a higher level, would soon show of what the present class of operatives is capable.

Last winter, 1881, I was invited to speak to a company of the Lowell mill-girls, and tell them something about my early life as a member of the guild. I was the more willing to do this, as I was desirous of forming some estimate with regard to the status of the successors of the early mill-girls.

About two hundred of them assembled in the pleasant parlors of the People's Club, and listened attentively to my story. When it was over, a few of them gathered around and asked me many questions. In turn I questioned them; about their work; their hours of labor; their wages, and their means of improvement. When I urged them to occupy their spare time in reading and study, they seemed to understand the necessity of it, but answered sadly: "We will try; but we work so hard, we tend so much machinery, and we are so tired." It was plainly to be seen that these operatives did not go to their labor with the jubilant feeling that the old mill-girls used to have, that their work was drudgery, done without aim and purpose, that they took no interest in it beyond the thought that it was the means of earning their daily bread. There was a tired hopelessness about them that I am sure was not often seen among the early mill-girls.

The wages of these operatives are much lower, accordingly, than of old, and though the hours of labor, are less, they are obliged to do a far greater amount of work in a given time. They tend so many looms and frames that they have no time to think. They are always on the jump. They have no time to improve themselves, nor to spend in helping others. They are too weary to read good books, and too overworked to digest what they have read. The souls of these mill-girls seemed starved, and looked from their hungry eyes, as if searching for mental food.

Why are they not fed? The means of education are not wanting. Public libraries are provided, but *good* books remain unopened, and are not read by them. They have more leisure than the mill-girls of forty years ago, but they do not know how to improve it. Their leisure only gives them the more time to be idle in; more time to waste in the streets, or in reading cheap novels and stories. They are almost worse off than if they worked more hours or did not know how to read, since they can use to advantage neither their extra time, nor the means of education provided for them. Let it not be understood that I would take from the operative or the artisan, one of the chances of education.

But I would have them taught how to use wisely those privileges, forced, we might almost say, on them and on their children. I would also have them taught how to inwardly digest what they are made to learn.

The factory population of New England is made up largely of American-born children of foreign parentage. As a rule, they are not under the control of the church of their parents, and they adopt the vices and follies, rather than the good habits of our people. It is vital to the interests of the whole community, that this class should be kept under good moral influences; that it should have the sympathy, the help of employers. This class needs better homes than it finds in too many of our factory towns and cities. It needs a better social atmosphere. It needs to be lifted out of its mental squalor into a higher state of thought and of feeling.

“Labor is worship,” says the poet. Labor is education, is the teaching of the wise political economist.

If factory labor is not a means of education to the operative of to-day, it is because the employer does not do his duty. It is because he treats his work-people like machines, and forgets that they are struggling, hoping, despairing human beings. It is because, as he becomes rich, he cares less and less for the well-being of his poor, and beyond paying them their weekly wages, has no thought of their wants or their needs.

The manufacturing corporation, except in comparatively few instances, no longer represents a protecting care, a parental influence over its operatives. It is too often a soulless organization, and its members forget that they are morally responsible for the souls and bodies, as well as the wages of those whose labor is the source of their wealth. Is it not time that more of these Christian men and women, who gather their riches from the factories of the country, should begin to reflect that they do not discharge their whole duty to the operatives when they see that the monthly wages are paid; and that they are also responsible for their unlovely surroundings, for their barren and hopeless lives, and for the moral and physical destruction of their children?

Would it not be wise for more employers to consider, seriously, whether it is better to degrade this class of people to a level with the same class in foreign countries, or to mix a little conscience with their capital, and so try to bring the "lost Eden" I have tried to describe, back into the life of the factory operative of to-day?

47
REPRINT EDITION.

THE
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[FROM THE FIFTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS
OF LABOR, FOR 1884.]

BY
CARROLL D. WRIGHT,
CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

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THE WORKING GIRLS OF BOSTON.

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The population of the city of Boston, according to the Tenth United States Census, in 1880, was 362,839; of this number 172,368 were males and 190,571 were females. The whole number of persons engaged in that year in all occupations was 149,194, the males numbering 110,313 and the females 38,881; out of this latter number of females employed in all occupations, there were, in round numbers, 20,000 employed in occupations other than domestic service, and these constitute the body of the working girls of Boston.

To ascertain all the conditions surrounding this large and important class has been the desire of the bureau for some years, but other lines of investigation have prevented the special study of this matter until last year, when a very thorough and searching investigation was commenced. The bureau undertook to ascertain the moral, sanitary, physical, and economical conditions of the working girls of Boston. Of course it was not possible to get a complete personal history of every one of the 20,000 involved, nor was it necessary, but if such personal history for 1,000 at least could be obtained accurately, it would scientifically indicate the condition of the whole; and would answer every purpose of the investigation. To this end, discreet agents were employed to secure by personal application at the homes of the working girls the information desired; the names of girls in various employments were obtained during the daytime, lists were prepared and given to the agents, whose duty it was to call in the evening at the places of residence of those designated.

No effort was made to select names, but parties were taken at random in all parts of the city, so that the information gathered should be thoroughly representative.

The working girls themselves who gave information, took a very lively interest in the investigation, and aided the bureau in many ways in securing reliable statements. The mothers of the girls, when seen, were, almost without exception, very generous in their support, and expressed the hope that good might result in some way, to relieve those upon whom hard work and small pay bear so heavily.

The mission of the agents was a delicate and seemingly impossible one as viewed from the outside, but the courteous reception and ladylike treatment given them in their evening calls, changed their expected disagreeable work to pleasant and profitable occupation; of course there were some instances where a mistaken sense of "womanly dignity," especially amongst those in easy circumstances, led such parties to refuse to give answers to the questions, but such an experience was rare, and as the field was sufficiently large, it was no obstacle to the prosecution of the work. The information sought was obtained upon schedules to secure perfect uniformity of classification.

The working girls were almost invariably found at home, in the evening, busy at some household or personal duty, and in the large majority of cases an agent was not obliged to make a second visit to secure answers to his inquiries; in the homes of the girls visited even among the poorest, there were many evidences of orderly and artistic arrangement of the household and one could not help being struck with the refinement of feeling that existed among them. In only a few cases were there indications of a lack of neatness or of anything outside of the poverty of the furnishings for which the persons called upon could be held responsible. The testimony on this point is satisfactory and speaks well for the frugality of the work-a-day population of Boston.

The charitable institutions of the city evinced their interest in the investigation, but the class of persons with whom they come in contact was as a rule outside of that for which the investigation was projected.

The territory covered by the investigation embraced all parts

of the city, the number of persons making complete returns being as follows:—

From the city proper,	589
From South Boston,	160
From East Boston,	81
From Charlestown,	78
From Roxbury,	51
From Dorchester and Washington Village,	54
From Brighton,	19
	<hr/>
Total,	1,032

We secured the personal history of these 1,032 of the whole 20,000 working girls of Boston, a number amply sufficient for the scientific purposes of the investigation; what these personal histories teach, the information to be drawn from them, the conclusions resulting from such information, constitute the points or the bases for the analysis of the tables herewith presented.

One of the chief reasons for undertaking this investigation was, to determine whether the ranks of prostitution are recruited from the manufactory; to ascertain this, a thorough canvass was made of all the houses of ill repute in the city known to the police, and information obtained; the results of this special inquiry will be given at the close of this Part and we shall also discuss further on, after having considered the specific points of information, what new efforts are necessary for the relief of honest girls engaged in or seeking honest employment. It is certainly important that the public should know the exact condition of so large a body of women as that employed in the industries of Boston, and this knowledge becomes more important when we consider that Boston is in reality a large manufacturing centre; the proportion of its people engaged in manufactures as shown by Table I. together with the fact that the city turns out \$150,000,000 worth of goods annually proves the truth of the statement that the city is a manufacturing city, although the statement may be contrary to popular conclusion. In order therefore that the complete composition of the city, so far as its employments are concerned, may be known, we present a table showing such employments, as the first of the series embodied in this Part.

TABLE I. — Occupations and Nativities of the Working Girls of Boston.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIVITIES.
	United States.	Ireland.	Germany.	Great Britain.	Scandinavia.	British America.	Other Countries.	
GOVERNMENT AND PROFESSIONAL,	2,070	80	29	46	3	57	41	2,326
<i>Government (National, State, City, and Town),</i>								
Clerks,	76	9	1	1	—	—	—	90
Employés,	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	15
Officials,	36	6	1	1	—	3	—	47
.	25	3	—	—	—	—	—	28
<i>Clergymen and Church Officers,</i>								
Clergymen,	15	—	—	—	1	1	—	17
Missionaries and Colporteurs,	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
.	11	—	—	—	1	1	—	13
<i>Lawyers,</i>	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	2
Lawyers,	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	2
<i>Physicians and Surgeons,</i>	75	9	3	3	—	3	3	96
Chiropodists,	5	—	—	1	—	—	—	6
Dentists,	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Midwives,	—	1	2	—	—	—	1	4
Physicians,	70	8	1	2	—	2	2	85
<i>Authors and Literary Persons,</i>	169	4	—	—	—	6	1	180
Authors and Lecturers,	14	—	—	—	—	—	1	15
Clerks and copyists (personal services),	110	2	—	—	—	5	—	117
Journalists,	13	1	—	—	—	—	—	14
Librarians,	32	1	—	—	—	1	—	34
<i>Artists,</i>	103	1	—	2	1	6	3	116
Artists,	94	1	—	2	1	3	3	104
Engravers,	4	—	—	—	—	2	—	6
Portrait painters,	4	—	—	—	—	1	—	5
Sculptors,	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
<i>Musicians and Teachers of Music,</i>								
Musicians (professional),	345	10	8	14	1	16	6	400
Music teachers,	60	—	4	1	—	—	1	66
.	285	10	4	13	1	16	5	334
<i>Actors and Showmen,</i>	77	3	—	8	—	2	1	91
Actors,	75	3	—	8	—	2	1	89
Employés and agents of shows,	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
<i>Teachers,</i>	1,204	44	16	18	—	20	27	1,329
Teachers,	1,196	43	16	18	—	20	26	1,319
Teachers of dancing,	1	1	—	—	—	—	1	3
Teachers of drawing and painting,	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	7
<i>Scientific Persons,</i>	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Architects,	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Designers and draughtsmen,	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Shorthand writers,	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL OFFICE,	7,432	8,440	221	950	256	2,620	196	20,115
<i>Boarding and Lodging,</i>	676	760	18	65	5	145	14	1,683
Boarding-house keepers,	206	69	5	22	2	51	7	462
Hotel keepers,	10	1	—	3	—	—	—	14
Hotel and restaurant clerks,	14	—	—	—	—	—	1	15
Hotel and restaurant employés,	538	685	4	40	3	90	6	1,366
Restaurant keepers,	15	1	1	—	—	2	—	19
Saloon keepers,	3	4	8	—	—	2	—	17
<i>Domestic Service,</i>	5,489	6,806	175	801	246	2,289	160	15,966
Domestics,	5,489	6,806	175	801	246	2,289	160	15,966

TABLE I. — Continued.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIV- ITIES.
	United States.	Ire- land.	Ger- many.	Great Britain.	Scandi- navia.	British Amer- ica.	Other Coun- tries.	
<i>Personal Service,</i>	1,067	874	28	84	5	186	22	2,266
Barbers and hairdressers, . . .	86	7	1	3	1	5	3	106
Bar keepers,	4	-	-	-	-	2	-	6
Bath-house keepers and em- ployés,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Bill posters,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Carpet sewers and cleaners, . . .	18	6	1	-	-	1	-	26
Employés of charitable insti- tutions,	50	18	1	1	-	9	-	79
Intelligence-office keepers, . . .	7	3	1	1	-	2	-	14
Janitors,	21	8	-	3	-	3	-	35
Laundresses,	487	782	17	48	2	85	14	1,435
Nurses,	382	50	7	27	2	79	5	552
Stewardesses,	7	-	-	1	-	-	-	8
TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION,	2,541	286	31	85	2	139	83	3,167
<i>Merchants,</i>	203	177	12	19	1	13	54	479
Books and stationery,	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
Boots and shoes,	4	2	-	-	-	-	-	6
Butchers,	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	3
Cabinet ware,	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Cigars and tobacco,	3	-	-	-	-	1	-	4
Clothing,	3	-	1	1	-	-	-	5
Cloths and textile fabrics, . . .	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Confectionery,	1	3	-	1	-	-	1	6
Crockery, china and glassware, .	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
Dry goods,	24	9	-	2	-	1	-	36
Fancy goods and notions,	49	15	1	5	-	2	3	75
Fish and oysters,	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Furs,	1	1	-	-	1	-	1	4
Grocers,	9	48	1	1	-	-	1	60
Hats and caps,	2	-	1	-	-	2	-	5
Hucksters,	14	25	2	2	-	1	20	64
Junk,	1	6	-	-	-	-	-	7
Liquors and wines,	-	3	2	-	-	-	-	5
Newspapers and periodicals, . . .	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	5
Not specified,	42	36	3	3	-	2	1	87
Other, specified,	7	2	-	-	-	-	-	9
Peddlers,	10	12	1	1	-	-	26	50
Provisions,	5	11	-	-	-	1	1	18
Real estate,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Sewing machines,	14	-	-	-	-	2	-	16
<i>Salesmen, Saleswomen, etc.,</i> . . .	397	15	1	14	-	25	3	455
Commercial travellers,	6	2	-	-	-	1	-	9
Salesmen and saleswomen,	391	13	1	14	-	24	3	446
<i>Accountants, Bookkeepers, Clerks, etc.,</i>	1,811	83	18	47	1	97	25	2,077
Bookkeepers in stores,	335	5	-	6	-	13	1	360
Clerks, insurance,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Clerks in manufacturing estab- lishments,	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
Clerks in stores,	1,281	54	11	35	1	72	21	1,475
Manufact'g company officials, Manufacturing establishment employés,	170	21	1	6	-	9	2	209
Packers,	14	3	1	-	-	3	1	22
<i>Agents, Bankers, Brokers, etc.,</i> . .	17	1	1	-	-	-	1	20
Agents,	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Bank officials,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Insurance employés,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Officials of companies,	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	6
Patent-right agents,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Pawnbrokers,	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	2
<i>Messengers and Porters,</i>	99	6	2	3	-	3	-	113
Messengers,	52	4	2	2	-	-	-	60
Newspaper criers and carriers, . .	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	3

TABLE I. — Continued.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIV- ITIES.
	United States.	Ire- land.	Ger- many.	Great Britain.	Scandi- navia.	British Amer- ica.	Other Coun- tries.	
<i>Messengers and Porters — Con.</i>								
Porters,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Telegraph employes,	37	1	-	-	-	1	-	39
Telephone company clerks,	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Telephone company employes,	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
<i>Carriers on Roads,</i>								
Express company employes,	3	1	-	-	-	1	-	5
Teamsters,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
	2	1	-	-	-	1	-	4
<i>Carriers on Steam Railways,</i>								
Railroad clerks,	11	3	-	2	-	-	-	16
Railroad employes,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
	8	3	-	2	-	-	-	13
<i>Carriers on Seas and Rivers,</i>								
Sailors,	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2
	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2
AGRICULTURE,	7	2	-	-	-	11	-	20
<i>Agriculture,</i>								
Dairywomen,	7	1	-	-	-	11	-	19
Farmers,	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Farm laborers,	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	2
Florists,	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
	1	-	-	-	-	10	-	11
<i>Animals, Care of, etc.,</i>								
Livery stable keepers,	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
MANUFACTURES AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES,	9,032	1,452	129	507	44	1,509	190	12,863
<i>Arms and Ammunition,</i>								
Gun and locksmiths,	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Artisans' Tools,</i>								
File makers, cutters, and grinders,	5	-	-	-	-	2	-	7
Tool and cutlery makers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
	3	-	-	-	-	2	-	5
<i>Bakeries,</i>								
Bakers,	52	11	1	5	1	5	-	75
	52	11	1	5	1	5	-	75
<i>Bookbinderies,</i>								
Bookbinders,	270	9	2	8	-	14	2	305
	270	9	2	8	-	14	2	305
<i>Boots and Shoes,</i>								
Shoemakers,	178	25	1	4	-	31	-	239
Shoe and boot factory operatives,	32	12	-	2	-	12	-	58
	146	13	1	2	-	19	-	181
<i>Boxes,</i>								
Box factory operatives,	223	14	-	3	-	3	1	244
	223	14	-	3	-	3	1	244
<i>Brooms and Brushes,</i>								
Broom and brush makers,	51	3	-	1	-	1	1	57
	51	3	-	1	-	1	1	57
<i>Building,</i>								
Carpenters,	8	9	2	1	-	11	-	31
Door, sash and blind makers,	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	6
Masons,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Painters,	-	5	2	-	-	6	-	13
Paper hangers,	4	1	-	1	-	2	-	8
Plumbers and gas-fitters,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Carriages and Wagons,</i>								
Carriage makers,	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
<i>Carpetings,</i>								
Carpet makers,	234	40	-	29	5	12	-	320
Oil-cloth makers,	281	40	-	20	5	12	-	317
	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3

TABLE I. — Continued.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIVITIES.
	United States.	Ireland.	Germany.	Great Britain.	Scandinavia.	British America.	Other Countries.	
<i>Clocks and Watches,</i>	16	1	1	1	-	2	-	21
Watch and clock makers and repairers,	16	1	1	1	-	2	-	21
<i>Clothing,</i>	6,648	1,182	98	371	32	1,308	159	9,778
Artificial flower makers,	30	-	-	1	-	2	3	36
Dress makers,	3,811	588	81	224	19	758	50	5,611
Glove makers,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Hat and cap makers,	45	1	2	1	-	4	-	53
Hoopskirt makers,	77	5	-	5	-	1	1	89
Lace makers,	23	3	-	3	-	1	-	30
Milliners,	592	42	3	22	-	52	5	716
Sewing machine operators,	152	12	2	1	-	13	-	180
Shirt, collar and cuff makers,	80	11	-	-	-	9	-	100
Suspender makers,	33	2	-	2	-	3	3	43
Tailoresses,	1,798	498	30	112	13	465	97	3,013
Umbrella and parasol makers,	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
<i>Cooking and Heating Apparatus,</i>	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Chandelier, lamp and lantern makers,	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
<i>Cotton Goods,</i>	168	30	1	15	-	16	1	229
Cotton mill operatives,	22	10	-	3	-	1	1	37
Mill and factory operatives,	123	18	1	5	-	14	-	161
Thread makers,	9	-	-	1	-	1	-	11
Weavers,	12	2	-	6	-	-	-	20
<i>Cotton and Woollen Goods,</i>	21	3	-	2	-	1	-	27
Knitting and hosiery mill operatives,	21	3	-	2	-	1	-	27
<i>Flax, Hemp, and Jute Goods,</i>	42	10	-	8	-	-	5	65
Rope and cordage makers,	42	10	-	8	-	-	5	65
<i>Food Preparations,</i>	117	33	1	3	1	8	2	193
Confectioners,	48	15	1	2	1	1	-	68
Coffee and spice mill operatives,	35	-	-	1	-	3	-	39
Meat and fruit preserving establishments employées,	32	17	-	-	-	2	2	53
Millers,	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	3
<i>Furniture,</i>	44	7	3	2	1	5	1	63
Cabinet makers,	5	2	1	1	-	-	1	10
Chair caners,	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
Upholsterers,	38	4	2	1	1	5	-	51
<i>Glass,</i>	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Glass works operatives,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
<i>Leather,</i>	7	3	4	3	-	1	-	18
Harness makers,	4	3	-	2	-	1	-	10
Leather pocket-book makers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Morocco dressers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Tanners and curriers,	1	-	4	1	-	-	-	6
<i>Liquors and Beverages,</i>	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Bottlers,	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
<i>Machines and Machinery,</i>	3	1	-	-	-	3	-	7
Machinists,	3	1	-	-	-	3	-	7
<i>Metals and Metallic Goods,</i>	127	18	1	13	1	18	4	182
Blacksmiths,	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	4
Brass founders and workers,	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	6
Brushmakers and polishers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Gilders,	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	3
Gold and silver workers,	24	-	-	-	-	2	3	29
Iron and steel works operatives,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Iron foundry operatives,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Jewellers (so specified),	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Lead works employées,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3

TABLE I. — Continued.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIV- ITIES.
	United States.	Ire- land.	Ger- many.	Great Britain.	Scandi- navia.	British Ameri- ca.	Other Coun- tries.	
<i>Metals and Metallic Goods—Con.</i>								
Nail makers,	54	5	1	4	1	1	-	66
Tinners,	16	4	-	8	-	14	-	42
Type foundera and cutters,	14	3	-	-	-	-	-	17
Wire makers and workers,	3	1	-	1	-	1	-	6
<i>Musical Instruments,</i>	10	-	-	-	-	2	-	12
Organ makers,	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	3
Pianoforte makers,	8	-	-	-	-	1	-	9
<i>Paper,</i>	41	13	-	2	-	4	-	60
Card and fancy paper makers,	12	-	-	1	-	-	-	13
Paper mill operatives,	24	8	-	-	-	4	-	36
Rag pickers,	5	5	-	1	-	-	-	11
<i>Printing,</i>	221	13	1	12	1	7	-	255
Lithographers,	16	-	-	2	1	-	-	19
Printers,	204	13	1	10	-	7	-	235
Stereotypers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Print Works,</i>	18	1	-	-	-	1	-	20
Print works operatives,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Dyers, bleachers, and scourers,	16	1	-	-	-	1	-	18
<i>Publishing,</i>	20	-	-	1	-	5	-	26
Publishing house employes,	20	-	-	1	-	5	-	26
<i>Rubber,</i>	82	12	-	4	2	11	-	111
Rubber factory operatives,	82	12	-	4	2	11	-	111
<i>Scientific Instruments and Ap- pliances,</i>	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	3
Surgical instrument makers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Truss makers,	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2
<i>Silk,</i>	62	8	2	4	-	2	2	80
Silk mill operatives,	62	8	2	4	-	2	2	80
<i>Stone,</i>	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	2
Marble and stone-cutters,	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	2
<i>Tobacco,</i>	47	4	2	2	-	2	1	58
Cigar makers,	40	-	2	2	-	2	1	47
Tobacco factory operatives,	7	4	-	-	-	-	-	11
<i>Vessels,</i>	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Sail and awning makers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
<i>Wooden Goods,</i>	8	-	1	1	-	2	3	15
Coopers,	-	-	-	1	-	2	1	4
Basket makers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Mirror and picture frame makers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	3
Pattern makers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Wood turners and carvers,	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	4
<i>Miscellaneous Manufactures,</i>	259	20	7	10	-	33	8	377
Bone and Ivory workers,	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Button factory operatives,	37	7	-	1	-	3	1	49
Candle, soap, and tallow- makers,	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Chemical works employes,	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	3
Cork makers,	5	-	-	2	-	4	-	11
Feather renovators,	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Fireworks makers,	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Fur workers,	19	-	-	-	-	2	-	21
Galloon, gimp, and tassel makers,	25	-	3	-	-	4	-	32
Human hair workers,	21	1	1	2	-	7	-	32
Loft makers,	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
Kniters, embroiderers, and worsted workers,	33	7	-	-	-	2	2	44

TABLE I. — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.							ALL NATIV- ITIES.
	United States.	Ire- land.	Ger- many.	Great Britain.	Scandi- navia.	British Amer- ica.	Other Coun- tries.	
<i>Miscellaneous Manufactures—Coo.</i>								
Lapidaries,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Match makers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Mattress makers,	17	1	-	1	-	4	-	23
Patent medicine makers,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Perfumers,	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Photographers,	18	1	-	-	-	2	-	21
Potters,	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Straw workers,	38	-	-	1	-	3	-	42
Trunk and valise makers,	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
Wax workers,	3	1	-	-	-	-	1	5
Window shade makers,	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Woollen mill operatives,	40	2	2	2	-	2	4	52
APPRENTICES, LABORERS, AND INDEFINITE.	190	142	6	7	1	38	6	390
<i>Apprentices,</i>	50	5	1	1	-	1	2	60
Apprentices,	46	5	1	1	-	1	2	56
Apprentices (learned profes- sions),	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
<i>Laborers,</i>	116	129	5	6	1	35	3	295
Laborers,	45	89	2	4	1	22	1	164
Laborers in stores and ware- houses,	71	40	3	2	-	13	2	131
<i>Indefinite,</i>	24	8	-	-	-	2	1	35
Bag makers,	7	2	-	-	-	-	-	9
Egoists,	1	3	-	-	-	1	-	5
Manufacturers,	16	3	-	-	-	1	1	21

TABLE I. — OCCUPATIONS OF BOSTON.

	OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES AND SEX.								
		United States.			Ireland.			Germany.		
		M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
1	<i>Government and Professional,</i>	6,038	2,070	8,108	445	80	525	237	29	266
2	<i>Government (National, State,</i>									
3	<i>City, and Town),</i>	1,805	76	1,881	204	9	213	18	1	19
4	<i>Army,</i>	187	-	187	49	-	49	14	-	14
5	<i>Navy,</i>	32	-	32	6	-	6	-	-	-
6	<i>Clergymen and church officers,</i>	336	15	351	49	-	49	23	-	23
7	<i>Lawyers,</i>	603	1	604	18	-	18	5	1	6
8	<i>Physicians and surgeons,</i>	854	75	929	25	9	34	20	3	23
9	<i>Authors and literary persons,</i>	774	169	943	45	4	49	5	-	5
10	<i>Artists,</i>	327	103	430	15	1	18	35	-	35
11	<i>Musicians and teachers of music,</i>	353	345	698	12	10	22	82	8	90
12	<i>Actors and showmen,</i>	188	77	265	8	3	9	4	-	4
13	<i>Teachers,</i>	230	1,204	1,434	10	44	54	17	18	33
14	<i>Scientific persons,</i>	369	5	374	6	-	6	14	-	14
15	<i>Domestic and Personal Office,</i>	4,090	7,432	11,522	1,172	8,440	9,612	371	221	692
16	<i>Boarding and lodging,</i>	1,831	876	2,707	412	760	1,172	195	18	213
17	<i>Domestic service,</i>	553	5,489	6,042	388	8,808	7,172	19	175	194
18	<i>Personal service,</i>	1,706	1,067	2,773	394	874	1,268	157	28	185
19	<i>Trade and Transportation,</i>	28,855	2,541	31,396	4,487	288	4,765	748	31	779
20	<i>Merchants,</i>	7,339	203	7,542	1,889	177	1,868	429	12	441
21	<i>Salemen, saleswomen, etc.,</i>	1,464	397	1,861	87	15	102	28	1	29
22	<i>Accountants, bookkeepers,</i>									
23	<i>clerks, etc.,</i>	9,944	1,811	11,755	532	83	615	130	13	143
24	<i>Agents, bankers, brokers, etc.,</i>	1,554	17	1,571	53	1	54	36	1	37
25	<i>Messengers and porters,</i>	1,582	99	1,681	324	6	330	18	2	20
26	<i>Carriers on roads,</i>	4,572	3	4,575	1,293	1	1,294	42	-	42
27	<i>Carriers on steam railways,</i>	1,570	11	1,581	206	3	209	9	-	9
28	<i>Carriers on seas and rivers,</i>	830	-	830	283	-	283	56	2	58
29	<i>Agriculture,</i>	1,022	7	1,029	844	2	846	40	-	40
30	<i>Agriculture,</i>	479	7	486	350	1	351	33	-	33
31	<i>Animals, care of, etc.,</i>	543	-	543	494	1	496	7	-	7
32	<i>Fisheries,</i>	61	-	61	277	-	277	3	-	3
33	<i>Fisheries,</i>	61	-	61	277	-	277	3	-	3
34	<i>Manufactures and Mechanical</i>									
35	<i>Industries,</i>	19,819	9,032	28,851	6,680	1,452	8,132	1,820	129	1,949
36	<i>Agricultural implements,</i>	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	<i>Arms and ammunition,</i>	76	-	78	12	-	12	18	1	19
38	<i>Artisans' tools,</i>	62	5	67	7	-	7	10	-	10
39	<i>Bakeries,</i>	338	52	390	135	11	146	180	1	161
40	<i>Bookbinderies,</i>	220	270	490	29	9	38	13	2	15
41	<i>Boots and shoes,</i>	561	178	739	413	25	438	19	1	20
42	<i>Boxes,</i>	88	223	311	5	14	19	5	-	5
43	<i>Brooms and brushes,</i>	98	51	149	12	3	15	5	-	5
44	<i>Building,</i>	5,887	8	5,895	1,815	9	1,824	133	2	135
45	<i>Carriages and wagons,</i>	204	-	204	88	2	68	17	-	17
46	<i>Carpetings,</i>	90	234	324	34	40	74	4	-	4
47	<i>Clocks and watches,</i>	151	16	167	9	1	10	18	1	19
48	<i>Clothing,</i>	807	8,648	7,455	762	1,182	1,924	231	98	329
49	<i>Cooking and heating apparatus,</i>	8	-	8	3	-	3	2	-	2
50	<i>Cotton goods,</i>	170	188	336	25	30	65	5	1	8
51	<i>Cotton and woollen goods,</i>	1	21	22	1	3	4	-	-	-
52	<i>Flax, hemp and jute goods,</i>	140	42	182	68	10	68	20	-	20
53	<i>Food preparations,</i>	316	117	432	75	33	108	102	1	103
54	<i>Furniture,</i>	1,200	44	1,244	189	7	196	184	3	187
55	<i>Glass,</i>	2	2	72	21	-	21	2	-	2
56	<i>Hair,</i>	70	-	70	-	-	-	1	-	1
57	<i>Leather,</i>	478	7	485	381	3	384	63	4	67
58	<i>Linen,</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
59	<i>Liquors and beverages,</i>	114	6	119	73	-	73	118	-	118
60	<i>Lumber,</i>	108	-	108	25	-	25	1	-	1
61	<i>Machines and machinery,</i>	1,648	3	1,651	343	1	344	73	-	73
62	<i>Metals and metallic goods,</i>	2,824	127	2,461	1,025	18	1,043	191	1	192

RECAPITULATION. — *United States Census, 1880.*

NATIVITIES AND SEX.

Great Britain.			Scandinavia.			British America.			Other Countries.			All Nativities.			
M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	
247	46	293	25	3	28	248	57	305	172	41	213	7,412	2,328	9,738	1
29	1	30	-	-	-	58	3	61	14	-	14	2,128	90	2,218	2
5	-	5	1	-	1	8	-	8	3	-	3	247	-	247	3
2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	1	-	1	43	-	43	4
17	-	17	3	1	4	15	1	16	17	-	17	480	17	477	5
8	-	8	1	-	1	7	-	7	4	-	4	646	2	648	6
32	3	35	1	-	1	45	3	48	12	3	15	989	96	1,085	7
29	-	29	5	-	5	19	6	25	11	1	12	888	180	1,068	8
36	2	38	7	1	8	25	6	31	19	3	22	464	116	580	9
32	14	46	-	-	-	16	16	32	50	6	56	545	400	945	10
10	8	18	-	-	-	17	2	19	2	1	3	227	91	318	11
12	18	30	-	-	-	13	20	33	31	27	58	313	1,329	1,842	12
35	-	35	7	-	7	23	-	23	8	-	8	462	5	467	13
328	950	1,278	57	258	313	339	2,620	2,959	396	196	592	8,753	20,115	26,868	14
115	65	180	27	5	32	159	145	304	89	14	103	2,323	1,833	4,711	15
111	801	912	12	246	258	69	2,289	2,358	80	160	220	1,190	15,966	17,156	16
102	84	186	18	5	23	111	186	297	247	22	269	2,735	2,288	5,001	17
1,802	85	1,887	163	2	165	1,761	139	1,900	747	83	830	38,043	3,187	41,210	18
390	19	409	31	1	32	350	13	363	398	54	452	10,828	479	11,105	19
66	14	80	2	-	2	77	25	102	18	3	21	1,742	455	2,197	20
371	47	418	12	1	13	513	97	610	105	25	130	11,807	2,077	13,684	21
54	-	54	2	-	2	38	-	38	29	1	30	1,766	20	1,786	22
73	3	76	5	-	5	105	3	108	29	-	29	2,136	113	2,249	23
167	-	167	6	-	6	379	1	380	24	-	24	6,483	5	6,488	24
57	2	59	5	-	5	93	-	93	3	-	3	1,943	18	1,959	25
124	-	124	100	-	100	206	-	206	141	-	141	1,740	2	1,742	26
86	-	86	9	-	9	107	11	118	26	-	26	2,134	20	2,154	27
52	-	52	4	-	4	43	11	54	21	-	21	982	19	1,001	28
34	-	34	5	-	5	64	-	64	5	-	5	1,152	1	1,153	29
2	-	2	1	-	1	11	-	11	17	-	17	372	-	372	30
2	-	2	1	-	1	11	-	11	17	-	17	372	-	372	31
2,449	507	2,956	429	44	473	3,580	1,509	5,089	951	190	1,141	35,728	12,863	48,591	32
19	-	19	2	-	2	4	-	4	2	-	2	133	1	134	33
19	-	19	-	-	-	4	2	6	11	-	11	113	7	120	35
96	5	101	1	1	2	52	5	57	38	-	38	820	75	895	36
18	8	26	4	-	4	9	14	23	1	2	3	294	305	599	37
80	4	84	20	-	20	147	31	178	38	-	38	1,278	239	1,517	38
4	3	7	2	-	2	3	3	6	-	1	1	107	244	351	39
11	1	12	3	-	3	7	1	8	4	1	5	140	57	197	40
637	1	638	77	-	77	1,401	11	1,412	182	-	182	9,962	31	9,993	41
22	-	22	7	-	7	91	-	91	4	-	4	411	2	413	42
35	29	64	2	5	7	6	12	18	2	-	2	173	320	493	43
20	1	21	5	-	5	12	2	14	24	-	24	239	21	260	44
157	371	528	33	32	65	124	1,308	1,432	153	159	312	2,267	9,778	12,045	45
3	1	4	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	17	-	18	46
17	15	32	1	-	1	5	18	21	7	1	8	230	229	459	47
-	2	2	-	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	-	3	27	30	48
24	8	32	-	-	-	12	-	12	19	5	24	273	65	338	49
16	3	19	1	1	2	29	6	35	22	2	24	560	163	723	50
132	2	134	67	1	68	184	5	189	84	1	85	2,040	63	2,103	51
15	-	15	-	-	-	6	-	6	3	-	3	117	2	119	52
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3	53
53	3	56	5	-	5	101	1	102	27	-	27	1,108	18	1,126	54
1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	55
16	-	16	2	-	2	6	-	6	11	-	11	338	5	343	58
2	-	2	2	-	2	14	-	14	2	-	2	152	-	152	57
235	-	235	36	-	36	156	3	159	29	-	29	2,520	7	2,527	58
319	13	332	56	1	57	431	18	449	83	4	87	4,429	182	4,611	59

TABLE I. — OCCUPATIONS OF BOSTON.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES AND SEX.								
	United States.			Ireland.			Germany.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
<i>Manufactures, etc. — Con.</i>									
60 Musical instruments,	545	10	555	56	—	56	39	—	39
61 Oils and illuminating fluids,	39	—	39	14	—	14	—	—	—
62 Paper,	80	41	121	40	13	53	4	—	4
63 Printing,	1,631	221	1,852	190	13	203	58	1	59
64 Print works,	65	18	83	3	1	4	10	—	10
65 Publishing,	103	20	123	3	—	3	—	—	—
66 Railroad construction,	63	—	63	7	—	7	1	—	1
67 Rubber,	59	82	141	22	12	34	16	—	16
Scientific instruments and ap- 68 pliances,	24	2	26	4	—	4	10	—	10
69 Silk,	13	62	75	1	8	9	4	2	6
70 Stone,	320	1	321	351	—	351	11	—	11
71 Tobacco,	153	47	200	22	4	26	85	2	87
72 Vessels,	579	2	581	64	—	64	17	—	17
73 Wooden goods,	624	8	632	181	—	181	82	1	83
74 Miscellaneous manufactures,	561	299	860	204	20	224	40	7	47
<i>Apprentices, Laborers, and In- 75 definite</i>	7,087	190	7,277	10,458	142	10,600	356	6	362
76 Apprentices,	772	50	822	80	6	86	9	1	10
77 Laborers,	4,636	116	4,752	10,192	129	10,321	291	5	296
78 Indefinite,	1,679	24	1,703	236	8	244	56	—	56
RECAPITULATION BY CLASSES.									
79 Government and professional,	6,038	2,070	8,108	445	80	525	237	29	266
80 Domestic and personal office,	4,090	7,432	11,522	1,172	8,440	9,612	371	221	592
81 Trade and transportation,	28,855	2,541	31,396	4,467	286	4,753	748	31	779
82 Agriculture,	1,022	7	1,029	844	2	848	40	—	40
83 Fisheries,	61	—	61	277	—	277	3	—	3
84 Manufactures and mechanical industries,	19,819	9,032	28,851	6,680	1,452	8,132	1,820	129	1,949
85 Apprentices, laborers, and in- definite,	7,087	190	7,277	10,458	142	10,600	358	6	362
86 Totals,	66,972	21,272	88,244	24,343	10,402	34,746	3,676	416	3,991

RECAPITULATION. — *United States Census, 1880* — Concluded.

NATIVITIES AND SEX.															
Great Britain.			Scandinavia.			British America.			Other Countries.			All Nativities.			
M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	
26	-	26	23	-	23	73	2	75	17	-	17	779	12	791	60
3	-	3	2	-	2	3	-	3	1	-	1	62	-	62	61
11	2	13	-	-	-	12	4	16	5	-	5	152	60	212	62
126	12	138	17	1	18	182	7	189	26	-	26	2,230	225	2,485	68
6	-	6	-	-	-	2	1	3	4	-	4	90	20	110	64
1	1	2	-	-	-	2	5	7	-	-	-	109	26	135	65
1	-	1	9	-	9	6	-	6	3	-	3	90	-	90	66
6	4	10	-	2	2	7	11	18	1	-	1	111	111	222	67
2	1	3	-	-	-	3	-	3	2	-	2	45	3	48	68
3	4	7	-	-	-	3	2	5	1	2	3	25	80	105	69
59	-	59	4	-	4	52	1	53	31	-	31	828	2	830	70
42	2	44	7	-	7	16	2	18	51	1	52	376	58	434	71
66	-	66	21	-	21	192	-	192	28	-	28	967	2	969	72
74	1	75	11	-	11	152	2	154	31	3	34	1,155	15	1,170	73
72	10	82	9	-	9	69	33	102	24	8	32	979	377	1,356	74
640	7	647	131	1	132	817	38	855	382	6	388	19,371	390	20,261	75
30	1	31	5	-	5	47	1	48	6	2	8	899	60	959	76
465	6	471	94	1	95	668	35	703	342	3	345	16,688	295	16,983	77
145	-	145	32	-	32	102	2	104	34	1	35	2,284	35	2,319	78
247	46	293	25	3	28	248	57	305	172	41	213	7,412	2,326	9,738	79
328	950	1,278	57	256	313	339	2,620	2,959	396	196	592	6,753	20,115	26,868	80
1,302	85	1,387	163	2	165	1,761	139	1,900	747	83	830	38,042	3,167	41,210	81
86	-	86	9	-	9	107	11	118	26	-	26	2,134	20	2,154	82
2	-	2	1	-	1	11	-	11	17	-	17	372	-	372	83
2,449	507	2,956	429	44	473	3,580	1,509	5,089	951	190	1,141	35,728	12,863	48,591	84
640	7	647	131	1	132	817	38	855	382	6	388	19,371	390	20,261	85
5,054	1,595	6,649	815	306	1,121	6,863	4,374	11,237	2,691	516	3,207	110,313	38,881	149,194	86

With the complete information as to all the occupations of the working people of Boston as shown in the preceding recapitulation, it is of interest to know to what extent, or to what occupations the investigation under consideration extended. This information is contained in Table II., which follows, giving the general subdivisions and employments according to the Census classifications, and the number of parties giving information according to the principal minor subdivisions under the general classification.

TABLE II. — *Occupations of Working Girls in Boston.*

[Comprehending the 1,032 included in the investigation.]

OCCUPATIONS.	NUMBER.	
	Detail.	Aggregates.
PERSONAL SERVICE.	—	83
Carpet sewers,	12	—
Copyists,	3	—
Dye house employés,	6	—
Laundry employés,	8	—
Matrons and nurses,	7	—
Restaurant employés,	18	—
Sewing machine teachers,	3	—
Telegraph operators,	3	—
Other personal service,	23	—
TRADE.	—	123
Bookkeepers,	11	—
Clerks,	15	—
Cashiers,	5	—
Cash dial tenders,	7	—
Errand girls,	5	—
Writers,	3	—
Saleswomen,	77	—
MANUFACTURES.	—	826
Bookbinderies,	29	—
Boots and shoes,	26	—
Brooms and brushes,	9	—
Buttons and dress trimmings,	17	—
Carpetings,	17	—
Clocks and watches,	7	—
Clothing, men's,—		
Tailoresses,	72	—
Coats,	87	—
Pantaloons,	26	—
Vests,	9	—
Hats and caps,	11	—
Neckties and furnishing goods,	7	—
Oiled clothing,	3	—
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	5	—
Shirts,	27	—
Suspenders,	10	—
Clothing, women's,—		
Dressmakers: in business for themselves,	38	—
Dressmakers: at work for others,	62	—
Milliners,	15	—
Seamstresses,	36	—
Bonnets and hats,	7	—
Cloaks, sacks, and suits,	26	—
Corsets,	7	—
Hoopskirts and bustles,	8	—

TABLE II. — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	NUMBER.	
	Detail.	Aggregates.
MANUFACTURES — Concluded.		
Cotton, woollen, and worsted goods,	12	—
Drugs and medicines,	5	—
Food preparations,	33	—
Furniture,	18	—
Hair,	4	—
Leather,	3	—
Metals and metallic goods,	15	—
Musical instruments and strings,	3	—
Nets, seines, etc.,	4	—
Paper,	14	—
Paper boxes,	32	—
Photographs,	3	—
Polishes and dressings,	4	—
Printing and publishing,	28	—
Rubber and elastic goods,	55	—
Scientific instruments and appliances,	7	—
Silk,	3	—
Straw goods,	11	—
Tobacco,	11	—

Notwithstanding the foregoing table indicates the chief subdivisions of employments, yet in order to show how far the subdivision of employments was carried, a fine classification has been made of the various subdivisions of labor from which information was collected, as follows:—

PERSONAL SERVICE.

Artist's model; awning sewers; ballet girl; carpet sewers; carpet sewer and upholsteress; carpet and window shade sewer; copyists; cotton sorter; curled hair carder; dye-house employes: glove cleanser, glove dyers, and presser in dye house; feather sorter; hair dressers; ink bottler and labeller; lamp-top cementer; laundry work: laundresses, ironers, shirt ironer, and shirt polisher; librarian's assistant; match bunchers; matrons; assistant matron; nurses; pasting directions on curtain fixtures; picture frame gilder; preserving natural flowers; rag cutters; restaurant employes: cook, assistant cooks, assistant pastry cook, pantry girl, and table girls; sewing machine fitters; sewing machine teachers; starch maker; telegraph operators; and telephone operator.

TRADE.

Bookkeepers: in auction store, bookbindery, book publishing office, charitable institution, dry goods stores, grocery store, jewelry store, nail factory, patent medicine establishment, and provision store.

Clerks: in clothing house, confectionery store, dry goods stores, dry and fancy goods store, fancy goods store, lace store, mercantile agency, photograph rooms, and tea store.

Cashiers: in physician's office, provision store, and restaurants.

Cash dial tenders: in dry goods stores.

Errand girls: in dry goods stores, straw factory, and trimmings store.

Writers: in dry goods store, and publishing houses.

Saleswomen: artificial flowers, in bakeries, buttons, cloaks, cloaks and suits, clothing, confectionery, corsets, dry goods, fancy goods, glassware, gloves, handkerchiefs, hosiery, jewelry, laces, millinery, periodicals, pocket books, small wares, stationery, suits, thread and trimmings, and women's underwear.

MANUFACTURES.

Bookbinderies.—Bookbinders, folders, gatherers, and sewers; forewoman; gold leaf layers; indexers; and ruling machine feeder.

Boots and Shoes.—Boot and shoe sewer; carpet slipper maker; corder on slippers; drafter of shoe patterns; heel cutter, and makers; inner sole makers; lining pasters; machine stitchers and sewers; shoe counter paster; shoe stitcher; shoe and slipper maker; and sole and heel paster.

Brooms and Brushes.—Brush makers, nailer, and setters; and feather duster maker.

Buttons and Dress Trimmings.—Buttons: makers, packer, polisher, separator of button covers, and ticket writer; dress trimmings: embroiderer, embroidery stamper, fringe maker, lace cutter, and plaiters.

Carpetings.—Color setters; filler; filler's assistant; printer; stair pad maker; weavers; winder; and winder's helper.

Clocks and Watches.—Watch case polishers; watch jewel examiner, and maker; watch parts cleaner and polisher, and maker.

Clothing, Men's.—Tailoresses: baster, bushelwomen, button-hole finisher, button-hole makers, examiner, forewoman, general shop girl, pocket maker and finisher, press girls, sewing machine operators, tailoresses, and trimmer; coats: bushelwomen, coat basters, finishers, makers, and pressers, coat collar maker, custom button-hole maker, machine stitchers, press girls, and sewing machine operators; pantaloons: pantaloons finisher, makers, and stitcher; vests: sewing machine operator, vest makers, and sewer; hats and caps: cap makers, hat binder, and trimmers, and plush sewers; neckties and furnishing goods: machine operators, and necktie makers; oiled clothing: machine operators; overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts: colored shirt and overalls maker, overalls maker, overalls and jumper maker, and sewing machine operators; shirts: button-hole maker, sewing machine operators, shirt-bosom folder, shirt finishers, and makers; suspenders: forewoman, machine buckle cutter, machine stitchers, suspender makers, and packers.

Clothing, Women's.—Dressmakers: in business for themselves, or at work for others, dress and cloak maker, button-hole makers, cutter, and tailoress on women's garments; milliners; seamstresses: buttons, collars and cuffs, costumes, dress goods, women's, and infants' underwear, in private families, fur sewer, glove sewer, gunny bag sewer, machine sewer on carriage curtains, sewing machine operator on skirts, and women's under-

wear; bonnets and hats: bonnet-frame makers, lace worker on bonnet frames, and pompon maker; cloaks, sacks, and suits: cloakmakers, cloak and suit maker, cloak presser, Jersey sack maker, machine operators on cloaks, and sack maker; corset makers; hoopskirts and bustles: bustle makers, hoopskirt crammer, and makers.

Cotton, Woollen, and Worsted Goods.—Blanket maker; mittens: bobbin winder, machine operator, and finisher; seamstress on cardigan jackets; sewing machine operators on quilts; and worsted workers.

Drugs and Medicines.—Bottler of patent medicines; court plaster maker; packers of troches; and porous plaster maker.

Food Preparations.—Chocolate worker; confectionery makers, and packers; gum drop makers; lozenge cutter, and makers; fish canner, cleaners, and packer; meat weigher; bottlers of pickles; bottle labellers of pickles and preserves; cracker baker; coffee sorter; salt packer; spice packer; and yeast cake coverer.

Furniture.—Mattresses: forewoman in feather room, machine button-hole maker, mattress makers, sewer, and stitcher and finisher, and sewing machine operators; pillows: feather pillow maker, and pillow maker; upholstery and drapery: drapery curtain maker, drapery sewers, sewing machine operator, and upholstery sewer.

Hair.—Hair workers; and wig maker.

Leather.—Belt maker; belt and shawl strap maker; and collar and belt maker.

Metals and Metallic Goods.—Britannia worker; gold bookers; jewelry polishers, and solderer; nail pointer; type foundry employes: breakers, rubber, and setters.

Musical Instruments and Strings.—Musical string winder; and piano-forte bushers.

Nets, Seines, etc.—Bobbin winders; machine net stretcher; and twine netter.

Paper.—Fancy card cutters, fringer, and packers and sorters; forewoman in fancy card stock room; paper bag makers; and paper block maker.

Paper Boxes.—Paper box makers.

Photographs.—Photograph colorer, finisher, and printer.

Polishes and Dressings.—Blacking packer and labeller, bottler, and sponge attacher; and forewoman in blacking factory.

Printing and Publishing.—Printing: compositors, paper rulers, press feeders, and proof readers; publishing: book folder, paster and coverer (lithograph), card cutter and book folder (lithograph), and paper folders.

Rubber and Elastic Goods.—Gossamer rubber clothing: bobbin winder, button-hole maker, button sewer, examiner, folder, and sewing machine operators; rubber hat makers; elastic fabric weavers, and webbing weaver.

Scientific Instruments and Appliances.—Electrical machine makers; and truss maker.

Silk.—Forewoman in stock room; spooler; and warper.

Straw Goods.—Machine operators; and straw bleachery employes.

Tobacco.—Cigar makers; spout filer; tobacco strippers; and tobacco stripper and booker.

Having thus given the general occupations of the working people of Boston and specifically of the working women, and also the occupations of those reached by the investigation, we now present in detail the specific points of information gained and for convenience of classification we do this under six general topics or chapters: —

- I. Social Condition.
- II. Occupations, Places in which Employed.
- III. Hours of Labor, Time Lost, etc.
- IV. Physical and Sanitary Condition.
- V. Economic Condition.
- VI. Moral Condition.

In presenting information under these general chapter heads, we have sought, as far as possible, to bring everything to the tabular form, as this method enables us to present a larger grouping of facts in less space and with more clearness than in any other way.

I. SOCIAL CONDITION.

RESIDENCE.

The following table shows the residence, so far as the home is concerned, of the girls from whom information was sought.

Residence.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal Service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	Aggregates.
At home,	11	1	19	31
At home with husband,	2	—	16	18
At home with parents,	32	87	475	594
At home with relatives,	7	4	54	65
At home with friends,	1	—	—	1
Boarding house,	7	17	92	116
Lodging house,	18	7	130	155
Private family,	5	7	40	52
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

From this table it is seen that out of the whole 1,032 involved, 594 were living with their parents and only 155 sought

shelter in lodging houses ; these latter as will be seen later on took their meals in other places, at restaurants and so forth ; the fact that so many live with their parents is one which enters largely into the moral condition of the working girls. The families of those living at home were variously constituted, some of them reporting themselves as one of five, six, seven, eight, and even nine children ; in one case the girl, a brother, sister and her father working for the support of a family of eight, in another case the girl herself and one of eight children working for the whole support ; but the composition of the family in all these cases was complete ; it was either the girl and mother, or several sisters and brothers, or the girl and the father, in all these 594 cases. The idea of the family is still further noticed in connection with those returned as living " at home with relatives ; " this occurred where from one cause or another, by death or otherwise, a separate living became necessary ; in some instances we found brothers and sisters living together, working and bearing alike the expenses of the household, or one sister often attending to the household duties while the others were working for the means of support, in other cases all working in shops and doing the housework and sewing nights and mornings ; others away from home have sought shelter with a married sister, aunt, or other relative, while even at a boarding house we find girls and relatives lodging and boarding together, and amongst those boarding the girls generally spoke well of their landladies as evincing a motherly interest in the welfare of the homes and those living with them. The surroundings of these girls in their homes were as varied as the methods of living ; the surroundings of 348 were what would come under the general classification of good, ranging from good, very good, comfortable and so forth up to excellent ; under the general designation of fair, running from moderately good, fairly good to very neat, there were 135, while only 129 had home surroundings which could be classified generally as poor, meaning unpleasant and poor but not very poor, and very poor ; of the remaining 420 it is very safe to say that there was nothing but of the common conditions of home life, and they should probably be classed as having good surroundings. The evidences of hardship or extreme economy which in some instances were reported, would of

course, taken by themselves, seem to indicate to some extent a bad state of affairs, but often while they show the evils of poor pay and the necessarily poor methods of living resulting therefrom, it does not detract from the good results of the investigation, but brings out more clearly the necessary contributive aid furnished by the parents, relatives, and friends of the working girls if they would have them live in ordinary comfort.

The fact will be apparent when the economic condition of the working girls is considered (chapt. V. *post*), that by living at home the girls in our shops and stores are able to live on meagre wages. In other words, parents and friends must make up for short wages.

Under physical and sanitary condition, we shall have occasion to refer to home life again, but as a whole the homes were, on account of large contributory expenses, creditable.

NATIVITY, PARENT NATIVITY, CONJUGAL CONDITION, AND PARENTS LIVING.

In showing the facts under this sub-title we have divided the occupations into three great heads, — Personal Service, Trade, and Manufactures. To ascertain what particular occupations are classed under these general heads, the reader must turn to the table on page 16, which will be a guide to all tables having this feature of classification.

The following table exhibits fully and in detail the origin of the working girls, and the facts contained in the table are given in detail on account of their value for further comparison. The question as to the destination of girls of various nationalities is becoming very important in studying the influence of our industrial system upon them; the absence of the purely American girl in the occupations involved under this investigation is clearly apparent, and the question is often asked when such facts as those presented are observed, what has become of her? We may not after presenting this table be able to answer this question very clearly, but we can answer clearly the logical sequence of it, viz: — what girl has taken her place; a study of the following table will therefore prove valuable.

PERSONAL SERVICE. — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living.*

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Ire.	Ire.	S	19	4	3	9	3
			M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Mass.	Mass.	S	9	4	—	3	2
			W	2	1	1	—	—
Mass.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Ire.	N. F.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Scot.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	N. B.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Port.	Port.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Me.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Me.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. H.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Me.	Me.	Me.	S	4	3	—	1	—
			M	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Mass.	Mass.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Eng.	N. Y.	W	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	N. H.	N. H.	S	2	1	—	—	1
			M	1	1	—	—	—
N. H.	N. Y.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Eng.	N. H.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Vt.	Vt.	Vt.	M	1	—	—	1	—
Conn.	France	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. Y.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. J.	Eng.	Eng.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Totals,		United States,		56	20	4	18	14
Can.	Can.	Can.	S	3	3	—	—	—
N. B.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	1	—
			M	1	—	—	1	—
N. B.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. B.	Eng.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. S.	N. S.	N. S.	M	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	Eng.	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. F.	Eng.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. F.	N. F.	N. F.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. F.	N. B.	N. B.	W	1	1	—	—	—
P. E. I.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Totals,		British America,		13	5	—	4	4
Ire.	Ire.	Ire.	S	9	1	1	4	3
			M	1	—	—	—	1
Eng.	Eng.	Eng.	S	1	1	—	—	—
			M	2	—	—	1	1
Italy	Italy	Italy	S	1	1	—	—	—
Totals,		Europe,		14	3	1	5	5

TRADE. — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living.*

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Ire.	Ire.	S	46	28	6	11	1
Mass.	Mass.	Mass.	S	9	4	—	5	—
			W	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. H.	N. H.	S	3	—	1	2	—
Mass.	Me.	Me.	S	2	1	1	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Eng.	S	2	1	—	1	—
Mass.	Ger.	Ger.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	Poland	Poland	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	N. B.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	Scot.	Ire.	S	2	—	—	1	1
Mass.	Mass.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. Y.	N. Y.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. H.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. Y.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Italy	Italy	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	D. C.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. H.	Me.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Italy	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Ire.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	N. F.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	N. B.	Ire.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Me.	N. H.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Penn.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Me.	Me.	S	12	4	1	6	1
			W	1	—	1	—	—
N. H.	Mass.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Vt.	Scot.	Eng.	S	2	1	—	1	—
N. Y.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. J.	N. Y.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Ohio	Ohio	Ohio.	S	1	1	—	—	—
	Totals,	United States,		108	57	11	32	8
Can.	Can.	Can.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. B.	N. B.	N. B.	S	2	1	—	1	—
N. B.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	N. S.	N. S.	S	2	—	—	2	—
N. S.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	Eng.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	1	—
	Totals,	British America,		8	4	—	4	—
Eng.	Eng.	Eng.	S	5	2	—	3	—
Eng.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Sweden	Sweden	Sweden	S	1	—	1	—	—
	Totals,	Europe,		7	2	1	3	1

MANUFACTURES. — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living.*

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in—	Fathers born in—	Mothers born in—			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Ire.	Ire.	S	304	158	22	94	30
			M	6	4	—	1	1
			W	3	1	—	2	—
Mass.	Mass.	Mass.	S	54	21	2	19	12
			M	5	1	—	4	—
			W	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Ger.	Ger.	S	13	11	1	1	—
Mass.	Ire.	Mass.	S	9	5	1	2	1
Mass.	Ire.	N. B.	S	5	4	—	1	—
			M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Eng.	Ire.	S	6	4	1	1	—
Mass.	Me.	Mass.	S	5	2	—	2	1
Mass.	Ger.	Ire.	S	4	3	1	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Ire.	S	4	3	—	1	—
Mass.	Ire.	Eng.	S	3	1	—	1	1
Mass.	N. H.	N. H.	S	3	1	—	2	—
Mass.	Eng.	Eng.	S	3	3	—	—	—
Mass.	N. B.	N. B.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	Me.	S	3	2	—	—	1
Mass.	Ire.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	1	—
			W	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. S.	N. S.	S	1	—	—	—	1
			M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Mass.	Ire.	S	2	—	1	1	—
Mass.	Me.	N. H.	S	2	—	—	2	—
Mass.	N. B.	Ire.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Can.	Can.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Scot.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Scot.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Port.	Port.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Vt.	Mass.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	N. Y.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Italy	Ire.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	R. I.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Unk.	Mass.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	Penn.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. H.	Mass.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Poland	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Azores	Ire.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Me.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ger.	Mass.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	N. Y.	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Mass.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Penn.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	N. F.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	France	Ire.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Italy	Italy	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. S.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Wales	Wales	S	1	—	—	1	—

MANUFACTURES — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Continued.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Noth living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Ire.	Me.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Ger.	Holland	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Conn.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Can.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	France	Ger.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. B.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Me.	Me.	Me.	S	26	7	3	5	11
			M	11	3	1	2	5
			W	7	2	2	1	2
Me.	Ire.	Ire.	S	3	2	—	1	—
Me.	Ire.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	—	1
			W	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Vt.	Me.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Me.	N. H.	N. H.	W	1	—	—	1	—
Me.	N. S.	N. S.	W	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	N. H.	Me.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Me.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Eng.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Me.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Me.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. H.	N. H.	N. H.	S	2	2	—	—	—
			M	3	1	1	—	1
N. H.	N. H.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Conn.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	N. S.	N. H.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. H.	N. H.	Me.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Conn.	N. H.	M	1	—	—	1	—
Vt.	Vt.	Vt.	S	3	2	—	1	—
			M	1	—	1	—	—
			W	1	—	—	—	1
Vt.	Scot.	Eng.	S	4	1	—	3	—
Vt.	Mass.	Mass.	S	2	1	—	—	1
Vt.	R. I.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
R. I.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	—	2	—	—
R. I.	Ire.	Scot.	S	1	—	1	—	—
R. I.	R. I.	R. I.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Conn.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Conn.	Cal.	Conn.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Conn.	Conn.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Conn.	N. Y.	R. I.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. Y.	Ire.	Ire.	S	4	1	—	3	—
N. Y.	Ger.	Eng.	S	2	—	—	—	2
N. Y.	Scot.	N. Y.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. Y.	N. Y.	N. Y.	W	1	—	—	—	1
N. Y.	Mass.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Penn.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	1	1	—	—
Penn.	Penn.	Penn.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Penn.	Penn.	Va.	S	1	—	—	—	1

MANUFACTURES — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Continued.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Md.	Md.	Md.	M	1	—	—	—	1
S. C.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	1	—	—
S. C.	S. C.	S. C.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Miss.	Md.	Va.	S	2	—	—	2	—
Ill.	Mass.	Mass.	W	1	—	—	—	1
Mo.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Wis.	Mass.	N. Y.	M	1	—	—	1	—
Wis.	Wis.	Me.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Totals,		United States,		585	271	48	169	97
Can.	Ire.	Ire.	S	6	5	—	—	1
Can.	Can.	Can.	S	2	—	—	1	1
Can.	Can.	Mass.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Can.	Eng.	Eng.	W	1	—	—	1	—
N. B.	Ire.	Ire.	S	17	7	—	6	4
			M	1	—	—	1	—
			W	1	—	—	1	—
N. B.	N. B.	N. B.	S	13	4	1	6	2
			W	2	—	—	1	1
N. B.	N. B.	Scot.	M	1	1	—	—	—
N. B.	Wales	Scot.	M	1	—	—	1	—
N. B.	Ger.	Ger.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	N. S.	N. S.	S	24	4	2	12	6
			M	1	—	—	—	1
			W	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. S.	Eng.	S	4	1	3	—	—
N. S.	Scot.	N. S.	S	2	1	—	1	—
N. S.	Ire.	N. S.	S	2	—	—	—	2
N. S.	Scot.	Scot.	S	2	—	—	—	2
N. S.	Mass.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	N. S.	France	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. S.	France	N. S.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. B.	Scot.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. S.	Penn.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. S.	Scot.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	Eng.	N. S.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. S.	N. B.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. F.	N. F.	N. F.	S	3	1	—	1	1
			W	1	—	—	1	—
N. F.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	—	—	2	—
N. F.	Scot.	N. F.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. F.	Eng.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I.	P. E. I.	P. E. I.	S	6	4	—	—	2
			M	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	—	—	—	2
P. E. I.	Scot.	Eng.	S	1	1	—	—	—
P. E. I.	France	N. F.	S	1	—	—	1	—

MANUFACTURES — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Concluded.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
P. E. I. .	Eng. .	Eng. .	M	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I. .	Eng. .	Labr'd'r	S	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I. .	Scot. .	Scot. .	M	1	—	1	—	—
P. E. I. .	P. E. I.	Scot. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
Totals,		British A	merica,	116	35	7	38	36
Ire. .	Ire. .	Ire. .	S	58	18	10	14	16
			M	4	—	—	2	2
			W	11	2	—	2	7
Eng. .	Eng. .	Eng. .	S	14	4	1	5	4
			M	2	1	—	—	1
			W	3	—	—	—	3
Eng. .	Ire. .	Ire. .	S	7	2	1	1	3
			W	1	—	—	1	—
Eng. .	Ger. .	Ger. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
Eng. .	Scot. .	Eng. .	S	1	—	—	1	—
Scot. .	Scot. .	Scot. .	S	2	2	—	—	—
Scot. .	Ire. .	Scot. .	S	1	—	—	1	—
Scot. .	Eng. .	Scot. .	S	1	—	—	—	1
Sweden .	Sweden	Sweden	S	5	4	—	—	1
France .	France	France	S	1	—	—	—	1
Ger. .	Ger. .	Ger. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
			M	2	—	—	—	2
Italy .	Italy .	Italy .	S	2	2	—	—	—
Russia .	Russia .	Russia .	S	2	1	1	—	—
Poland .	Poland	Poland	S	1	1	—	—	—
Australia	Scot. .	Scot. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
Fayal .	Port. .	Port. .	S	1	—	—	1	—
At sea .	Ire. .	Ire. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
W. Indies	Eng. .	N. S. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
E. Indies	Eng. .	N. S. .	S	1	1	—	—	—
Totals,		Europe,	etc., .	125	43	13	28	41

ALL OCCUPATIONS. — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living.*

Mass. .	Ire. .	Ire. .	S	369	190	31	114	34
			M	7	4	—	1	2
			W	3	1	—	2	—
Mass. .	Mass. .	Mass. .	S	72	29	2	27	14
			M	5	1	—	4	—
			W	4	2	1	—	1
Mass. .	Ger. .	Ger. .	S	15	13	1	1	—
Mass. .	Ire. .	Mass. .	S	10	6	1	2	1
Mass. .	Ire. .	N. B. .	S	7	6	—	1	—
			M	1	—	—	—	1

ALL OCCUPATIONS — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Continued.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Me.	Mass.	S	6	3	—	2	1
Mass.	N. H.	N. H.	S	6	1	1	4	—
Mass.	Me.	Me.	S	6	4	1	—	1
Mass.	Eng.	Ire.	S	6	4	1	1	—
Mass.	Ger.	Ire.	S	4	3	1	—	—
Mass.	Me	Ire.	S	4	3	—	1	—
Mass.	Ire.	Eng.	S	4	1	—	2	1
Mass.	N. B.	N. B.	S	4	3	—	1	—
Mass.	Scot.	Ire.	S	4	—	—	2	2
Mass.	Eng.	Eng.	S	3	3	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	N. F.	S	3	3	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	N. H.	S	3	—	—	2	1
Mass.	Mass.	Ire.	S	3	—	1	2	—
Mass.	Port.	Port.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Me.	S	2	1	—	1	—
Mass.	Mass.	Eng.	S	2	1	—	1	—
Mass.	Poland	Poland	S	2	2	—	—	—
Mass.	N. Y.	N. Y.	S	2	1	—	—	1
Mass.	Italy	Italy	S	2	1	—	1	—
Mass.	Italy	Ire.	S	2	—	—	—	2
Mass.	N. B.	Ire.	S	2	—	2	—	—
Mass.	Penn.	Mass.	S	2	1	—	—	1
Mass.	N. H.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	Scot.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Ire.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. S.	N. S.	W	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. S.	N. S.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	Eng.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. H.	Me.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	D. C.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. H.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	N. Y.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Mass.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	N. B.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Can.	Can.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Scot.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Vt.	Mass.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	N. Y.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	R. I.	S	1	—	—	—	—
Mass.	Unk.	Mass.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	Me.	Penn.	S	1	—	—	1	1
Mass.	Poland	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Azores	Ire.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Ger.	Mass.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Me.	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Mass.	France	Ire.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. S.	Ire.	S	1	—	—	1	—

ALL OCCUPATIONS—*Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living*—Continued.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in—	Fathers born in—	Mothers born in—			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Mass.	Wales.	Wales.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Ire.	Me.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Mass.	Ger.	Holland	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	Conn.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	Mass.	Can.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Mass.	France	Ger.	M	1	1	—	—	—
Mass.	N. B.	Mass.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Me.	Me.	Me.	S	42	14	4	12	12
			M	12	3	1	2	6
			W	8	2	3	1	2
Me.	Ire.	Ire.	S	3	2	—	1	—
Me.	Mass.	Mass.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Eng.	N. Y.	W	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Ire.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	—	1
			W	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Vt.	Me.	S	1	—	1	—	—
Me.	N. H.	N. H.	W	1	—	—	1	—
Me.	N. S.	N. S.	W	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	N. H.	Me.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Me.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Me.	Eng.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Me.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Me.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. H.	N. H.	N. H.	S	4	3	—	—	1
			M	4	2	1	—	1
N. H.	N. Y.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Eng.	N. H.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. H.	Mass.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	N. H.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Conn.	Mass.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	N. S.	N. H.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Mass.	N. H.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. H.	N. H.	Me.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. H.	Conn.	N. H.	M	1	—	—	1	—
Vt.	Scot.	Eng.	S	6	2	—	4	—
Vt.	Vt.	Vt.	S	3	2	—	1	—
			M	2	—	1	1	—
			W	1	—	—	—	1
Vt.	Mass.	Mass.	S	2	1	—	—	1
Vt.	R. I.	Vt.	S	1	—	—	—	1
R. I.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	—	2	—	—
R. I.	Ire.	Scot.	S	1	—	1	—	—
R. I.	R. I.	R. I.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Conn.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Conn.	France	N. Y.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Conn.	Cal.	Conn.	M	1	—	—	—	1
Conn.	Conn.	Conn.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Conn.	N. Y.	R. I.	S	1	—	—	1	—
N. Y.	Ire.	Ire.	S	6	2	—	3	1

ALL OCCUPATIONS — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Continued.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in —	Fathers born in —	Mothers born in —			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
N. Y.	Ger.	Eng.	S	2	-	-	-	2
N. Y.	Scot.	N. Y.	M	1	-	-	-	1
N. Y.	N. Y.	N. Y.	W	1	-	-	-	1
N. Y.	Mass.	Mass.	S	1	-	-	1	-
N. J.	Eng.	Eng.	M	1	-	-	-	1
N. J.	N. Y.	N. S.	S	1	1	-	-	-
Penn.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	1	1	-	-
Penn.	Penn.	Penn.	M	1	-	-	-	1
Penn.	Penn.	Va.	S	1	-	-	-	1
Md.	Md.	Md.	M	1	-	-	-	1
S. C.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	-	1	-	-
S. C.	S. C.	S. C.	M	1	-	-	-	1
Ohio	Ohio	Ohio	S	1	1	-	-	-
Miss.	Md.	Va.	S	2	-	-	2	-
Ill.	Mass.	Mass.	W	1	-	-	-	1
Mo.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	-	-	1	-
Wis.	Mass.	N. Y.	M	1	-	-	1	-
Wis.	Wis.	Me.	S	1	-	-	1	-
Totals,		United States,		749	348	63	219	119
Can.	Can.	Can.	S	6	4	-	1	1
Can.	Ire.	Ire.	S	6	5	-	-	1
Can.	Can.	Mass.	M	1	-	-	-	1
Can.	Eng.	Eng.	W	1	-	-	1	-
N. B.	Ire.	Ire.	S	19	8	-	7	4
			M	1	-	-	1	-
			W	1	-	-	1	-
N. B.	N. B.	N. B.	S	16	5	1	8	2
			M	1	-	-	1	-
			W	2	-	-	1	1
N. B.	Eng.	Eng.	S	1	-	-	1	-
N. B.	N. B.	Scot.	M	1	1	-	-	-
N. B.	Wales.	Scot.	M	1	-	-	-	-
N. B.	Ger.	Ger.	S	1	1	-	-	-
N. S.	N. S.	N. S.	S	26	4	2	14	6
			M	2	1	-	-	1
			W	1	-	-	-	1
N. S.	N. S.	Eng.	S	4	1	3	-	-
N. S.	Scot.	N. S.	S	2	1	-	1	-
N. S.	Ire.	N. S.	S	2	-	-	-	2
N. S.	Scot.	Scot.	S	2	-	-	-	2
N. S.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	2	-	-	-
N. S.	Eng.	N. Y.	S	1	-	-	-	1
N. S.	Eng.	Scot.	S	1	-	-	1	-
N. S.	Mass.	N. S.	S	1	1	-	-	-
N. S.	N. S.	France	S	1	-	-	1	-
N. S.	France	N. S.	M	1	-	-	-	1
N. S.	N. B.	N. B.	S	1	-	-	-	1
N. S.	N. B.	Scot.	S	1	1	-	-	-

ALL OCCUPATIONS — *Nativity, Parent Nativity, Conjugal Condition, and Parents Living* — Concluded.

NATIVITY.			Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
Working girls born in—	Fathers born in—	Mothers born in—			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
N. S.	Penn.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. S.	Scot.	M	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	Eng.	N. S.	S	1	—	—	—	1
N. S.	N. S.	N. B.	S	1	1	—	—	—
N. F.	N. F.	N. F.	S	4	1	—	1	2
			W	1	—	—	1	—
N. F.	Eng.	Scot.	S	2	—	—	—	2
N. F.	Ire.	Ire.	S	2	—	—	2	—
N. F.	N. B.	N. B.	W	1	1	—	—	—
N. F.	Scot.	N. F.	S	1	—	—	1	—
P. E. I.	P. E. I.	P. E. I.	S	6	4	—	—	2
			M	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I.	Ire.	Ire.	S	3	—	—	—	3
P. E. I.	Scot.	Eng.	S	1	1	—	—	—
P. E. I.	France	N. F.	S	1	—	—	1	—
P. E. I.	Eng.	Eng.	M	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I.	Eng.	Labr'd'r	S	1	—	—	—	1
P. E. I.	Scot.	Scot.	M	1	—	1	—	—
P. E. I.	P. E. I.	Scot.	S	1	1	—	—	—
	Totals,	British A	merica,	137	44	7	46	40
Ire.	Ire.	Ire.	S	67	19	11	18	19
			M	5	—	—	2	3
			W	11	2	—	2	7
Eng.	Eng.	Eng.	S	20	7	1	8	4
			M	4	1	—	1	2
			W	3	—	—	—	3
Eng.	Ire.	Ire.	S	8	2	1	1	4
			W	1	—	—	1	—
Eng.	Ger.	Ger.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Eng.	Scot.	Eng.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Scot.	Scot.	Scot.	S	2	2	—	—	—
Scot.	Ire.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	1	—
Scot.	Eng.	Scot.	S	1	—	—	—	1
Sweden.	Sweden	Sweden	S	6	4	1	—	1
France.	France	France	S	1	—	—	—	1
Ger.	Ger.	Ger.	S	1	1	—	—	—
			M	2	—	—	—	2
Italy.	Italy.	Italy.	S	3	3	—	—	—
Russia.	Russia.	Russia.	S	2	1	1	—	—
Poland.	Poland	Poland	S	1	1	—	—	—
Australia	Scot.	Scot.	S	1	1	—	—	—
Fayal.	Port.	Port.	S	1	—	—	1	—
At sea.	Ire.	Ire.	S	1	1	—	—	—
W. Indies	Eng.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
E. Indies	Eng.	N. S.	S	1	1	—	—	—
	Totals,	Europe,	etc., .	146	48	15	36	47

Recapitulation.

NATIVITY. Working girls born in —	Conjugal condition.	Number.	PARENTS LIVING.			
			Both living.	Father only.	Mother only.	Both dead.
Massachusetts,	S	577	294	46	174	63
	M	18	8	—	5	5
	W	8	3	1	3	1
Other States,	S	102	36	10	30	26
	M	29	5	3	5	16
	W	15	2	3	2	8
British America,	S	118	41	6	39	32
	M	12	2	1	3	6
	W	7	1	—	4	2
Europe, etc.,	S	120	45	15	30	30
	M	11	1	—	3	7
	W	15	2	—	3	10
Totals,		1,032	440	85	301	206

From the preceding table is to be derived information of a varied character, which is shown more specifically in the three succeeding tables.

Nativity and Parent Nativity of Working Girls.

PLACE OF BIRTH.	Working girls.	Fathers.	Mothers.	Aggregates.
UNITED STATES.				
Massachusetts,	603	102	118	823
California,	—	1	—	1
Connecticut,	6	4	4	14
District of Columbia,	—	1	—	1
Georgia,	—	1	1	2
Illinois,	1	—	—	1
Maine,	77	88	76	241
Maryland,	1	3	1	5
Mississippi,	2	—	—	2
Missouri,	1	—	—	1
New Hampshire,	17	22	24	63
New Jersey,	2	—	—	2
New York,	11	8	9	28
Ohio,	1	1	1	3
Pennsylvania,	4	5	2	11
Rhode Island,	4	2	3	9
South Carolina,	2	1	1	4
Vermont,	15	8	10	33
Virginia,	—	—	3	3
Wisconsin,	2	1	—	3
Totals,	749	248	253	1,250

Nativity and Parent Nativity of Working Girls—Concluded.

PLACE OF BIRTH.	Working girls.	Fathers.	Mothers.	Aggregates.
BRITISH AMERICA.				
Canada,	14	8	8	30
Labrador,	—	—	1	1
New Brunswick,	44	31	38	113
Newfoundland,	11	5	10	26
Nova Scotia,	52	41	43	136
Prince Edward Island,	16	8	7	31
Totals,	137	93	107	337
EUROPE, ETC.				
Australia,	1	—	—	1
Azores,	1	1	—	2
East Indies,	1	—	—	1
England,	38	52	56	146
France,	1	6	2	9
Germany,	3	27	20	50
Holland,	—	—	1	1
Ireland,	83	557	553	1,193
Italy,	3	7	5	15
Poland,	1	4	3	8
Portugal,	—	3	3	6
Russia,	2	2	2	6
Scotland,	4	23	20	47
Sweden,	6	6	6	18
Wales,	—	2	1	3
West Indies,	1	—	—	1
At sea,	1	—	—	1
Unknown,	—	1	—	1
Totals,	146	691	672	1,509
RECAPITULATION.				
Massachusetts,	603	102	118	823
Other States,	146	146	135	427
British America,	137	93	107	337
Europe, etc.,	146	691	672	1,509
Totals,	1,032	1,032	1,032	3,096

Occupations and Nativity of Working Girls.

OCCUPATIONS.	Born in the United States.	Born in British America.	Born in Europe, etc.	Aggregates.
Personal service,	56	13	14	83
Trade,	108	8	7	123
Manufactures,	585	116	125	826
Totals,	749	137	146	1,032

Conjugal Condition and Residence.

CONJUGAL CONDITION.	Number.	RESIDENCE.			
		At home.	Boarding house.	Lodging house.	Private family.
PERSONAL SERVICE.					
Single,	68	45	7	11	5
Married,	11	6	-	5	-
Widowed,	4	2	-	2	-
Totals,	83	53	7	18	5
TRADE.					
Single,	121	90	17	7	7
Married,	-	-	-	-	-
Widowed,	2	1	-	-	1
Totals,	123	91	17	7	8
MANUFACTURES.					
Single,	728	516	76	100	36
Married,	59	27	9	18	5
Widowed,	39	20	6	12	1
Totals,	826	563	91	130	42
ALL OCCUPATIONS.					
Single,	917	651	100	118	48
Married,	70	33	9	23	5
Widowed,	45	23	6	14	2
Totals,	1,032	707	115	155	55

From the first of the preceding tables we find that 603 of the 1,032 girls involved in this investigation were born in Massachusetts, but of this 603, only 102 had fathers born in this State, and 118 mothers, and if we look at the total as shown in the recapitulation of the same table, we see that of the 1,032 girls, there being 1,032 fathers and 1,032 mothers, making an aggregate of girls and parents of 3,096, that 1,509 persons out of the aggregate were born in Europe; this shows conclusively that it is the children of our foreign born citizens that are furnishing the labor element of those industries in Boston in which female labor is employed.

The last table presents the facts as to residence and conjugal condition. Taking those engaged in personal service, we find that out of 83, 68 are single and of these 45 are living at home. Of the 123 engaged in trade, 121 are single, and 90 of these

Age at Beginning Work.

AGE AT BEGINNING WORK.		Number.	AGE AT BEGINNING WORK.		Number.	AGE AT BEGINNING WORK.		Number.
Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.	
7	-	2	17	-	118	28	-	3
8	-	2	17	6	4	29	-	4
9	-	5	18	-	102	30	-	4
10	-	13	18	6	6	31	-	3
11	-	15	19	-	47	32	-	1
11	6	1	19	6	2	33	-	3
12	-	32	20	-	49	34	-	1
12	6	2	20	6	1	35	-	6
13	-	50	21	-	22	37	-	4
13	3	1	21	6	1	38	-	1
13	6	4	22	-	21	40	-	2
14	-	110	22	4	1	43	-	1
14	6	9	22	6	1	43	8	1
15	-	170	23	-	10	44	-	1
15	6	10	24	-	12			
16	-	153	25	-	11			1,032
16	4	1	26	-	3			
16	6	4	27	-	2			

By these two tables, we learn that 940 are 35 years of age and under, and that 957 commenced their life of work at 22 years and under.

TIME AT WORK, AND TIME ENGAGED IN PAST AND PRESENT OCCUPATIONS.

It is interesting to know the time which the working girls have spent not only in their past, but in their present occupations; these facts are shown by the following tables.

Time at Work.

TIME AT WORK.		Number.	TIME AT WORK.		Number.	TIME AT WORK.		Number.
Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.	
-	3 wks.	1	1	-	91	4	6	9
-	2	1	1	3	1	5	-	61
-	3	1	1	6	12	5	2	1
-	4	1	2	-	110	5	6	2
-	5	1	2	6	10	6	-	59
-	6	8	3	-	101	6	6	2
-	7	1	3	3	1	6	8	2
-	8	3	3	6	4	7	-	53
-	9	2	4	-	68	7	6	1

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

Time at Work—Concluded.

TIME AT WORK.		Number.	TIME AT WORK.		Number.	TIME AT WORK.		Number.
Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.	
8	—	59	18	—	10	30	—	2
8	2	2	19	—	11	31	—	2
8	6	2	19	6	1	32	—	2
9	—	56	20	—	10	33	—	1
10	—	55	20	6	1	34	—	1
10	2	1	21	—	5	35	—	2
10	6	1	22	—	6	36	—	1
11	—	34	23	—	4	37	—	1
12	—	31	23	6	1	43	—	3
12	2	1	24	—	3	45	—	1
13	—	31	24	6	1	49	—	1
14	—	23	35	—	4	51	—	1
14	6	1	26	—	5	57	—	1
15	—	18	27	—	2	58	—	1
16	—	10	28	—	5			
17	—	9	29	—	2			
						—	—	1,032

Time in Present Occupation.

TIME IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.		Number.	TIME IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.		Number.	TIME IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.		Number.
Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.	
—	1 wk.	2	2	8	2	16	—	4
—	2 wks.	3	3	—	92	16	6	1
—	3 wks.	4	3	2	1	17	—	4
—	4 wks.	5	3	6	11	18	—	8
—	5 wks.	1	4	—	64	18	8	1
—	6 wks.	4	4	6	8	19	—	3
—	7 wks.	1	4	9	1	19	6	1
—	1	7	5	—	55	19	9	1
—	1½	1	5	6	4	20	—	7
—	2	10	6	—	39	21	—	2
—	3	13	6	6	1	23	—	1
—	4	6	7	7	42	24	—	1
—	4½	1	7	3	1	25	—	2
—	5	5	7	6	2	26	—	4
—	6	36	8	—	45	28	—	4
—	7	8	8	6	1	29	—	1
—	7½	1	9	—	30	30	—	2
—	8	5	9	6	1	32	—	1
—	9	9	10	—	43	34	—	1
—	11	1	10	6	1	35	—	1
1	—	147	11	—	22	43	—	1
1	3	7	12	—	20	49	—	1
1	6	25	12	1	1	57	—	1
1	8	2	13	—	19	Unk.	—	2
2	—	122	13	6	1			
2	3	1	14	—	14			
2	6	16	15	—	13			
						—	—	1,032

From the preceding tables relating to age and time employed, we have produced the following table of

Averages.

OCUPATIONS.	Number.	Average age at beginning work.	Average time at work.	Average present age.	Average time in present occupation.	Average number of different occupations.	Average time in each occupation.
PERSONAL SERVICE.							
			Years.		Years.		Years.
Carpet sewers,	12	18.58	12.92	39.50	12.54	2.25	10.19
Copyists,	3	19.37	6.67	23.33	1.39	3.00	2.22
Dye house employes,	6	18.50	1.67	21.17	2.79	2.17	2.15
Laundry employes,	8	21.06	9.13	30.19	6.75	1.88	4.87
Matrons and nurses,	7	23.29	16.57	39.88	12.01	1.88	8.92
Restaurant employes,	18	15.39	8.22	23.61	4.49	2.44	3.37
Sewing machine teachers,	3	19.37	8.00	27.37	5.33	1.33	6.00
Telegraph operators,	3	18.33	4.83	23.67	4.83	1.00	4.83
Other personal service,	23	19.80	6.68	23.41	3.24	2.13	3.10
	83	17.58	10.25	27.93	6.01	2.13	4.81
TRADE.							
Bookkeepers,	11	18.09	3.09	21.18	1.86	1.64	1.89
Clerks,	15	15.93	3.35	19.33	2.54	1.60	2.10
Cashiers,	6	15.20	6.10	21.30	2.92	2.60	2.35
Cash dial tenders,	7	15.43	1.24	18.71	.74	1.57	.79
Errand girls,	5	14.25	.95	15.20	.80	1.40	.88
Writers,	3	15.33	7.33	22.67	2.33	2.33	3.14
Saleswomen,	17	18.52	6.04	22.56	3.86	1.88	3.81
	123	16.35	5.01	21.36	3.14	1.70	2.95
MANUFACTURES.							
Bookbinderies,	29	16.28	7.88	24.13	6.85	1.62	4.86
Boots and shoes,	26	14.63	5.44	20.08	3.83	6.92	2.83
Brooms and brushes,	9	15.17	9.06	24.22	6.22	1.44	8.27
Buttons and dress trimmings,	17	15.84	3.89	19.74	2.58	1.78	2.25
Carpetings,	17	18.00	9.59	27.59	8.97	1.24	7.28
Clocks and watches,	7	15.89	5.94	21.82	3.95	1.71	3.47
Clothing, men's,							
Tailoresses,	72	14.90	11.29	26.19	6.30	1.72	6.56
Coats,	87	18.51	10.44	26.95	8.18	1.55	6.65
Pantaloon,	23	17.73	10.41	28.14	8.20	1.82	6.44
Vests,	9	17.11	12.87	29.78	11.33	1.58	8.14
Hats and caps,	11	16.91	10.82	27.73	7.93	1.55	7.00
Neckties and furnishing goods,	7	17.71	5.29	23.00	1.31	3.14	1.88
Oiled clothing,	3	16.67	3.00	19.87	2.25	1.67	1.80
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	5	16.00	6.40	21.40	4.40	1.80	3.00
Shirts,	27	17.82	10.88	28.67	6.63	2.11	5.15
Suspenders,	10	18.55	3.60	20.10	2.60	1.70	2.12
Clothing, women's,							
Dressmakers (in business for themselves),	38	17.47	13.12	30.59	8.54	1.81	7.22
Dressmakers (at work for others),	32	18.82	7.66	28.48	57.78	1.48	5.16
Milliners,	15	17.00	7.73	24.73	6.02	1.53	5.04
Seamstresses,	36	18.07	9.97	28.04	6.58	2.06	4.86
Bonnet and hats,	7	15.14	10.57	25.71	6.00	2.14	4.93
Cloaks, sacks, and suits,	26	19.35	8.81	26.16	2.05	2.31	2.98
Corsets,	7	14.57	9.00	23.57	6.21	2.00	4.50
Hoopskirts and bustles,	8	15.31	7.31	22.63	.94	2.33	2.79
Cotton, woollen, and worsted goods,	12	18.08	5.72	21.85	3.93	2.25	2.54
Drugs and medicines,	5	21.90	3.10	25.00	2.90	1.20	2.58
Food preparations,	33	17.03	4.41	21.44	2.87	1.62	2.91
Furniture,	18	17.11	8.58	25.67	4.92	1.72	4.97
Hair,	4	15.25	6.00	20.25	6.00	1.00	5.00
Lather,	3	15.33	3.17	18.50	.78	2.67	1.19
Metals and metallic goods,	15	14.86	5.83	20.70	5.07	1.20	4.88
Musical instruments and strings,	3	17.00	7.33	24.33	4.75	2.00	3.37
Nets, seines, etc.,	4	15.40	5.00	20.50	4.25	2.00	2.50
Paper,	14	16.00	2.98	18.96	1.48	2.14	1.38
Paper boxes,	32	16.03	5.78	21.50	4.28	1.56	3.70
Photographs,	3	17.00	4.67	21.67	3.67	1.87	2.80

Averages — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	Average age at beginning work.	Average time at work.	Average present age.	Average time in present occupation.	Average number of different occupations.	Average time in each occupation.
Polishes and dressings,	4	15.75	4.25	20.00	4.13	1.25	3.40
Printing and publishing,	28	15.88	7.75	23.43	4.97	1.93	4.02
Rubber and elastic goods,	55	17.31	6.36	23.67	2.26	2.13	2.99
Scientific instruments and appliances,	7	17.29	3.43	20.71	2.29	1.86	1.77
Silk,	3	16.67	8.33	25.00	8.33	1.00	8.33
Straw goods,	11	17.91	12.91	30.82	6.68	2.25	5.68
Tobacco,	11	16.95	5.41	22.36	5.23	1.09	4.96
	826	16.79	8.22	25.01	5.48	1.76	4.67

RECAPITULATION.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	Average age at beginning work.	Average time at work.	Average present age.	Average time in present occupation.	Average number of different occupations.	Average time in each occupation.
Personal service,	83	17.68	10.25	27.93	6.01	2.13	4.81
Trade,	123	16.35	5.01	21.36	3.14	1.70	2.95
Manufactures,	826	16.79	8.22	25.01	5.48	1.76	4.67
All occupations,	1,032	16.81	8.00	24.81	5.24	1.78	4.43

By the foregoing table we see that the average age at which girls began work was 16.81; that they have been at work on an average 8 years, and that their present age is 24.81; that out of the 8 years which they have spent in all occupations, 5.24 years have been spent in their present occupations; that they have been engaged in 1.78 occupations, spending 4.43 years in each.

These averages speak well for the working girls of Boston, so far as steadiness in one line of work is concerned.

II. OCCUPATIONS, PLACES IN WHICH EMPLOYED.

OCCUPATIONS.

The table of averages in the last table in the chapter preceding presents a column showing the average number of occupations in which the working girls have been engaged. These facts naturally belong under the present heading but were essential to the statistical completeness of the average table and were consequently given there.

At the time of the investigation the 1,032 working girls were all employed, filling, of course, 1,032 places or situations. These 1,032 girls had during their working life filled 896 other places or situations, a total of 1,928 for the whole time during which they have been at work. We present in the next table a classification of these 1,928 occupations, and columns showing the number of native born and foreign born employed in the past or at present in such occupations.

Occupations and Nativities.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.		
	Native born.	Foreign born.	Aggregates.
Agents and canvassers,	5	1	6
Bonnets and hats,	6	—	6
Bookbinderies,	39	—	39
Bookkeepers,	18	2	20
Boots and shoes,	50	10	60
Brooms and brushes,	18	—	18
Button-hole makers,	15	3	18
Buttons and dress trimmings,	29	2	31
Cap making,	5	2	7
Carpetings,	11	7	18
Carpet sewers,	11	5	16
Cash dial tenders,	6	—	6
Cash girls,	20	4	24
Cashiers,	5	2	7
Clerks,	15	4	19
Cloak makers,	17	26	43
Clocks and watches,	12	—	12
Coat makers,	54	45	99
Copyists,	8	2	10
Corsets,	15	2	17

Occupations and Nativities—Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	NATIVITIES.		
	Native born.	Foreign born.	Aggregates.
Cotton mills,	4	7	11
Cotton, woollen, worsted, and linen goods, .	22	9	31
Dressmakers,	111	71	182
Drugs and medicines,	5	3	8
Dye house employes,	5	1	6
Errand girls,	17	1	18
Food preparations,	36	10	46
Furniture,	14	5	19
Hair,	7	4	11
Hats and caps,	6	3	9
Hoopskirts and bustles,	6	4	10
Housekeepers,	2	4	6
Housework,	65	55	120
Lace factory,	6	—	6
Ladies' maids and companions,	2	3	5
Laundry employes,	7	3	10
Machine operators,	20	13	33
Matrons and nurses,	11	2	13
Messengers and packers, in shops,	4	1	5
Metals and metallic goods,	26	2	28
Millinery,	35	7	42
Music and art,	8	3	11
Neckties and furnishing goods,	4	4	8
Nets, seines, etc.,	8	—	8
Nursery girls,	12	5	17
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	7	2	9
Pantaloons,	14	12	26
Paper,	17	1	18
Paper boxes,	40	4	44
Photographs,	3	2	5
Polishes and dressings,	5	—	5
Printing and publishing,	34	5	39
Restaurant employes,	22	21	43
Rubber and elastic goods,	72	18	90
Saleswomen,	94	12	106
Scientific instruments and appliances,	7	—	7
Seamstresses,	46	26	72
Sewing machine teachers and fitters,	3	3	6
Shirt makers,	12	16	28
Silk,	5	—	5
Straw goods,	19	8	27
Suspenders,	10	3	13
Tailoresses,	79	54	133
Teachers,	20	6	26
Telegraph and telephone operators,	4	—	4
Tobacco,	15	2	17
Vests,	10	3	13
Weavers,	2	7	9
Various occupations,	36	8	44
Totals,	1,378	550	1,928

No text comparison is needed of a table so easily consulted. But one point seems to require re-statement; that of the 1,032 working girls, the 749 native born have been or are employed in 1,378 places or situations, while the 283 foreign born have filled 550 places. This shows about the same degree of permanency in employment in the case of both native and foreign born.

The question of permanency in employment is graphically shown in the succeeding table which presents all the occupations followed and shows the average number of years that the working girls have been engaged in each, bringing into contrast the number of years passed in it as a present occupation, and also as a previous occupation, followed at some time during their working life.

All Occupations, and Years Employed in Same.

OCCUPATIONS.	AS A PRESENT OCCUPATION.		AS A PREVIOUS OCCUPATION.		AGGREGATES.	
	Number.	Average number of years.	Number.	Average number of years.	Number.	Average number of years.
Agents and canvassers,	—	—	6	.96	6	.96
Bonnets and hats,	6	6.34	—	—	6	6.34
Bookbinderies,	29	6.83	10	1.96	39	5.59
Bookkeepers,	11	1.73	9	1.77	20	1.75
Boots and shoes,	26	2.37	34	1.89	60	2.08
Brooms and brushes,	9	5.71	9	2.83	18	4.27
Button hole makers,	8	6.63	10	1.44	18	3.75
Buttons and dress trimmings,	17	2.53	14	.79	31	1.74
Cap making,	2	10.50	5	2.56	7	4.83
Carpetings,	17	8.97	1	2.00	18	8.58
Carpet sewers,	12	9.72	4	9.25	16	9.60
Cash dial tenders,	6	.86	—	—	6	.86
Cash girls,	—	—	24	1.19	24	1.19
Cashiers,	4	3.36	3	1.83	7	2.70
Clerks,	12	1.17	7	1.09	19	1.14
Cloak makers,	26	.83	17	1.98	43	1.29
Clocks and watches,	7	3.95	5	4.10	12	4.01
Coat makers,	81	8.74	18	3.28	99	7.75
Copyists,	7	2.45	3	1.50	10	2.17
Corsets,	7	6.14	10	1.54	17	3.44
Cotton mills,	1	2.00	10	2.22	11	2.20
Cotton, woollen, worsted, and linen goods,	12	3.95	19	2.19	31	2.87
Dressmakers,	97	6.14	85	3.12	182	4.73
Drugs and medicines,	5	2.90	3	1.64	8	2.43
Dye house employés,	6	2.79	—	—	6	2.79
Errand girls,	5	.80	13	1.64	18	1.23
Food preparations,	33	2.89	13	1.25	46	2.42

All Occupations, and Years Employed in Same — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	AS A PRESENT OCCUPATION.		AS A PREVIOUS OCCUPATION.		AGGREGATES.	
	Num-ber.	Average number of years.	Num-ber.	Average number of years.	Num-ber.	Average number of years.
Furniture,	17	4.94	2	6.50	19	4.24
Hair,	6	4.83	5	3.60	11	4.36
Hats and caps,	6	3.96	3	3.50	9	3.81
Hoopskirts and bustles,	8	.70	2	4.00	10	1.36
Housekeepers,	—	—	6	4.17	6	4.17
Housework,	—	—	120	3.47	120	3.47
Lace factory,	—	—	6	3.13	6	3.13
Ladies' maids and companions,	—	—	5	1.60	5	1.60
Laundry employes,	8	6.75	2	4.50	10	6.30
Machine operators,	12	5.06	21	2.60	33	3.50
Matrons and nurses,	7	10.73	5	4.17	13	7.70
Messengers and packers in shops,	3	1.33	2	2.16	5	1.66
Metals and metallic goods,	15	5.07	13	3.44	28	4.31
Millinery,	15	4.52	27	3.90	42	4.12
Music and art,	3	1.33	8	2.00	11	1.82
Neckties and furnishing goods,	6	8.90	2	.46	8	6.79
Nets, seines, etc.,	4	2.25	4	1.26	8	1.75
Nursery girls,	—	—	17	1.94	17	1.94
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	6	3.08	3	1.33	9	2.50
Pantaloon,	25	8.73	1	.05	26	8.41
Paper,	14	1.49	4	1.56	18	1.50
Paper boxes,	32	4.20	12	1.43	44	3.44
Photographs,	5	4.60	—	—	5	4.60
Polishes and dressings,	4	4.13	1	1.00	5	3.50
Printing and publishing,	28	4.76	11	2.05	39	4.00
Restaurant employes,	18	4.02	25	1.77	43	2.71
Rubber and elastic goods,	55	1.90	35	1.64	90	1.79
Saleswomen,	77	3.40	29	2.31	106	3.19
Scientific instruments and appliances,	7	2.14	—	—	7	2.14
Seamstresses,	45	7.92	27	3.42	72	6.21
Sewing machine teachers and fitters,	5	5.60	1	5.00	6	5.50
Shirt makers,	23	5.01	5	4.13	28	4.85
Silk,	3	7.67	2	3.50	5	6.00
Straw goods,	11	4.82	16	3.19	27	3.86
Suspenders,	10	2.60	3	2.37	13	2.55
Tailoresses,	67	3.79	66	4.00	133	3.89
Teachers,	—	—	26	3.26	26	3.26
Telegraph and telephone operators,	4	3.75	—	—	4	3.75
Tobacco,	11	5.23	6	1.49	17	3.31
Vests,	9	10.66	4	3.75	13	8.54
Weavers,	—	—	9	4.11	9	4.11
Various occupations,	17	3.56	27	2.19	44	2.72
Totals,	1,032	—	896	—	1,928	—

A consideration of one occupation will show the purpose and desired result of the presentation. We find that 39 girls have worked in bookbinderies an average of 5.59 years each. At the present time 29 are so employed, with an average of 6.83 years each, while 10 girls, after having remained in bookbinderies for 1.96 years each, gave up this occupation and entered another.

The permanency of occupation, however, receives its best illustration and proof from the subjoined tables.

Number of Different Occupations followed.

NUMBER OF DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	All occupations.
One,	32	65	426	523
Two,	27	38	257	322
Three,	14	14	90	118
Four,	5	4	36	45
Five,	2	2	7	11
Six,	2	—	4	6
Seven,	1	—	4	5
Eight,	—	—	1	1
Nine,	—	—	1	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Average Number of Different Occupations followed.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number of working girls.	Whole number of occupations followed.	Average number of occupations followed.
Personal service,	83	177	2.13
Trade,	123	209	1.70
Manufactures,	826	1,458	1.76
Totals,	1,032	1,844	1.78

The 1,032 working girls have followed, on an average, but 1.78 occupations each; but 6+ per cent of them have been in more than three occupations, while 50+ per cent have been in but one occupation. The average age, previously shown, should be borne in mind, however, in considering this subject.

PLACES IN WHICH EMPLOYED.

The 1,032 working girls, as has been shown, were all resident in and working in Boston at the time of the investigation. During their working life they had filled 2,001 places or positions in Boston, other places in Massachusetts, other states and foreign countries as shown in table following. The excess of 2,001 over 1,928 (as given in occupation tables preceding) or 73, is caused by the fact that girls who stated that they had worked in any specified occupation in two or more places were counted but once in the occupation showing (for occupation specified) while in the table of places in which employed they were necessarily credited to all the places in which they had worked. The figure 1928, on page 44, means situations filled; the figure 1844, on page 45, means different occupations followed; the figure 2001, in table below, means situations, with credit given for all places in which employed.

Recapitulation.

PLACES.	PERSONAL SERVICE.			TRADE.			MANUFACTURES.			AGGREGATES.		
	Na- tive.	For- eign.	Total.	Na- tive.	For- eign.	Total.	Na- tive.	For- eign.	Total.	Na- tive.	For- eign.	Total
Boston, . . .	90	47	137	175	19	194	964	367	1,331	1,229	433	1,662
Massachusetts, . .	11	6	17	13	2	15	73	25	98	97	33	130
Maine, . . .	1	13	14	4	-	4	31	5	36	36	18	54
New Hampshire, . .	2	1	3	4	-	4	7	5	12	13	6	19
Vermont, . . .	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	1	3
Rhode Island, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	2
Connecticut, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	2	-	2
New York, . . .	1	-	1	-	-	-	9	5	14	10	5	15
New Jersey, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	3	2	1	3
Pennsylvania, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	1	1	2
Maryland, . . .	-	-	3	-	-	-	9	-	9	9	-	9
South Carolina, . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
Illinois, . . .	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	1	1	1	2
Missouri, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
Colorado, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
California, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	2	-	2
United States, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	2
Canada, . . .	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	4	4	-	6	6
New Brunswick, . .	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	17	18	1	18	19
Nova Scotia, . . .	-	3	3	-	-	-	1	17	18	1	20	21
Prince Edward Island, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	6	-	6	6
England, . . .	-	3	3	-	1	1	-	16	16	-	20	20
Scotland, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	6	-	6	6
Ireland, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	-	10	10
Sweden, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	1	1	2
Various Places, . .	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Totals, . . .	109	76	185	197	23	220	1,108	488	1,596	1,414	587	2,001

The number of towns and cities in the various states and countries in which the 1,032 working girls have been at some time employed we give in tabular form below.

Places in which Employed; Number, States, and Countries.

STATES AND COUNTRIES.	Number.	STATES AND COUNTRIES.	Number.
Massachusetts,	60	Missouri,	1
Maine,	23	Colorado,	1
New Hampshire,	12	California,	2
Vermont,	1	United States,	1
Rhode Island,	1	Canada,	3
Connecticut,	2	New Brunswick,	2
New York,	7	Nova Scotia,	3
New Jersey,	2	Prince Edward Island,	1
Pennsylvania,	1	England,	4
Maryland,	2	Scotland,	2
South Carolina,	1	Ireland,	2
Illinois,	2	Sweden,	1

The average number of years employed in Boston, other places in Massachusetts, in other states and foreign countries is shown herewith.

Places in which Employed; Years Employed.

PLACES.	YEARS EMPLOYED IN PLACES SPECIFIED.			
	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	Aggregates.
Boston,	7.32	4.15	6.51	6.31
Other parts of Massachusetts,80	.24	.38	.39
Other States,	1.04	.39	.36	.42
Foreign Countries,35	.01	.43	.37
Whole time employed,	9.51	4.79	7.68	7.49

Of the average time employed, 7.49 years, 6.31 years have been passed in industries in Boston. To show more plainly that our Boston working girls are not migratory, we present a table of percentages drawn from table given just previously.

Places in which Employed; Time Employed.

PLACES.	PERCENTAGE OF TIME EMPLOYED IN PLACES SPECIFIED.			
	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	Aggregates.
Boston,	77.0	86.6	84.8	84.3
Other parts of Massachusetts,	8.4	5.0	4.9	5.2
Other States,	10.9	8.2	4.7	5.6
Foreign Countries,	3.7	.2	5.6	4.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

We see that 84.3 per cent of the whole time during which the 1,032 girls have been at work has been passed in Boston. There can be no doubt that these 1,032 are genuine and typical Boston working girls.

The places or situations filled by these girls have been nearly all in Boston establishments, as the table below shows.

Different Places in which Employed in All Occupations.

PLACES.	SITUATIONS.			
	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	Aggregates.
Boston,	137	194	1,331	1,662
Other places in Massachusetts,	17	15	98	130
Other States,	22	9	87	118
Foreign Countries,	9	2	80	91
Totals,	185	220	1,596	2,001

Of 2,001 places or situations, 1,662 have been in Boston, or, as will be seen by percentage table following, 83+ per cent of all the situations. We have shown before that 84+ per cent of the working time has been passed in Boston.

Number of Places in which Employed; Present and All Occupations.

OCCUPATIONS.	NUMBER OF PLACES IN WHICH EMPLOYED.					
	All occupations; present and past.	Boston. Present occupa- tions.	Boston. Past occupations.	Boston. Past and present occupations.	All other places. Past occupations.	Boston. Percentage of all occupations.
Personal service, .	185	83	54	137	48	74+
Trade,	220	123	71	194	26	88
Manufactures, . .	1,596	826	505	1,331	265	83
Totals,	2,001	1,032	630	1,662	339	83+

The old saying that "man's work is from sun to sun but woman's work is never done," finds statistical support in the table showing the number that, in addition to their daily labor, are obliged to devote time to

Housework and Sewing.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal Service.	Trade.	Manufac- tures.	Aggregates.
Housework,	4	7	30	41
Own sewing,	24	41	369	434
Part of own sewing,	6	10	50	66
Housework and own sewing,	24	19	271	314
Housework and part of own sewing,	1	3	21	25
Neither housework nor sewing,	24	43	85	152
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Of the 1,032 working girls, 880, or 85+ per cent do their own housework and sewing wholly or in part. No stronger evidence of the essentially "home character" of the lives of our working girls could be adduced.

III. HOURS OF LABOR, TIME LOST, ETC.

HOURS OF LABOR.

Chapter 74 of the Public Statutes provides that no minor or woman shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment more than sixty hours in one week; and chapter 157 of the Acts of 1883 extends the provisions of the Public Statutes in this respect to mechanical and mercantile establishments, so that by the laws of this Commonwealth no minor or woman can be employed legally in any manufacturing, mechanical or mercantile establishment more than ten hours per day or sixty hours in any week.

The following tables give the facts as to the hours of labor of the working girls of Boston, first as to daily working hours; second as to hours worked per day, and third as to hours worked per week.

Daily Working Hours.

CLASSIFICATION.		Number.	CLASSIFICATION.		Number.
5	A.M. to 2 P.M.	1	7½	A.M. to 5½ P.M.	1
5	" to 8	1	7½	" to 6	12
5½	" to 6½	1	7½	" to 9	1
5½	" to 8	1	7½	" to 5½	1
5½	" to 8½	1	7½	" to 6	1
6	" to 4½	1	8	" to 4	1
6	" to 7½	1	8	" to 4½	2
6	" to 8	5	8	" to 5	17
6	" to 9	2	8	" to 5½	23
6	" to 10	1	8	" to 5¾	7
6	" to 12	1	8	" to 6	438
6½	" to 6	1	8	" to 6½	15
6½	" to 6½	1	8	" to 6½ " 3 days.	1
6½	" to 7	1	8	" to 6½ " 3 days.	1
6½	" to 7½	1	8	" to 7	8
6½	" to 8½	1	8	" to 7 " alternate,	-
6½	" to 10½	1	8	" to 6 " alternate,	1
6½	" to 7	1	8	" to 7½	2
7	" to 5½	10	8	" to 8	2
7	" to 5¾	1	8	" to 9	6
7	" to 6	200	8	" to 10	3
7	" to 5½	11	8½	" to 6	2
7	" to 6½	6	8½	" to 5	4
7	" to 7	6	8½	" to 5½	6
7	" to 7½	1	8½	" to 5¾	2
7	" to 8	6	8½	" to 6	23
7	" to 9	3	8½	" to 6½	1
7	" to 10	5	8½	" to 5½	1
7	" to 5½	1	8½	" to 5	1
7	" to 6	2	9	" to 5 P.M.	1
7	" to 5	2	9	" to 5½ P.M.	4
7	" to 5½	7	9	" to 5¾	1
7	" to 5¾	2	9	" to 6	18
7	" to 6	89	9	" to 6½	2
7	" to 7	2	9½	" to 5½	1
7	" to 7	2	10½	" to 7½	1
7	" to 7 " 3 days.	-	1 P.M. to 5½	" (½ day)	1
7	" to 11 " 3 days.	1	Not given		41
7	" to 9	2			
7	" to 10	1			
			Total,		1,032

Working Hours: Daily and Saturday.

DAILY WORKING HOURS.	Number.	Same on Saturday.	LESS ON SATURDAY.					Totals.	LONGER ON SATURDAY.					
			Under one hour.	One hour.	One to two hours.	About two to five hours.	No work on Saturday.		Under one hour.	One hour.	One to two hours.	About two to five hours.	Totals.	
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	5	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	32	19	2	6	2	1	2	13	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
8 $\frac{3}{4}$	40	24	1	6	4	3	-	14	-	-	1	1	1	2
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	6	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	432	285	13	104	10	7	2	136	-	3	3	6	11	-
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	1	2	3	1	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
9 $\frac{3}{4}$	88	40	5	32	5	1	-	43	1	2	1	1	5	-
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	2	-	3	2	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	254	121	8	104	7	-	-	119	6	1	3	4	14	-
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	-	-	-	11	10	-	21	-	-	-	-	-	-
10 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	4	-
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-
11	14	3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	1	6	1	8	-
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	3	-
12	10	6	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	2	1	3	-
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12 $\frac{3}{4}$	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	-	-	4	-
13	10	8	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	-	1	-
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
14	8	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals,	975	548	33	263	44	25	4	389	9	11	21	17	58	-

Actual Weekly Working Hours.

[Shorter hours on Saturday are indicated by s; longer, by l.]

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
27	1	52s	9	57s	1
39	1	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	5	57 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	3
40s	1	58s	2	57 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	1
40 (five days)	2	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ (piecework)	2	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	4
42	3	52 $\frac{3}{4}$ l	1	58s	7
42 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	2	53s	103	58 $\frac{1}{4}$ l	1
44s	2	53 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1	58 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	2
45	5	53 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	1	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1
45 (five days)	3	53 $\frac{1}{4}$ s	12	59	1
45 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1	53 $\frac{3}{8}$ s	1	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	1
46s	3	54	302	59s	107
46 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1	54s	1	59 $\frac{1}{4}$ s	2
46 $\frac{1}{2}$ l (five days)	1	54 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	2	59 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	4
47s	6	54 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	2	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1
47 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	2	55	2	60	117
48	18	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	4	60 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	1
49	1	65s	5	60s	17
49s	3	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ l	1	60 $\frac{3}{4}$ l	6
49 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	2	55 $\frac{3}{8}$ s	1	61 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	2
50s	6	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	3	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	2
50 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1	56s	30	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ l (also Friday, l)	1
50 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	2	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	4	63	4
51	24	56 $\frac{3}{4}$ s	1	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	1
51s	4	57	38	64 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	3
51 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	2	57 $\frac{1}{2}$ l	1	64 $\frac{1}{4}$ l	1

Actual Weekly Working Hours—Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
64½	2	71½	1	83	1
65	1	72	4	84	7
65s	2	73½	2	86	1
66	4	74	1	86½	1
66½	1	74s	1	87	1
67	2	75	1	87½ (and Sunday)	1
68	5	75½	1	90	2
69	3	76	3	96	1
69½	1	77	1	108	1
69¾	1	78	9	Piecework,	4
70s	1	78½ (and Sunday)	1	Not given,	38
70½	1	81	1		
70¾	1	81½	1	Total,	1,032

It will be seen by the first of the foregoing tables that a very large proportion of the girls begin work between seven and eight in the morning and close by six at night. Very few begin prior to six A.M.

The number working over ten hours per day is 92 as shown by the second of the three preceding tables, while by the same table it is learned that 369 have a shorter day on Saturday, and 58 a longer day, 57 making no answer to inquiry as to different hours on Saturday. The table on weekly working hours disclosed the fact that 89 out of 1,032 work more than the legal 60 hours per week. Many of these are engaged in trade. But two worked Sundays.

In certain occupations, and at certain periods of the year, the hours of labor differ somewhat from the working time reported. Saleswomen in small dry and fancy goods stores, bakeries, etc., vary their labor through the week, having one or two nights off after 6 P.M. with one half or one hour for dinner and supper each, and working until 11 or 12 o'clock on Saturday nights. In some restaurants, girls have about one Sunday in every four, besides a few hours in the afternoon each week. In other restaurants, as well as in bakeries, girls often work four or five hours every Sunday, as needed. In the large places of employment, in busy seasons, the hours of labor are often extended beyond the time stated, especially during the holidays, the dinner hour is curtailed, and, as is often reported, without extra pay. In other stores, when work is slack, the hours are somewhat abated and girls are not held strictly to rules.

It is, also, often the case, that during the busy and slack seasons, different schedules of working hours are in force. In the busy season, in addition to "store" hours, girls very frequently carry their work home, and labor until 9, 10, and 11 o'clock and sometimes till after midnight; others are employed every night at their places of employment. When employed after 6 P.M. the employer frequently pays for the suppers of the girls, although complaint is sometimes made of the poor quality of food provided. In the clothing trade, when busy, girls are often given so much work to do in a stated time, and after working the regular hours, are obliged to carry home work to complete it on time.

In a great many of the establishments in Boston, especially the large business houses, it is the custom during the months of July and August, and sometimes June, to close at 5 o'clock daily and at 12, 1, or 2 o'clock on Saturdays; in some cases, also, the girls report no work at all on Saturdays during the summer months, while in other cases, no change in hours is made, except in the early closing on Saturday. In a few instances, it is also usual to close one or two hours early on Saturdays through the rest of the year, according to the state of business.

To offset the privilege of a half-holiday each week through the hottest months, it is sometimes the custom to deduct from the pay of employés a money equivalent; in some cases where the hour for closing is 5 each day and 2 on Saturdays, girls are allowed only 5 days' pay for the week. In other stores, the pay of help is cut down to correspond; the piece hands of course, on account of early hours for closing, do not have the opportunity to make accustomed wages. In places where Saturday afternoons are granted, one half day's pay in some instances is deducted from the week's wages.

In one case, a girl reports that besides being given Saturday afternoons (no deduction of pay being mentioned), girls when sick or indisposed, are at liberty to leave an hour or so earlier than usual without losing the time. In another case, where everything was satisfactory and in most respects considered one of the best stores of its class in Boston, there is no early closing in summer and but one half hour allowed for dinner.

In speaking of the "dinner hour," the girls very frequently

complain of the short time allowed in many places. They think 30 minutes hardly sufficient, and intimate that they would be quite contented if they could have a full hour for dinner. Girls were also found taking but part of the dinner hour, making up in that way in one case, a seven weeks' vacation previously taken, on account of overwork. In some places, it is the practice during the summer to "cut" the dinner hour from 10 to 15 minutes to make up for early closing on Saturdays. In the busy season piece hands often shorten their dinner time voluntarily, eating their lunch and resuming work immediately; while in other cases reported, during the busy season, but half an hour is allowed, at other times, one hour.

The following table shows the range of time allowed for dinner.

Dinners.

TIME ALLOWED.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
15 minutes,	-	-	9	9
20 minutes,	-	1	-	1
25 minutes, average,	-	-	1	1
30 minutes,	4	19	54	77
40 minutes,	-	2	2	4
45 minutes,	-	1	12	13
50 minutes, average,	-	-	9	9
55 minutes, average,	-	-	1	1
1 hour,	47	77	649	773
1 hour, 5 minutes, average,	-	-	1	1
1 hour, 10 minutes,	-	-	2	2
1 hour, 12 minutes, average,	-	-	2	2
1 hour, 15 minutes,	-	1	-	1
1 hour, 17½ minutes, average,	-	-	1	1
1 hour, 20 minutes,	-	-	2	2
1½ hours,	-	4	3	7
1 hour, 40 minutes, breakfast, dinner, and supper,	1	-	-	1
2 hours,	-	6	7	13
2½ hours,	-	-	1	1
2¾ hours,	-	-	1	1
Begins work at 1 P.M.,	-	-	1	1
Piece work,	-	-	1	1
Not stated,	31	12	67	110
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

VACATIONS.

But 233 girls enjoyed a vacation during the year preceding our investigation: of this number only 40 received pay during

the vacation, the balance, 193, receiving no pay. Out of the whole 1,032 there were 799 who had no vacation; the average length of the vacation given the 233 was 3.28 weeks each, the 40 with pay securing 1.87 weeks each.

The "vacation" table tells its own story and nothing need be added, except to mention the fact that one girl reports having worked 14 years without a vacation of any kind.

Vacation.

NUMBER OF WEEKS, DURING THE PAST YEAR.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggre- gates.
2 weeks,	-	-	2	2
3 weeks,	-	-	2	2
4 weeks,	-	1	1	2
5 weeks,	-	-	1	1
6 weeks,	-	-	1	1
9 weeks,	-	-	1	1
10 weeks,	-	-	2	2
1 week; with pay: expenses continued,	2	1	3	6
2 weeks; with pay: expenses continued,	3	5	7	15
1 week; with pay: expenses continued,	-	1	-	1
1 week; no pay: expenses continued,	-	-	1	1
3 weeks; with pay: expenses continued,	-	-	1	1
2 weeks; with pay: expenses continued,	1	-	1	2
1 week; no pay: expenses continued,	-	1	-	1
4 weeks; with pay: expenses continued,	-	-	1	1
1 week; with pay: expenses stopped,	1	3	2	6
2 weeks; with pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	2	2
3 weeks; with pay: expenses stopped,	1	-	-	1
4 weeks; with pay: expenses stopped,	-	3	-	3
1 week; with pay: expenses stopped,	-	1	-	1
6 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	4	4
1 week; no pay: expenses continued,	5	11	17	33
2 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	1	1	5	7
3 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	1	1	1	3
4 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	1	-	5	6
6 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	-	-	3	3
7 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	1	2	3	6
8 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	-	-	1	1
13 weeks; no pay: expenses continued,	-	2	15	17
1 week; no pay: expenses stopped,	3	10	46	59
2 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	1	11	12
3 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	1	-	5	6
4 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	1	-	2	3
5 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	4	4
6 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	1	1
7 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	1	1	7	9
8 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	2	2	4
9 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	1	1
10 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	-	-

Vacation — Concluded.

NUMBER OF WEEKS, DURING THE PAST YEAR.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggre- gates.
13 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	1	1
14 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	1	-	1
16 weeks; no pay: expenses stopped,	-	-	1	1
No vacation,	60	75	664	799
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

TIME LOST.

The facts as to lost time are fully shown in this table :

Time Lost.

TIME LOST, in weeks, during the past year.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Number losing time.	AGGREGATES.	
					Time lost, in weeks.	Time worked, in weeks.
1 week,	5	6	24	35	35	1,785
2 weeks,	3	5	27	35	70	1,760
3 weeks,	-	3	26	29	87	1,421
4 weeks,	4	6	66	76	304	3,648
5 weeks,	1	1	26	28	140	1,316
6 weeks,	2	4	33	39	234	1,794
6 weeks (with pay),	-	1	-	1	6	46
7 weeks,	2	-	7	9	63	405
8 weeks,	6	11	94	111	888	4,684
9 weeks,	1	-	15	16	144	688
10 weeks,	-	2	19	21	210	882
11 weeks,	-	-	1	1	11	41
12 weeks,	1	9	62	62	744	2,480
13 weeks,	4	7	52	63	819	2,457
14 weeks,	1	-	5	6	84	228
15 weeks,	-	1	3	4	60	148
16 weeks,	1	3	29	33	528	1,188
17 weeks,	2	4	17	23	391	805
18 weeks,	-	1	1	2	36	63
19 weeks,	-	1	-	1	19	33
20 weeks,	-	2	7	9	130	288
21 weeks,	-	2	9	11	231	341
22 weeks,	3	-	22	25	660	750
24 weeks,	-	1	1	2	48	56
26 weeks,	7	4	63	74	1,924	1,924
27 weeks,	-	-	1	1	27	25
28 weeks,	-	-	1	1	28	24
29 weeks,	-	-	2	2	68	46
30 weeks,	1	-	5	6	180	132
31 weeks,	-	-	1	1	31	21
32 weeks,	-	-	1	1	32	20
34 weeks,	2	-	3	5	170	90
36 weeks,	-	-	4	4	140	63
36 weeks,	-	-	1	1	36	16
37 weeks,	-	-	1	1	37	15
38 weeks,	-	-	2	2	76	28
38 weeks,	1	2	6	9	351	117
39 weeks,	-	1	-	1	40	12
43 weeks,	-	-	2	2	86	18
44 weeks,	-	-	1	1	44	8
48 weeks,	-	-	2	2	96	8
49 weeks,	-	1	1	2	98	6
Totals,	47	78	633	758	9,336	30,080
No time lost,	36	45	193	274	-	14,248
	83	123	826	1,032	9,336	44,328

The number of girls working the full year without loss of time was 274 while 758 lost 12.32 weeks each; that is, this latter number were out of employment three months in the year. The question of how they live during this period of waiting becomes a vital one and can only be fully considered in connection with the facts as to wages and earnings. It is the constant occurrence of waiting spells which makes the lives of the working girls so hard; and it is during these lost months they are most subject to temptation.

“Time lost” during the past year is traceable to various causes. The principal reasons given are, “dull times,” lack of work, sickness of self, children, or relatives, or on account of machines being out of order, and waiting repairs; in the latter case, girls often waiting two and three weeks at a time before the machines are put in order.

In many of the large houses, girls when employed for a year or more are entitled to a vacation; otherwise it is taken at their own expense, and their time forfeited. In a good many cases, holidays are deducted from the week's wages, even Christmas day being made no exception, however hard they may have worked during the holiday season.

In many cases where time has been lost through sickness girls are obliged to provide substitutes.

In many of the large establishments, time-lists are kept, and if girls are late in the morning, “even a minute,” it is deducted from their week's wages. The rules vary somewhat in this respect; in some places, *one minute late*, actual time deducted; in others, fifteen minutes, and in some cases, one hour is deducted. Fines are also imposed, 10 to 25 cents if at all late in the morning, which is abated on giving reasonable excuse. In other cases, if 15 minutes late, they forfeit half a day, unless on “train list” or “privileged.” As an offset, one girl reports that she was sick six weeks during which time she was paid the same as if working and also allowed two weeks' vacation with pay.

In many lines of work there are “seasons” — times when establishments are driven to their utmost capacity, of course to be followed by correspondingly dull periods and consequent loss of time. As this loss of time bears directly upon earnings the matter of seasons will be more fully referred to under economic condition.

IV. PHYSICAL AND SANITARY CONDITION.

HEALTH.

With the information regarding the social condition, occupations, hours of labor, etc., which we have presented, it becomes important to know the physical and sanitary condition of the people involved in this investigation. The health condition is shown in six short tables which follow; these tables give the health by occupations, health in comparison with age and conjugal condition, comparative health, health at the time of beginning work and in present occupation, health in the present and immediately previous occupation, and health during the whole time employed.

Occupations and Health.

OCCUPATIONS.	HEALTH.						Aggregates.
	Good.	Quite good.	Not very good.	Fair.	Poor.	Bad.	
Agents and canvassers,	5		-	-	1		6
Bonnets and hats,	5		1	-	-		6
Bookbinderies,	35		3	-	1	-	39
Bookkeepers,	15	-	-	3	1	1	20
Boots and shoes,	49	3	3	5	-	-	60
Brooms and brushes,	15	1	1	-	1	-	18
Button-hole makers,	14	-	-	3	1	-	18
Buttons and dress trimmings,	24		3	2	2		31
Cap makers,	6		-	-	1	-	7
Carpetings,	18		-	-	-	-	18
Carpet sewers,	12		3	-	1	-	16
Cash dial tenders,	6		-	-	-	-	6
Cash girls,	22		1	2	-	-	24
Cashiers,	6		1	-	-	-	7
Clerks,	18	-	-	1	-	-	19
Clock makers,	35	1	2	1	4	-	43
Clocks and watches,	8	1	-	-	1	2	12
Coat makers,	74	3	5	7	8	2	99
Copyists,	8		1	1	-	-	10
Corsets,	14		1	1	-	1	17
Cotton mills,	10		-	1	-	-	11
Cotton, woollen, worsted, and linen goods,	28	1	-	2	-	-	31
Dressmakers,	150	2	4	19	6	1	182
Drugs and medicines,	7		1	-	-	-	6
Dye house employes,	6		-	-	-	-	6
Errand girls,	18		-	-	-	-	18
Food preparations,	39	-	1	6	-	-	46
Furniture,	14	1	1	2	1	-	19
Hair,	11		-	-	-	-	11
Hats and caps,	5		3	1	-	-	9
Hoopskirts and bustles,	9	1	-	-	-	-	10
Housekeepers,	5		-	1	-	-	6
Housework,	100	2	6	4	7	1	120
Lace factory,	5	1	-	-	-	-	6

Occupations and Health—Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	HEALTH.						
	Good.	Quite good.	Not very good.	Fair.	Poor.	Bad.	Aggregates.
Ladies' maids and companions,	4	-	1	-	-	-	5
Laundry employés,	9	-	-	-	1	-	10
Machine operators,	23	-	1	4	4	1	33
Matrons and nurses,	13	-	-	-	-	-	13
Messengers and packers, in shops,	5	-	-	-	-	-	5
Metals and metallic goods,	20	2	3	3	-	-	28
Millinery,	33	1	2	1	2	3	42
Music and art,	8	-	1	2	-	-	11
Neckties and furnishing goods,	8	-	-	-	-	-	8
Nets, seines, etc.,	7	-	-	1	-	-	8
Nursery girls,	15	1	1	-	-	-	17
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	5	-	-	3	1	-	9
Pantaloon,	22	-	3	1	-	-	26
Paper,	15	-	1	2	-	-	18
Paper boxes,	30	1	4	8	1	-	44
Photographs,	3	-	-	1	1	-	5
Polishes and dressings,	3	-	-	2	-	-	5
Printing and publishing,	36	-	-	1	1	1	39
Restaurant employés,	31	1	2	5	1	3	43
Rubber and elastic goods,	65	2	7	7	6	3	90
Saleswomen,	74	2	5	16	6	3	106
Scientific instruments and appliances,	6	-	-	-	1	-	7
Seamstresses,	55	-	3	9	2	3	72
Sewing machine teachers and fitters,	5	1	-	-	-	-	6
Shirt makers,	21	-	3	1	2	1	28
Silk,	6	-	-	-	-	-	5
Straw goods,	18	-	2	3	3	1	27
Suspenders,	11	-	-	1	1	-	13
Tailoresses,	95	1	12	18	7	2	133
Teachers,	22	-	1	2	1	-	26
Telegraph and telephone operators,	3	1	-	-	-	-	4
Tobacco,	16	-	-	1	-	-	17
Vests,	12	-	-	-	-	1	13
Weavers,	8	-	-	1	-	-	9
Various occupations,	35	1	2	5	1	-	44
Totals,	1,537	31	94	158	78	30	1,928

Health, Age, and Conjugal Condition.

OCCUPATIONS AND STATE OF HEALTH.	SINGLE.				MARRIED AND WIDOWED.				Aggregates.
	Under 18.	18 to 40.	Above 40.	Total.	Under 18.	18 to 40.	Above 18.	Total.	
PERSONAL SERVICE.									
Good,	3	48	3	54	-	4	4	8	62
Quite good,	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	2
Not very good,	-	2	1	3	-	3	-	3	6
Fair,	1	8	-	9	-	1	-	1	10
Poor,	1	-	-	1	-	1	1	1	2
Bad,	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1
Totals,	5	59	4	68	-	10	5	15	83
TRADE.									
Good,	31	59	1	91	-	-	-	-	91
Quite good,	-	3	-	3	-	-	-	-	3
Not very good,	-	6	1	7	-	2	-	2	9
Fair,	3	13	-	16	-	-	-	-	16
Poor,	-	3	1	4	-	-	-	-	4
Bad,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals,	34	84	3	121	-	2	-	2	123

Health, Age, and Conjugal Condition — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS AND STATE OF HEALTH.	SINGLE.				MARRIED AND WIDOWED.				Aggregates.
	Under 18.	18 to 40.	Above 40.	Total.	Under 18.	18 to 40.	Above 40.	Total.	
MANUFACTURES.									
Good,	77	458	16	551	2	66	14	82	833
Quite good,	4	11	-	15	-	1	-	1	16
Not very good,	1	33	2	36	-	7	1	8	44
Fair,	2	71	2	75	-	12	4	16	91
Poor,	1	23	2	26	1	5	1	7	33
Bad,	-	6	-	6	-	1	2	3	9
Totals,	85	602	22	709	3	92	22	117	826
ALL OCCUPATIONS.									
Good,	111	565	20	696	2	70	18	90	786
Quite good,	4	15	-	19	-	2	-	2	21
Not very good,	1	41	4	46	-	12	1	13	59
Fair,	6	92	2	100	-	13	4	17	117
Poor,	2	26	3	31	1	5	2	8	39
Bad,	-	6	-	6	-	2	2	4	10
Totals,	124	745	29	898	3	104	27	134	1,032

Comparative Health.

STATE OF HEALTH.	Classifica- tion.	NUMBER IN SPECIFIED STATE OF HEALTH.	
		At beginning work.	Last occupa- tion.
Perfect,	1	3	-
Excellent,	1	4	2
Very good,	1	41	17
Good,	1	903	763
Strong and robust,	1	1	-
Pretty good,	2	13	15
Quite good,	2	3	2
Generally good,	2	-	1
Good to fair,	2	1	3
Pretty well,	2	-	1
Not very good,	3	9	16
Good; not very strong,	3	1	-
Not good now,	3	-	7
Only middling,	3	-	1
Little better,	3	-	1
Not very well,	3	1	-
Not so good,	3	-	4
Not good,	3	12	29
Fair,	4	17	105
Very fair,	4	1	-
Only fair,	4	1	1
Fairly good,	4	1	-
Good to not good,	4	-	1
Not strong,	4	1	1
Better,	4	-	3

Comparative Health — Concluded.

STATE OF HEALTH.	Classifica- tion.	NUMBER IN SPECIFIED STATE OF HEALTH.	
		At beginning work.	Last occupa- tion.
Delicate,	4	4	4
Good to bad,	4	—	1
Poor,	5	7	29
Completely tired,	5	—	1
Very weak,	5	—	1
Failing,	5	—	5
Poor for 3 years,	5	—	1
Poor past 5 years,	5	—	1
Fair to bad,	5	—	6
Very poor,	6	6	3
Bad,	6	1	5
Miserable,	6	1	—
Very bad,	6	—	2
Totals,	—	1,032	1,032

RECAPITULATION.

Good,	1	952	782
Quite good,	2	17	22
Not very good,	3	23	58
Fair,	4	25	116
Poor,	5	7	44
Bad,	6	8	10
Totals,	—	1,032	1,032

Health at Beginning Work and in Present Occupation.

HEALTH AT BEGINNING WORK.	HEALTH IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.						Aggregates.
	Good.	Quite Good.	Not very good.	Fair.	Poor.	Bad.	
Good,	760	16	48	97	27	4	952
Quite good,	5	4	4	3	1	—	17
Not very good,	8	1	9	2	2	1	23
Fair,	6	1	3	13	1	1	25
Poor,	—	—	—	1	6	—	7
Bad,	3	—	—	—	1	4	8
Totals,	782	22	64	116	38	10	1,032

STATISTICS OF LABOR.

Health in Present and Previous Occupation.

HEALTH IN PREVIOUS OCCUPATION.	HEALTH IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.						Aggregates.
	Good.	Quite Good.	Not very good.	Fair.	Poor.	Bad.	
Good,	—	11	32	68	18	1	130
Quite good,	—	9	2	—	1	—	12
Not very good,	—	—	22	2	1	3	28
Fair,	—	—	3	43	6	1	53
Poor,	—	1	3	3	11	—	18
Bad,	—	—	—	3	2	5	10
Totals,	—	21	62	119	39	10	251

Health during Whole Time Employed. (Years.)

CLASSIFICATION.	NUMBER OF YEARS DURING WHICH HEALTH WAS AS SPECIFIED:				Aggregates.
	In Personal service.	In Trade.	In Manufac- tures.		
Good health,	7.82	3.24	5.69	5.57	
Quite good health,30	.28	.15	.18	
Not very good health,47	.24	.46	.43	
Fair health,48	.63	.92	.85	
Poor health,39	.20	.31	.31	
Bad health,05	.20	.15	.15	
Whole time employed,	9.51	4.79	7.68	7.49	

Health during Whole Time Employed. (Percentages.)

CLASSIFICATION.	PERCENTAGE OF TIME DURING WHICH HEALTH WAS AS SPECIFIED:			
	In Personal service.	In Trade.	In Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Good health,	82.2	67.6	74.1	74.4
Quite good health,	3.2	5.8	1.9	2.4
Not very good health,	4.9	5.0	6.0	5.7
Fair health,	5.1	13.2	12.0	11.4
Poor health,	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.1
Bad health,5	4.2	2.0	2.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The first table relating to occupations and health, introduces a classification which is used in all the health tables, that is, all that can be classed as "good" come under class 1, all that can be classed as "quite good," involving all the variations each side of quite good, come under class 2; "not very good," as class 3, "fair," as class 4, "poor," as class 5, and "bad," as class 6.

In these various classifications, a great many shades of health appear, as will be seen by the table headed "Comparative Health."

In the first table, "Occupations and Health," appear all the occupations filled at any time by the girls giving information, or health under 1,928 different engagements.

In the second table, "Health, Age, and Conjugal Condition," we find that of the 1,032 girls, 786, or 76.2 per cent, were in good health at the time the investigation was made.

The third table, entitled "Comparative Health," is one of interest. By referring to the recapitulation of this table, it will be seen that there are 952 in class 1, who were in good health at the time they began work, of which number, 782 are in the same classification now; this difference of 170, of course represents those who have fallen from good health at the beginning of work, and the distribution of the 170 is shown in the recapitulation of the "Comparative Health" table, but it shows inversely; for instance, there were 17 classed as quite good at the beginning of work, while there are 22 now in present occupations so classed; that does not mean that there has been a gain in the quite good from below, but that they have come down from good to quite good. The same is true of the not very good, and of those in fair health, while in classes 5 and 6, the poor and bad have risen in number from degenerate health. The showing, as a whole, is a very satisfactory one.

The table "Health in Present and Previous Occupation," refers to the health condition in the present occupation, and in the one immediately previous to the present, and shows for 251 the changes in health condition between those two occupations.

The last two tables, headed "Health during Whole Time Employed," show the classification as to health by years and percentages; for instance, in the first of these two tables, in the column of aggregates, the whole time employed on an

average by the 1,032, is 7.49 years in all occupations; of this number of years, the good health averages 5.57 years; the second table shows the percentages; that is to say, the 5.57 years of good health represent 74.4 per cent of the whole time employed. The balance of the table shows the percentages for the other classifications.

ACCIDENTS.

A little table has been compiled showing the nature of accidents which have befallen the working girls furnishing information to the office; it appears that nearly all have been free from accidents during the whole time employed, and but few of the accidents occurred while at work.

Accidents.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Fell through a scuttle-hole,	-	-	1	1
Finger cut,	-	-	1	1
Leg broken,	-	-	1	1
No accident,	81	120	799	1,000
Paralysis,	-	-	1	1
She is lame,	-	1	-	1
Sled ran into her, and bruised her ankle,	-	-	1	1
Sprained ankle,	-	-	1	1
Thrown from a carriage,	-	-	1	1
When a child, yes,	-	-	1	1
Yes,	2	1	18	21
Yes, sprain,	-	-	1	1
Yes, when a little girl, had her wrist broken,	-	1	-	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

But 7 of the girls have ever been in hospitals, either for accident or sickness, 837 testifying that they would not have to go, while the majority of the balance would go if necessary.

SANITARY SURROUNDINGS AT HOME.

Taken in connection with the information given under social condition, with regard to the surroundings of the homes of working girls, but little testimony touching the unfavorable

nature of the sanitary condition of the home was received. In numerous cases, however, girls were found living for the sake of economy in very limited quarters, which could not be conducive to good sanitary conditions. In some instances, girls were found living in small attic rooms, lighted and ventilated by the skylight only; the furnishings generally consisted of a small single bed, bureau and chair, with no wardrobe, except one curtained in the corner. In other cases, girls were forced to content themselves with small side rooms without a chance for a fire, which in some cases was sadly needed. One girl had a small side room in the third story of a respectable house, but said she could not expect much more at the present cost of living; still others were reported as living together with other members of the family in a tenement of one back room and side bedroom; another, as one of 18 families in a single building with hardly the necessary articles of furniture; another, occupying the third story of a house which seemed the poorest on the street. On the other hand, girls were found living in large rooms, quite well and sometimes handsomely furnished, in some instances with side rooms adjoining, not perhaps because they could really afford such quarters, but because they preferred to economize in other ways, in order to have some of the comforts, in looks at least, of home.

In a few cases where girls reported their health as being poor, or not good, they also complained of the poor board provided, as well as of the unpleasant surroundings at home; one girl made the statement that her home was pleasant and healthy, but to the agent of the bureau the reverse seemed to be the case, for the hall was dirty, the floor covered with a worn-out rag carpet while the air was filled with disagreeable odors; the girl appeared to be in poor health, untidily dressed, and dirty. Another was found living in the upper story of a cheap tenement house; directly in the rear of a kerosene factory having a tall chimney that constantly puffed out thick black smoke, which together with the offensive smell of the kerosene, forced the occupants always to keep the kitchen windows closed. In another case, one of the girls said that she spent all her spare time and Sundays with her sister in another part of the city, as her home was very unpleasant and uncomfortable; she also said the Board of Health

had visited the house last year and recommended many alterations, but she did not know whether they were attended to or not. Another girl was found living in four small rooms as one of a family of 12, in a house located very near a stable and having bad drainage. One other girl complained of the odor from the water-closets in the halls, and said it was anything but agreeable.

In a house where a considerable number of girls are cared for, it was found that there was no elevator in the building, and some of the girls were obliged to go up five flights of stairs to reach their rooms, two or three girls being placed in each room; the upper story of the building was without heat, and in winter was said to be like an ice house; radiators are placed at the ends of halls, and transoms open into the rooms, but these have no particular effect on the temperature of the rooms and there are no other ways of heating; extra charge is made for rooms heated directly by the register and even then such rooms are not always to be obtained, they being generally occupied, and there being but a few of them.

THE WORKROOM AND ITS SURROUNDINGS.

The testimony on this point coming from about one-half of the working girls seen, who speak specifically on the subject, shows that of this number, a very large proportion are well satisfied with their work, workroom, and its surroundings. The various adjectives used, in answering these points, as "good," "very good," "excellent," "fair," "satisfactory," indicate the degree of contentment with their surroundings, while in a few instances, the girls speak in the highest terms, as, "accommodations as good as could be wished"; "the best place in Boston"; "everything that could be desired"; "would not work anywhere else"; "could not be better in any way"; and similar expressions of satisfaction.

One of the principal things calling for special mention is the subject of ventilation of the workroom. While, as has just been said, a large proportion have signified their entire approbation with their surroundings at work, of those who have reason to complain the lack of proper ventilation is a very frequent and prominent cause of complaint.

Upon this point there is considerable testimony *pro* and *con*,

and if we include the large number who merely indicate their satisfaction with surroundings without giving details, it is safe to say that the majority of the girls are well situated in this respect. Of those who speak in praise of their workroom, we find three who say it is "pleasant and airy"; 29, "well-ventilated, clean and healthy"; one, "reasonably healthy"; three, "very pleasant"; one, "better than the average"; and two, "as nice as in Boston."

On the other hand, the girls who complain of poor accommodations so far as ventilation is concerned, make up a most respectable minority, and offer very conclusive evidence on this point.

In the testimony under consideration various reasons are given for the poor ventilation of workrooms, chief of which are, (1) closely built buildings, shutting off proper light and air; in the rebuilding and improvement of property there has been in some cases an attempt to remedy this, but with little success; the light and air coming wholly from above it is not possible to get sufficient circulation, and the effect on the girls, if not directly injurious, is at least depressing, and in the end very wearing; (2) the large number of people employed in one room, without sufficient air-space, in some cases together with odors coming from ingredients used in manufacturing certain articles, has a very bad effect on girls so compelled to work; on this particular point it is well to note that the girls were found to be engaged in occupations which called for the employment of as high a number as 350 persons, and down to places, where the girl questioned was "the only one employed"; in one instance (in boots and shoes), 35 girls and 150 men were reported as being "packed like sardines in a box," in a *very* small room for so large a force; also, 35 or 40 persons, in a small attic without ventilation of any kind; (3) small and low-studded rooms, with no ventilation except by windows, causing very bad draughts, and great inconvenience to the working girls, and oftentimes serious results, one girl complaining of an eight weeks' illness from bilious fever, largely due to bad atmosphere of workroom; another girl says she is stationed in a basement, where they suffer severely from draughts from constantly opening doors, is sick from colds frequently, the basement being damp as well as cold; she says

this is a general source of complaint, and, "if growling would have done any good, it would have been done away with long ago"; another girl also complains of catching bad colds from the door being left open constantly, by order of the employer; several girls were sick, while she had rheumatism from this cause; (4) windows not opened, for fear of retarding some process of manufacture, causing very bad ventilation, as in tobacco factories, shoe shops, confectionery manufactories, etc.; in one particular case, the girl reports help as "working in little pens all shelved over without sufficient light and air, windows not being open for fear of cooling wax thread used on sewing machines."

In addition to the above, one girl says, windows on one side are not opened on account of being near steam railroad, and being troubled with smoke from locomotives; another speaks of insufficiency of heating apparatus in winter, while two say they work in basements, but do not think them unhealthy, although one is subject to headaches. Others report being at work over meat-shops, which is unpleasant on account of bad odors when windows are open, especially in summer. Girls working in closely confined and overcrowded workrooms soon wear out and are often compelled to take vacations for rest and recuperation.

Of those who speak concerning the sanitary arrangements of the workroom (of whom there are however but a few), all complain of the dirty or filthy condition of the workroom, being troubled with offensive odors, in addition to poor ventilation, in all the cases mentioned. In one room, occupied by 20 girls and 10 men in tailoring, the girl thinks it a good place for the Board of Health to visit, the workroom being dirty and sanitary arrangements bad, rooms close and low-studded and ventilation only from bottom of window. In another instance, shop is reported "very dirty, in fact filthy, but she has got almost used to it now"; she considers her work (tailoring) and surroundings seriously interfere with her health. Another says "shop is filthy and unfit to work in; there are no conveniences for women, and men and women have to use the same closets, wash basins, drinking cups, etc." In the same way, one other girl speaks of the bad condition of her workroom, 40 hands being employed in the room, with practically no ventilation, in addition to which there is also a water-closet in centre of room

from which the stench which often rises is offensive. "Twenty girls in medium sized dark room with poor sanitary arrangements," and "unpleasant quarters, dirty and infested with bugs, etc.," are among the other cases reported. In conclusion, we have the testimony of one girl, that barrels of offal and swill are only removed from workroom at long intervals, but says it is rather the fault of the men than of the employer who has ordered its removal by them.

In connection with the workroom and its surroundings is disclosed the fact that girls are very frequently called upon to climb four, five, six, and even seven long flights of stairs in order to reach their work. The girls themselves in many instances make special mention of, as termed by them, this "hardship," and complain very much of having to climb stairs. Freight elevators, where used, are forbidden, in most cases, to help, while in some instances where their use for passenger service is permitted, a "danger" sign is posted, and they are used at the risk of the employés. In one case reported, the use of elevator by employés is allowed only at certain hours, and if any are tardy a few moments, they forfeit the privilege, and must mount the stairs, this being especially hard on one girl troubled with heart-disease, in whose favor no exception is made. One girl, lame from infancy, says that in climbing stairs she is placed at a great disadvantage, her workroom being "high up."

Some evidence is also furnished as to the matter of escapes in case of fire. A few report wide stairs, easy exits, and fire-escapes, while others say their workrooms are up three to six flights, with no fire-escapes, and in one case, with poor entrance, and narrow and dark passage ways not wide enough for two abreast, some 250 to 300 persons being employed in the building, up three if not more flights.

EFFECT OF WORK ON HEALTH.

Long hours, and being obliged to stand all day, are very generally advanced as the principal reasons for any lack or loss of health occasioned by the work of the girls. The nature of the work is mentioned as a cause for decline, which together with the other causes described will be found to be prevalent in all the various branches of their work.

Feather sorters, cotton sorters, and workers on any material which in its nature is apt to give off a "dust," complain of the disagreeable if not actually injurious effect on the health of persons so employed.

Taking the question by industries and occupations in detail, we find in **PERSONAL SERVICE**, that the restaurant employes generally complain of long hours, no dinner hour to speak of, and the great strain upon them from being busy all day on their feet. They all complain of a low state of health, and are pretty much tired out on reaching home. Of those giving testimony on their work and its effect on the health, two were found working noons only (about three hours), not being able to stand the strain of long hours, and being obliged to adopt this plan in order to get a little rest. Others report themselves troubled with rheumatism, tired and careworn, or not in good health, but obliged to work, although in one case particularly, in great distress from some lung or throat trouble.

In **TRADE**, a bookkeeper was found who had ruined her eyes, by bringing her books home nights and working until twelve and one o'clock. Among the saleswomen, "standing all day" is generally reported as being very trying on their health and strength. In one store, no stools are provided, the girls being obliged to go to one end of the store to sit down. The employer does not countenance help sitting down while customers are in the store, and as they are generally busy all day, there is little or no time when the store is vacant, the result being, practically, that the girls stand all day. Another girl says she works on outside counter, and owing to people constantly passing no stools can be used, and she finds the work very tiresome.

The new cash system requiring a constant raising of the arm is a great strain upon the girls, is very exhausting, and gives them a pain in the side; one girl reports many saleswomen out sick on this account.

A good many saleswomen consider their work very hard, and that it has a bad effect on their health; in one instance, a girl says she has paid out over \$500 in doctor's bills during the past few years. In one store, it is very unsatisfactory in this respect; no talking is allowed, only half enough time is given for dinner, and being obliged to walk home at night, the girl is

completely exhausted; on Saturday she brings dinner and supper.

In the busy season, the work is particularly trying. One girl says she gets pretty well tired out during this time (six months), and although there is not much chance to increase help, she thinks they might pay extra during the busy season.

In bakeries the strain of long hours and standing is especially felt by the salesgirls, while in other branches of business the health of many girls is so poor as to necessitate long rests, one girl being out a year on this account. Another girl in poor health was obliged to leave her work, while one other reports that it is not possible for her to work the year round, as she could not stand the strain, not being at all strong. A girl, who had worked in one place for three years, was obliged to leave on account of poor health, being completely run down from badly ventilated workrooms, and obliged to take an eight months' rest; she worked a week when not able, but left to save her life. She says she has to work almost to death to make fair compensation (now \$12 per week).

Under MANUFACTURES, in *Bookbinderies* and in the manufacture of *Brushes*, girls complain of their health being run down on account of work, or from over-work. In *Boots and Shoes*, the work is very hard, the girls being obliged to be on their feet all day, and in cases where they have to walk any great distance to their homes they become very tired at night.

In the manufacture of *Buttons*, the girls say the work is rather dangerous, as they are liable to get their fingers jammed under the punch, or caught in the die when it comes down to press the parts of the button together. A man (although not a surgeon) is provided to dress wounds three times for each individual without charge; afterwards, the person injured must pay all expenses. There are 35 machines in use, and accidents are of very frequent occurrence. One girl has been hurt several times, but only once seriously, when she had the end of her finger nearly taken off, while another had her hand badly jammed. The work is found to be very hard, and one girl reports that it often makes the knees and ankles very tired; she also says, that watching her work so steadily has so weakened her eyes that she is obliged to go to the Eye and Ear Infirmary.

In making *Paper Boxes*, the girls are obliged to stand, a practice they think is very injurious. The coloring matter in materials used in the construction and covering of boxes is considered dangerous to health by some, one girl being at home sick three months from blood poisoning caused by work. On the other hand, another girl reports that she does not think the coloring matter unhealthy or that girls are ever affected by it. "Too many improvements and too little pay" voices the feelings of one girl, who further says that the new machines sometimes cut the girls' fingers off, there being no protection for the hands.

In the *Clothing* business, the general testimony is that the work is very hard, and is the cause of a great deal of sickness among the working girls so employed. The tax on the strength is very great, and it would seem that unless a girl is strong and robust, the work soon proves too severe for her, and if followed thereafter results disastrously. The running of heavy sewing machines by foot power soon breaks down a girl's health, as several girls have testified. One girl says that steam was introduced six months ago to her great satisfaction, as she thinks foot power machines too severe for female operators. The girls think all the machines should be run by steam.

Other girls object to standing so much, and say that being on their feet all day and then walking to their homes makes them very tired at night.

The effect of the work on the health of the working girls engaged in tailoring is very apparent from their testimony. A girl who used to bring her work home, says she overtaxed her strength and is now sick. Others tell the same story, and say that overwork, and the desire to do more than strength would allow, has very seriously affected their health, in one case, the overstraining of the nerves causing deafness, while another girl says, "overwork, cold dinners, and constant application, has brought on chronic rheumatism." This girl was well and strong when she began work, and from motives of economy, she has only ridden *once* in a horse-car for 14 years. The mother of another girl, the only support of the family, "the father being worse than none at all," says the girl is breaking down under her work. She does all her own dressmaking, in addition to work. Several other girls testify that they work at times

when they ought to be in bed, but being obliged to work, can not take all the rest needed to fully recover strength. One girl in particular (a press girl) says she is now doing work formerly done by a man, is obliged to be on her feet all day, and in the vicinity of two hot fires. Her work is very trying. In the end, oftentimes, the girls who are not of strong constitutions, are finally compelled to give up business and try something less exacting; in one instance, the girl is now a book-sewer at \$3.50 a week.

In one or two cases, the girls report that the sewing has affected the eyes, compelling the use of glasses at all times and blue glasses on the street.

Under *Food Preparations*, a girl engaged in salt packing is troubled with asthma and bronchitis; she was told at the hospital that the salt would eat into her lungs, as they are diseased; she would leave, if she could find other work.

In the manufacture of confectionery, on account of hot temperatures of rooms, etc., the work is not considered healthy. Some of the girls say work is very severe, they being on their feet all day, while others are out sick, being run down from work.

In the cleaning and packing of fish, the girls say that the fishermen put cayenne pepper and saltpetre on the fish, and girls in handling get their hands and fingers blistered, and often the outside skin taken off; the effect being the same as though they were obliged to keep their hands in a strong caustic solution. One girl says she has tried rubber gloves, but without success. Another girl (a fish packer) says in consequence of the steam necessary to be used the atmosphere is very damp. She says other girls are obliged to stand in cold water all day, having their hands exposed to cold water, and when one was questioned as to what shop she worked in, she answered, "they're not shops, they're working stalls where we are." The same complaint as to standing all day is noticed in this branch of business.

In *Type Foundries*, the workroom is always filled with a fine lead dust, caused by "rubbing"; in some shops, this is quite perceptible when standing at one end of the room. This is thought by some to be very unhealthy, the girls and men being reported as having little or no color in their faces. Cases have been known, the girls say, of young girls who have died from

the effects of the work. They think it was due, however, to putting the fingers in the mouth when they were dry to enable them to work more easily. In the case of one young girl whose health was run down from work, as she says, the doctor advised her to leave the work altogether. Other girls say they do not consider the work unhealthy.

In *Straw Goods*, the girls very generally speak of the unhealthy nature of their business. In working on dyed braids, especially green, there is, according to the testimony of one girl, a very fine dust which produces a hacking which is almost constant, and to persons of consumptive tendencies, very injurious. Girls are advised by physicians in such cases to abandon the work. Another girl, in speaking of the dust, says that from black braid especially is very thick, settling on the face and neck so as to be plainly seen, and easily rubbed off, leaving a black smut on handkerchief. The same girl says work is very unhealthy, and during sickness, had diphtheria and then blood poisoning; she was advised not to return, but felt compelled to, as it is the only business at which she can make a decent living (\$12.00 per week). The season is short, but while at work, there is plenty of it. Some throat or lung trouble is very prevalent among the girls working on straw, and the hacking cough peculiar to the business is well-nigh universal. A great many girls are said to die of consumption, while many are often subject to severe cases of sickness, the direct result of work, one girl being sick from May until October, and not able to go to work until the following December. The running of the machines is very hard work; the circular motion and constant elevation of the arm, together with treadle movement, make the girls complain generally of a pleuritic affection. The acids used in setting colors cause very troublesome "acid" sores on the ends of the fingers.

One girl says work has no appreciable effect on her general health, neither has she any cough nor lung trouble so commonly complained of by operators who have worked longer at the business and are not so well provided for during resting intervals. Another girl says the work is very unhealthy for some, but that it does not hurt her health, except that her throat troubles her occasionally.

In *Leather Goods*, a girl says she earns as much as any girl

can, but not often, as she is obliged to keep a machine going by foot power and it is very tiresome.

In *Tobacco Factories*, when the girls first go to work, the tobacco makes them very sick, but they soon get used to it, and are not then affected by it at all. One girl, on being asked if girls ever got to smoking, said she did not know of a single instance, but sometimes, and quite often, girls would put a piece of tobacco in their mouths, and in this way, get to chewing but to no very great extent.

In *Rubber Goods*, the work is thought to be healthy, although some girls are made sick and can not stand it.

In *Furniture*, the work is found quite hard, on account of standing most of the time, while under the head of *Printing*, the only reason for complaint comes from a girl whose eyes troubled her very much on account of work, being obliged to see the doctor every five weeks, a matter of considerable expense to her.

The individual testimony regarding shops and their surroundings, and the effect of work upon health, has been given, as nearly as possible, in the language of the person interviewed. This testimony is that of the few, the great majority being in good health and in good surroundings.

It is in evidence from other sources that in a few stores, and in some of considerable size, the water-closet accommodations are very deficient, in one instance 60 women being obliged to use one closet. The evil effects of waiting for the use of a closet common to so large a number is apparent. Many of these women are constantly under the care of physicians for some disease growing out of the condition or things described. In such cases a little expense on the part of the proprietors would result in a happier and a healthier body of workers, and the outlay would be returned over and over again.

Some day law *must* compel men who are so negligent of the natural wants of their employés to adopt conveniences which through their own selfishness and foolishness they now withhold.

V. ECONOMIC CONDITION.

In dealing with the economic condition of the working girls, it is necessary of course to take into consideration their earnings, their expenses, and all the circumstances which affect either one or the other, or both. In speaking of earnings we are obliged to use three designations — wages, earnings, and income. By wages, we mean the actual pay per week at the time employed without reference to the number of weeks employed in the year. By earnings, we mean the total receipts for the year from wages; as for instance, if a girl is paid \$5 per week wages, and works 40 weeks in the year, her earnings for the year would be \$200, while her wages of \$5 per week might indicate that she earned \$260 per year; in the instance as supposed, her average weekly wages for the whole year would be \$3.84. By income, we mean the total receipts for the year from all sources, from wages, from extra work, from assistance by friends, or from investments; in fact, income means all the receipts for the year from which expenses can be paid.

WAGES AND EARNINGS.

The first table which we present shows the average weekly earnings in all occupations, during the whole time employed, and whether at work in Boston or in other places.

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN —					General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	European Countries.	
GOVERNMENT AND PROFESSIONAL.						
Government employ,	-	\$6 00	\$6 00			\$6 00
Authors and literary persons, . .	\$4 00	-	-			4 00
Artists,	6 00	-	-			6 00
Musicians and teachers of music,	7 50	7 00	-			7 33
Teachers,	5 00	6 33	6 31	\$6 32		6 15
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL OFFICE.						
Boarding and lodging,	5 85	6 00	6 20	5 00	\$3 28	5 70
Domestic service,*	4 96	5 12	4 63	5 87	3 99	4 93

* With board included, and computed at \$3.00 per week.

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed — Con.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN —					General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	European Countries.	
Personal Service :						
Carpet sewers,	\$7 28	-	-	-	-	\$7 28
Copyists,	6 78	-	-	-	-	6 76
Dye house employes,	6 80	-	-	-	-	6 80
Hair dressers,	6 25	-	-	-	-	6 25
Housekeepers,	6 33	-	-	-	-	6 33
Laundry work,	6 80	\$6 66	-	-	-	6 75
Mistresses,	6 12	-	-	-	-	6 12
Nurses,	9 50	-	\$4 50	-	-	8 78
Other personal service,	6 67	5 16	-	-	-	6 32
TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION.						
Bookkeepers,	6 55	7 00	8 00	-	-	6 67
Bundle girls, markers and packers,	3 13	-	-	-	-	3 13
Cashiers,	7 43	-	-	-	-	7 43
Cash girls,	2 02	-	-	-	-	2 02
Clerks,	5 28	-	-	-	-	5 26
Errand girls,	2 56	-	-	-	\$1 76	2 53
Pneumatic tube and cash dial tenders,	2 28	-	-	-	-	2 28
Saleswomen,	5 75	8 00	7 00	\$5 00	-	5 79
Canvassers,	7 00	15 00	-	-	-	9 66
Telegraph operators,	6 87	-	-	-	-	6 87
MANUFACTURES AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.						
<i>Artisans' Tools.</i>						
File cutters,	4 00	-	-	-	-	4 00
<i>Awnings and Tents.</i>						
Awning and tent sewers,	6 47	-	-	-	-	6 47
<i>Bags and Bagging.</i>						
Turning bags,	4 00	-	-	-	-	4 00
<i>Bookbinding.</i>						
Bookbinders,	5 60	5 00	-	-	-	5 39
Book folders and gatherers,	6 69	-	-	3 50	-	5 56
Book sewers,	5 67	-	-	-	-	6 67
Indexers,	5 33	-	-	-	-	5 33
<i>Boots and Shoes.</i>						
Boot and shoe shops (best rates),	7 25	7 38	8 50	-	-	7 64
Boot and shoe shops (lower rates),	4 23	4 00	-	-	-	4 20
Drafter of shoe patterns,	5 00	-	-	-	-	6 00
Heel cutters and makers,	4 33	-	-	-	-	4 33
Inner sole makers,	4 25	-	-	-	-	4 25
Pasters,	5 76	9 00	-	-	-	6 14
Shoe binders,	4 00	3 00	-	-	-	3 25
Shoe findings,	4 00	-	-	-	-	4 00
Slipper makers,	4 60	3 00	-	-	-	4 33
Stitchers, machine (shoe and slipper),	6 92	8 00	-	5 00	-	6 87
<i>Boxes.</i>						
Paper box makers,	5 19	1 80	6 50	-	-	6 14
<i>Brooms and Brushes.</i>						
Brush makers,	5 06	5 00	6 00	-	-	5 12
Feather duster makers,	3 25	-	-	-	-	3 25
<i>Buttons and Dress Trimmings.</i>						
Button makers,	3 67	4 00	-	-	-	3 69
Trimming makers,	5 00	-	-	-	-	5 00
Embroiderers,	5 67	-	-	-	-	6 67
Fringe makers,	3 96	-	-	-	-	3 96
Lace cutter,	3 50	-	-	-	-	3 60
<i>Carpetings.</i>						
Carpet mill operatives,	7 68	-	-	-	4 86	7 52

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed—Con.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN—					General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	European Countries.	
<i>Clocks and Watches.</i>						
Watch jewels examiner, etc.,	\$9 50	-	-	-	-	\$9 60
Watch parts maker, etc.,	5 00	-	-	-	-	5 00
Watch case polishers,	7 00	-	-	-	-	7 00
Watch factory operatives,	6 00	\$8 75	-	-	-	7 83
CLOTHING.						
<i>Men's Clothing.</i>						
<i>Tailorssaea.</i>						
Basters,	2 13	-	-	-	-	2 13
Bushelwomen,	6 43	-	-	-	-	6 43
Button-hole finisher,	4 60	-	-	-	-	4 60
Button-hole makers,	6 78	-	-	-	-	6 78
Examiner,	8 00	-	-	-	-	8 00
Forewoman,	8 00	-	-	-	-	8 00
General shop girls,	2 32	-	-	\$2 50	-	2 34
Pocket maker and finisher,	5 00	-	-	-	-	5 00
Press girls,	6 30	-	-	-	-	6 30
Sewing machine operators,	7 31	-	-	-	-	7 31
Tailorssaea,	6 58	6 50	\$8 66	6 66	\$8 75	6 70
Trimmers,	8 00	-	-	-	-	8 00
<i>Coats.</i>						
Bushelwomen,	7 00	-	-	-	-	7 00
Coat basters,	6 42	-	-	6 00	-	6 41
Coat collar maker,	3 00	-	-	-	-	3 00
Coat finishers,	4 13	-	-	-	-	4 13
Coat makers,	7 29	8 00	4 66	3 30	1 00	6 73
Coat pressers,	6 75	-	-	-	-	6 75
Custom button-hole maker,	10 00	-	-	-	-	10 00
Sewing machine operators,	7 85	-	8 50	-	-	7 96
<i>Pantaloonss.</i>						
Pantaloon finisher,	2 00	-	-	-	-	2 00
Pantaloon makers,	8 50	-	-	-	-	8 50
Pantaloon stitcher,	11 00	-	-	-	-	11 00
<i>Vests.</i>						
Sewing machine operator,	6 00	-	-	-	-	6 00
Vest makers,	9 89	-	2 50	3 75	-	8 25
<i>Hats and Caps.</i>						
Cap makers,	4 42	-	-	-	1 75	4 08
Hat binder,	7 00	-	-	-	-	7 00
Hat trimmers,	7 14	4 00	10 00	-	-	7 40
Plush sewers,	6 80	-	12 00	-	-	8 29
<i>Neckties and Furnishing Goods.</i>						
Machine operators, furnishing goods,	6 17	-	-	-	-	6 17
Machine operator, necktie,	6 00	-	-	-	-	5 00
Necktie makers,	6 86	10 00	-	-	-	7 25
<i>Oiled Clothing.</i>						
Machine operators,	6 00	-	-	-	-	6 00
<i>Overalls, Jumpers, and Colored Shirts.</i>						
Colored shirt and overalls maker,	3 00	-	-	-	-	3 00
Overalls makers,	6 60	-	-	-	-	5 50
Overalls and jumper makers,	3 15	-	-	-	-	3 15
Sewing machine operators,	5 50	-	-	-	-	6 50
<i>Shirts.</i>						
Button-hole maker,	10 00	-	-	-	-	10 00
Sewing machine operators,	7 58	-	-	-	-	7 58
Shirt bosom folder,	8 00	-	-	-	-	8 00
Shirt bosom maker,	8 00	-	-	-	-	8 00
Shirt finishers,	4 94	-	-	-	-	4 94
Shirt makers,	6 27	8 00	2 50	-	1 68	6 22
Shirt makers (flannel),	4 33	-	-	-	-	4 33
<i>Suspenders.</i>						
Forewoman,	7 00	-	-	-	-	7 00
Machine buckle cutter,	6 00	-	-	-	-	6 00
Machine stitchers,	4 26	-	-	-	-	4 25
Suspender makers,	4 64	-	-	-	-	4 64
Suspender packers,	5 75	-	-	-	-	5 75

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed — Con.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN —					General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	European Countries.	
<i>Women's Clothing.</i>						
Dressmakers.						
Dressmakers,	\$7 42	\$10 22	\$7 60	\$4 02	\$2 08	\$7 17
Dress and cloak maker,	8 00	—	—	—	—	8 00
Button-hole makers,	4 25	—	—	—	—	4 25
Cutter,	9 00	—	—	—	—	9 00
Milliners.						
Milliners,	7 97	12 50	10 00	—	3 50	8 07
Seamstresses.						
Seamstresses,	6 18	5 50	4 00	3 00	3 00	5 82
Buttons,	5 00	—	—	—	—	5 00
Collars and cuffs,	8 66	—	—	—	—	8 66
Costumes,	8 66	—	—	—	—	8 66
Infants' underwear,	9 00	—	—	—	—	9 00
Lace work,	3 92	—	—	—	—	3 92
Sewing machine operators,	6 62	—	7 00	—	—	6 64
Women's underwear,	6 08	—	—	—	—	6 08
Fur sewer,	8 00	—	—	—	—	8 00
Glove sewer,	7 00	—	—	—	—	7 00
Bonnets and Hats.						
Bonnet frame makers,	6 50	—	—	—	—	6 50
Lace worker, bonnet frames,	6 00	—	—	—	—	6 00
Pompon maker,	5 00	—	—	—	—	5 00
Cloaks, Sacks, and Suits.						
Cloak makers,	6 26	—	—	11 00	—	6 41
Cloak and suit makers,	11 00	—	—	—	—	11 00
Cloak presser,	8 00	—	—	—	—	8 00
Cloak trimmers,	5 50	—	—	—	—	5 00
Sack maker,	1 50	—	—	—	—	1 50
Corsets.						
Corset makers,	5 32	—	7 50	—	—	5 44
Hoopskirts and Bustles.						
Bustle makers,	3 25	—	—	—	—	3 25
Hoopskirt crammer,	3 00	—	—	—	—	3 00
Hoopskirt makers,	5 17	—	—	—	—	5 17
<i>Cordage and Twine.</i>						
Bobbin winders,	3 75	—	—	—	—	3 75
Net makers,	4 38	—	—	—	—	4 38
Twine makers,	3 00	5 00	—	—	—	4 00
<i>Cotton Goods.</i>						
Cotton mill operatives,	3 94	6 02	8 00	—	—	5 62
Quilt makers,	6 14	—	—	—	—	5 14
<i>Cotton, Woollen, and other Textiles.</i>						
Bobbin winder, mittens,	3 50	—	—	—	—	3 50
Craab weaver,	3 00	—	—	—	—	3 00
Hosiery mill operatives,	—	6 25	8 00	—	—	6 83
Knitting worsted goods,	—	5 00	—	—	—	5 00
Machine operator, mittens,	9 00	—	—	—	—	9 00
Mitten makers,	3 75	—	—	—	—	3 75
Seamstress, cardigan jackets,	6 00	—	—	—	—	6 00
Woollen yarn maker,	3 50	—	—	—	—	3 50
Worsted workers,	5 17	—	—	—	—	5 17
<i>Crayons, Pencils, etc.</i>						
Chalk maker,	—	9 00	—	—	—	9 00
<i>Drugs and Medicines.</i>						
Bottler of medicines,	6 00	—	—	—	—	6 00
General work,	5 00	—	—	—	—	5 00
Packers of troches,	4 25	—	—	—	—	4 25
Plaster makers,	6 50	—	—	—	—	6 50
<i>Fireworks and Matches.</i>						
Match packers,	4 66	—	—	—	—	4 66

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed—Con.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN—					General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	European Countries.	
<i>Flax, Linen, Hemp, and Jute Goods.</i>						
Net and seine maker,	\$6 00		-		-	\$6 00
<i>Food Preparations.</i>						
Bottle labellers,	4 50	\$4 00				4 33
Candy makers and packers,	4 04	-			-	4 04
Canning meat, etc.,	4 75				-	4 75
Coffee pickers,	5 50		-		-	5 50
Coverer of yeast cakes,	5 00		-		-	5 00
Cracker baker,	5 00				-	5 00
Fish cleaners and packers,	4 03				-	4 03
Pickle bottlers,	4 50				-	4 50
Salt packer,	5 00		-			5 00
Spice mill operative,	6 50				-	5 50
<i>Furniture.</i>						
Curled hair carder,	4 00				-	4 00
Curtains and drapery,	6 63				-	6 63
Mattress and pillow makers,	6 91				-	6 91
Tassel maker,		6 00			-	6 00
Upholsterers,	9 70	-	\$21 00		\$5 50	10 71
<i>Glue, Isinglass, and Starch.</i>						
Starch maker,	4 50	-			-	4 50
<i>Hair Work.</i>						
Hair work (human hair),	5 40	-	-		-	6 40
Wig maker,	10 00					10 00
<i>Ink.</i>						
Ink labellers and bottlers,	3 00	-			-	3 00
<i>Leather.</i>						
Collar and belt makers,	6 00	-	-		-	6 00
General work,	4 00				-	4 00
<i>Metals and Metallic Goods.</i>						
Britannia worker,	4 00	-	-		-	4 00
China and porcelain burnishers,	6 00				-	6 00
Gold bookers, layers, gilders,	6 45	-	-		-	6 45
Jewelry makers,	5 65		5 00		-	5 54
Nail and rivet makers,	5 25	-	-		-	5 25
Type breakers, rubbers, and setters (foundry),	4 67		-		-	4 67
<i>Mixed Textiles.</i>						
Mill operatives,	-	5 10	7 50		-	5 90
Wcavers,	9 50	6 25	6 67		1 88	5 84
<i>Musical Instruments and Materials.</i>						
Musical instruments maker,	3 00				-	3 00
Musical string winder,	7 00	-			-	7 00
Piano bushers,	7 50	-			-	7 50
<i>Paper.</i>						
Card makers, cutters, fringers, sorters, and packers,	3 90	-	-		-	3 90
Paper bag makers,	4 35	-	-		-	4 35
Paper block maker,	5 00	-	-		-	5 00
Rag cutters,	4 00	-	-		-	4 00
Stock room,	5 00	-	-		-	5 00
<i>Photographs and Photographic Materials.</i>						
Photograph printers, fobshers, and colorers,	6 00	-	-		-	6 00
<i>Polishes and Dressings.</i>						
Blacking bottlers, and labellers,	4 35	-	-		-	4 35

Average Weekly Earnings during Whole Time Employed — Con.

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN —				General Average.
	Boston.	Other parts of Mass.	Other States.	British America.	
<i>Printing and Publishing.</i>					
Compositors,	\$6 85	\$6 00	-	-	\$6 76
Mailing newspapers,	-	-	-	\$5 00	5 00
Paper rulers, and folders,	8 42	-	-	-	8 42
Press-feeders,	4 75	-	-	-	4 75
Proof-readers,	9 50	-	-	-	9 50
<i>Rubber and Elastic Goods.</i>					
Button-hole makers, gossamer clothing,	9 50	-	-	-	9 50
Gossamer clothing finishers,	4 83	-	-	-	4 83
Gossamer clothing makers,	6 83	-	-	-	6 83
Machine stitchers, gossamer clothing,	7 42	-	-	-	7 42
Rubber goods factory,	6 83	4 88	-	-	6 40
Rubber hat makers,	4 33	-	-	-	4 33
Weavers, elastic fabrics,	6 50	11 00	-	-	9 50
<i>Scientific Instruments and Appliances.</i>					
Electrical machine makers,	5 33	-	-	-	5 33
Truss and suspender makers,	6 50	-	-	-	6 50
<i>Silk and Silk Goods.</i>					
Silk factory operatives,	7 20	5 00	-	-	6 57
<i>Sporting Goods.</i>					
Base ball maker,	1 80	-	-	-	1 80
<i>Straw Goods.</i>					
Straw goods bleachery,	7 60	-	\$12 00	-	8 33
Sawing machine operators,	9 87	12 00	12 00	-	10 60
Straw sewers, etc.,	8 08	7 50	4 00	\$9 00	7 77
<i>Soap.</i>					
Soap maker,	3 00	-	-	-	3 00
<i>Tobacco and Cigars.</i>					
Cigar makers,	7 83	-	-	10 00	8 14
Tobacco strippers, etc.,	4 45	-	-	-	4 45
<i>Wooden Goods.</i>					
Picture frame gilder,	7 00	-	-	-	7 00
Razor strop maker,	-	6 00	-	-	6 00
<i>Woollen Goods.</i>					
Blanket maker,	6 00	-	-	-	6 00
Woollen mill operatives,	5 30	-	-	-	5 30
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>					
Various occupations,	4 06	-	-	-	4 06

RECAPITULATION.

CLASSIFICATION.	BOSTON.		OTHER PARTS OF MASS.		OTHER STATES.	
	Number.	Average weekly earnings.	Number.	Average weekly earnings.	Number.	Average weekly earnings.
Government and professional, Domestic and personal office,	7	\$5 57	5	\$6 40	10	\$6 28
Trade and transportation,	178	5 94	27	5 33	21	4 69
Manufactures and mechanical industries,	221	5 00	4	9 25	4	7 25
	1,293	6 22	72	7 06	49	7 58
All occupations,	1,699	\$6 03	108	\$6 68	84	\$6 69

RECAPITULATION — Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	BRITISH AMERICA.		EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.		GENERAL AVERAGE.	
	Number.	Average weekly earnings.	Number.	Average weekly earnings.	Number.	Weekly earnings.
Government and professional, Domestic and personal office, .	2	\$6 33	-	-	24	\$6 10
Trade and transportation, .	5	5 70	5	\$3 85	236	5 71
Manufactures and mechanical industries,	1	5 00	1	1 75	231	5 10
	32	4 62	23	3 61	1,469	6 23
All occupations,	40	\$4 85	29	\$3 59	1,960	\$6 03

From the foregoing table, we see that the average weekly earnings, in Boston were \$6.03. In occupations in other parts of Massachusetts the average weekly earnings were \$6.68, and in other States they had been \$6.69, while in British America they had been only \$4.85, and in other foreign countries \$3.59. The conclusion is that in coming to America earnings had improved, while in coming to Boston from other parts of Massachusetts or from other States of the Union, the girls had apparently experienced a slight loss. The comparatively meagre returns outside of Boston, and the presence of some cases of unusually high wages, may make this loss more apparent than real. It must be true, however, that in coming to Boston from other parts of the State, or from other States, working girls have not secured an advanced wage sufficient to counterbalance their necessarily increased expenses.

From an analysis of present and past earnings we find that 176 are now earning less than at some previous time, while 351 are earning more, 50 are earning the same, 448 have been engaged in one occupation only, while seven failed to state previous wages.

In contrast with the foregoing, we present a table showing the present actual weekly earnings of the girls, meaning by this, the actual weekly earnings represented by the earnings of the week when returns were made; this table we present by industries.

Present Actual Weekly Earnings.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	Present actual weekly earnings.
PERSONAL SERVICE.		
Carpet seweries,	12	\$8 45
Copyists,	3	7 00
Dye house employes,	6	5 98
Laundry employes,	8	6 46
Matrons and nurses,	7	7 80
Restaurant employes,	18	4 06
Sewing machine teachers,	3	6 79
Telegraph operators,	3	8 46
Other personal service,	23	5 45
	83	\$6 13
TRADE.		
Bookkeepers,	11	6 12
Clerks,	15	5 02
Cashiers,	5	6 47
Cash dial tenders,	7	2 29
Errand girls,	6	2 73
Writers,	3	6 83
Saleswomen,	77	6 20
	123	\$5 71
MANUFACTURES.		
Bookbinderies,	29	5 72
Boots and shoes,	26	5 48
Brooms and brushes,	9	5 18
Buttons and dress trimmings,	17	4 89
Carpetings,	17	8 13
Clocks and watches,	7	6 71
Clothing, men's, —		
Tailoresses,	72	6 49
Coats,	87	6 59
F Pantaloon,	26	7 74
Vests,	9	6 81
Hats and caps,	11	5 14
Neckties and furnishing goods,	7	6 48
Oiled clothing,	3	6 50
Overalls, jumpers, and colored shirts,	5	4 93
Shirts,	27	6 36
Suspenders,	10	5 00
Clothing, women's, —		
Dressmakers: in business for themselves,	38	10 38
Dressmakers: at work for others,	62	6 90
Milliners,	15	10 36
Seamstresses,	36	6 21
Bonnets and hats,	7	6 78
Cloaks, sacks, and suits,	26	7 02
Corsets,	7	6 91
Hoopskirts and bustles,	8	4 60
Cotton, woollen, and worsted goods,	12	5 56
Drugs and medicines,	5	5 78
Food preparations,	33	4 53
Furniture,	18	7 16
Hair,	4	7 14
Leather,	3	5 17
Metals and metallic goods,	15	5 33
Musical instruments and strings,	3	7 00
Nets, seines, etc.,	4	4 00
Paper,	14	3 96
Paper boxes,	32	5 16
Photographs,	3	5 74
Polishes and dressings,	4	4 75
Printing and publishing,	28	6 61
Rubber and elastic goods,	65	6 08
Scientific instruments and appliances,	7	5 48
Silk,	3	6 67
Straw goods,	11	9 48
Tobacco,	11	5 91
	826	\$6 47

RECAPITULATION. — *Present Actual Weekly Earnings* — Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.	Present actual weekly earnings.
Personal service,	83	\$6 13
Trade,	123	5 71
Manufactures,	826	6 47
	1,032	\$6 35

From the foregoing we find the positive wage figures, in the different kinds of services, to be, in personal service, \$6.13 per week, in trade, \$5.71 per week, in manufactures, \$6.47 per week; the average for all being \$6.35 per week.

These averages it must be remembered are the actual week's earnings without reference to the time for which wages are received; tables later on will show the distinction.

The short table following, exhibits the present actual weekly earnings together with the number assisted and the wages received by those assisted, the number doing work other than in their regular employments, and the number having board, room, or both, free in addition to their wages.

This table shows that 921 girls out of the 1,032, earned less than \$10 per week.

This table is followed by another showing the average weekly earnings during working time, from which table it is seen that 331 received less than \$5 per week on this basis, and 614 received from \$5 to \$10 per week; of course these sums are not distributed over the 52 weeks of the year, but are for the actual number of weeks worked.

Present Actual Weekly Earnings.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufactures.	Aggregates.	Number assisted.	Number doing other work.	Number having board, room, or both, free.
Under \$1 00	1	—	—	1	—	—	—
\$1 00 to 2 00	1	—	8	9	1	—	2
2 00 to 3 00	2	13	24	39	1	1	2
3 00 to 4 00	6	18	57	81	4	4	7
4 00 to 5 00	19	16	123	158	10	6	13
5 00 to 6 00	15	11	164	190	18	5	4

Present Actual Weekly Earnings—Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggre- gates.	Number assisted.	Number doing other work.	Number having board, room, or both, free.
\$6 00 to \$7 00 .	15	19	137	171	10	3	2
7 00 to 8 00 .	6	22	103	131	21	6	4
8 00 to 9 00 .	7	11	69	87	13	4	—
9 00 to 10 00 .	—	3	51	54	7	5	5
10 00 to 11 00 .	5	7	38	50	6	4	—
11 00 to 12 00 .	2	1	14	17	8	2	—
12 00 to 13 00 .	2	1	15	18	2	1	2
13 00 to 14 00 .	—	—	5	5	3	1	—
15 00 to 16 00 .	1	1	6	8	2	—	1
16 00 to 17 00 .	—	—	3	3	1	—	1
18 00 to 19 00 .	1	—	5	6	3	—	3
20 87 .	—	—	1	1	1	—	—
22 94 .	—	—	1	1	1	—	—
31 90 .	—	—	1	1	—	1	—
35 00 .	—	—	1	1	—	—	—
Totals, .	83	123	826	1,032	112	43	46

Average Weekly Earnings during Working Time.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manufac- tures.	Aggregates.
Under \$1 00	—	—	1	1
\$1 00 to 2 00	3	—	9	12
2 00 to 3 00	2	14	24	40
3 00 to 4 00	10	20	78	108
4 00 to 5 00	19	15	136	170
5 00 to 6 00	13	14	155	182
6 00 to 7 00	14	19	150	183
7 00 to 8 00	5	22	103	130
8 00 to 9 00	7	9	57	73
9 00 to 10 00	—	3	43	46
10 00 to 11 00	5	5	35	45
11 00 to 12 00	—	—	8	8
12 00 to 13 00	2	1	15	18
13 00 to 14 00	—	—	2	2
14 00 to 15 00	—	—	2	2
15 00 to 16 00	1	1	4	6
16 00	—	—	1	1
17 95	—	—	1	1
18 00	1	—	1	2
35 00	—	—	1	1
Not given,	1	—	—	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

To complete the value of the two preceding tables, the following table is given.

Number of Weeks receiving Income from Occupation.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
3 weeks,	—	1	1	2
4 weeks,	—	—	2	2
8 weeks,	—	—	1	1
9 weeks,	—	—	2	2
12 weeks,	—	1	—	1
13 weeks,	1	2	6	9
14 weeks,	—	—	2	2
15 weeks,	—	—	1	1
16 weeks,	—	—	1	1
17 weeks,	—	—	4	4
18 weeks,	2	—	3	5
20 weeks,	—	—	1	1
21 weeks,	—	—	1	1
22 weeks,	—	—	5	5
23 weeks,	—	—	2	2
24 weeks,	—	—	1	1
25 weeks,	—	—	1	1
26 weeks,	7	4	63	74
28 weeks,	—	1	1	2
29 weeks,	—	—	3	3
30 weeks,	3	—	23	26
31 weeks,	—	2	8	10
32 weeks,	1	2	7	10
33 weeks,	—	1	1	2
34 weeks,	—	1	—	1
35 weeks,	2	4	17	23
36 weeks,	1	3	32	36
37 weeks,	—	1	9	10
38 weeks,	2	2	6	10
39 weeks,	4	8	47	59
40 weeks,	—	8	51	59
41 weeks,	—	—	6	6
42 weeks,	—	2	24	26
43 weeks,	1	2	18	21
44 weeks,	8	14	101	123
45 weeks,	2	1	10	13
46 weeks,	4	5	43	52
47 weeks,	1	1	30	32
48 weeks,	7	9	67	83
49 weeks,	2	7	34	43
50 weeks,	7	17	65	89
51 weeks,	4	2	32	38
52 weeks,	23	22	94	139
Not regularly employed,	1	—	—	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

We now draw from the preceding table the fact that the 1,032 girls worked on an average 42.95 weeks per year, and the average weekly earnings during working time are based on this average. On the other hand, the actual earnings and income for 42.95 weeks, in order to show the average weekly wages per year, must be distributed over 52 weeks.

Average Weekly Earnings during Working Time.

[Being 42.95 weeks during the year.]

OCCUPATIONS.	ASSISTED.		NOT ASSISTED.		AGGREGATES.	
	Number.	Wage.	Number.	Wage.	Number.	Wage.
Personal service,	12	\$4 59	71	\$5 91	83	\$5 72
Trade,	17	5 96	106	5 47	123	5 54
Manufactures,	132	6 63	694	6 02	826	6 12
	161	\$6 41	871	\$5 94	1,032	\$6 01

We have in this recapitulation, for purposes of analysis, distributed the average weekly wages during working time among the assisted and not assisted. From this a curious fact appears, that in the average of all occupations it seems that those who have received assistance also received the highest actual wage for the actual time employed, that is, the assisted earned independent of their assistance an average weekly wage for 42.95 weeks of \$6.41, while those not assisted in any way, received but \$5.94 for the time worked. *These earnings distributed over the 52 weeks, give \$4.91 as the average weekly earnings, of the working girls involved, for the whole year.*

INCOME.

In addition to earnings through wages under the regular occupations filled, some gain is made through other work done, but very few girls however are able to do work outside of their regular employment, 971 out of the 1,032 receiving no income from other work, and nearly all who are able to do any outside work are engaged in manufactures, only 5 classified under personal service being able to make any extra earnings and only 7 engaged in trade being able so to do.

We learn that the average weekly income, from these sources, is only 6 cents per week when divided among the 1,032 girls for the year, but the range for those doing other work is all the way from 7 cents to \$17.98 per week actually, the average for those who did receive income from other work being \$1.10 per week during the year.

The following table shows how or in what calling these extra earnings were made.

Other Work Done besides at Regular Occupation.

CLASSIFICATION.	Amounts.	Num- ber.	CLASSIFICATION.	Amounts.	Num- ber.
Bonnet making,	\$60	1	Saturday evenings in a		
Cashier,	208	1	store,	\$38	1
Cleaning, etc.,	50	1	Seamstress,	50	1
Clerk Saturday evenings, .	3	1	Seamstress,	15	1
Dressing dolls,	156	1	Seamstress,	10	1
Dressmaking,	100	1	Seamstress,	10	1
Dressmaking,	91	1	Seamstress,	8	1
Dressmaking,	75	1	Seamstress,	7	1
Dressmaking,	25	1	Seamstress,	6	1
Dressmaking,	20	1	Seamstress,	6	1
Dressmaking,	9	1	Seamstress,	2	1
Dressmaking,	6	1	Sewing and keeping lodg-		
Dressmaking,	5	1	ers,	50	1
Dressmaking,	-	1	Sewing,	50	
Fish factory,	15	1	lodgers,	50	1
Hotel work,	42	1	Silk factory,	16	1
Hotel wrnk,	42	1	Table work with board, .	60	
Housework,	10	2	dressmaking,	36	1
Housework,	6	1	Table work,	42	1
Housework,	-	1	Table work,	24	1
Keeping lodging house,	935	1	Table work,	18	1
Laundress,	40	1	Teaching music,	192	1
No other work done, . . .	-	971	Not specified (average), .	32	18
Preserving flowers at					
home,	150	1			
Rubber clothing,	65	1	Totals,		1,032

Another source of income is through the assistance of friends, and yet 881 of the whole number receive no assistance at all; 31 have assistance in some material way, but the money value was not stated; 912 received no money assistance; while 120 had received money, or assistance the money value of which was given. The total number assisted in all ways was 151.

The number assisted, the sources from which received, and the amount received, are brought out in the two statements following.

We learn that the average of such assistance among the girls assisted is \$1.39 per week, but distributed over the whole number involved (1,032), for the year, it is only 20 cents per week.

Assistance.

CLASSIFICATION.	Amount.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Amount.	Number.
Assisted,	-	1	From mother,	\$139	1
From aunt,	\$10	1	From mother,	-	1
From aunt in clothing,	-	1	From mother for clothing,	56	1
Board and money from aunt,	-	1	From mother and brother, clothing, and	35	1
From bank,	100	2	Clothing from mother,	-	1
Board,	-	5	From niece for board,	182	1
Besides board,	10	1	From nieces for board,	442	1
Board included,	415	1	No assistance,	-	881
Board and room,	-	1	From Odd Fellows,	13	1
From brothers,	46	1	From parents,	33	1
From brother,	75	1	From parents,	39	1
From brother,	95	1	From parents,	50	1
From brother,	9	-	From parents,	25	1
From father,	10	1	From parents,	30	1
From charity,	53	1	From parents,	35	1
Clothing,	-	12	From parents,	90	1
Clothing, and	10	1	From parents,	150	1
Clothing, and	18	1	From parents,	72	1
Coal from the city,	-	1	From parents,	81	1
Board from daughter,	120	1	From parents in clothes,	60	1
From daughter,	100	1	From parents, dresses, etc.,	78	1
From daughter,	125	1	From parents, for clothing,	92	1
From daughter and step-mother,	252	1	Clothing from parents,	27	1
From family,	17	1	Present,	10	1
From father,	10	1	From previous savings,	10	1
From father,	25	1	From previous savings,	23	1
From father,	31	1	From previous savings,	30	1
From father,	40	1	From previous savings,	32	1
From father,	150	1	From previous savings,	59	1
From father and brother,	54	1	From previous savings,	64	1
From father,	100	-	From relatives,	18	1
From previous savings,	60	1	From relatives,	113	1
Clothing from father,	45	1	Rent of part of tenement,	104	1
Dresses from father,	50	1	Rent of rooms,	150	1
Father and mother, board and lodging,	91	1	From rent of part of house,	168	-
From father when necessary,	-	1	From sister,	57	1
From friends,	30	1	From savings in former years,	104	1
From friends,	75	1	From savings in former years,	70	1
Clothing from friends,	-	1	Shoes given by brother,	15	1
Gifts, also clothes,	125	1	From sister,	30	1
From husband,	65	1	From sister,	70	1
From husband,	69	1	From sister,	-	1
From husband,	80	1	From sister,	75	1
From husband,	191	1	Sister does her washing and sometimes give her clothing,	40	1
From husband,	336	1	From son,	40	1
From husband,	450	1	From sons,	107	1
From husband's lodge,	-	1	From son,	-	1
Extra income,	50	1	From uncle,	462	1
In clothing,	4	1	Whole living,	-	1
From lodge,	10	1	Not specified (average),	91	35
From lodge,	5	1			
From lodging rooms,	200	1			
For medicine,	125	1			
Money earned previously,	50	1			
			Total,		1,032

Average Amount of Assistance Weekly.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Under \$1 00	6	11	47	64
\$1 00 to 2 00	3	3	23	29
2 00 to 3 00	—	2	12	14
3 00 to 4 00	—	—	5	5
4 00 to 5 00	1	—	2	3
6 00 to 7 00	—	—	2	2
7 00 to 8 00	—	—	2	2
8 00 to 9 00	—	—	3	3
No assistance,	73	107	730	910
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

With the tables already presented, we can now summarize the income of the working girls; this is done in four short tables which follow.

Average Weekly Income from All Sources.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Under \$1 00	3	1	9	13
\$1 00 to 2 00	4	13	33	50
2 00 to 3 00	9	18	95	122
3 00 to 4 00	13	16	137	166
4 00 to 5 00	17	15	161	193
5 00 to 6 00	11	24	132	167
6 00 to 7 00	10	19	109	138
7 00 to 8 00	3	7	54	64
8 00 to 9 00	4	6	39	49
9 00 to 10 00	—	—	17	17
10 00 to 11 00	4	2	10	16
11 00 to 12 00	1	—	8	9
12 00 to 13 00	2	1	9	12
13 00 to 14 00	1	1	3	5
14 71	—	—	1	1
15 00 to 16 00	1	—	3	4
16 96	—	—	1	1
17 00 to 18 00	—	—	3	3
18 00	—	—	1	1
21 90	—	—	1	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Average Weekly Income.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number of working girls.	Aggregate sum received weekly.	Average weekly income.
Personal service,	83	\$435 89	\$5 25
Trade,	123	591 65	4 81
Manufactures,	826	4,310 56	5 22
Totals,	1,032	\$5,338 10	\$5 17

Total Yearly Income.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Under \$50 00.	3	1	8	12
\$50 00 to 100 00.	4	11	29	44
100 00 to 150 00.	8	17	82	107
150 00 to 200 00.	11	17	129	157
200 00 to 250 00.	20	13	151	184
250 00 to 300 00.	4	22	136	162
300 00 to 350 00.	16	15	103	134
350 00 to 400 00.	2	16	74	92
400 00 to 450 00.	5	5	43	53
450 00 to 500 00.	1	2	24	27
500 00 to 550 00.	4	2	15	21
550 00 to 600 00.	—	—	7	7
600 00 to 650 00.	3	1	11	15
650 00 to 700 00.	1	—	1	2
700 00 to 750 00.	—	1	3	4
750 00 to 800 00.	1	—	2	3
800 00 to 850 00.	—	—	2	2
850 00 to 900 00.	—	—	2	2
900 00 to 950 00.	—	—	3	3
1,139 00.	—	—	1	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Average Yearly Income.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number of working girls.	Aggregate sum received yearly.	Average yearly income.
Personal service,	83	\$22,661	\$273 02
Trade,	123	30,828	250 63
Manufactures,	826	224,187	271 41
Totals,	1,032	\$277,676	\$269 07

The average weekly income from all sources whatever for 544 girls was \$5 per week or less, while 435 received a total average weekly income of from \$5 to \$10, there being only 53 receiving a total average weekly income of over \$10 per week. *Brought into specific averages, we find that the average weekly income for the year was in personal service \$5.25, in trade \$4.81, in manufactures \$5.22, or the general average for all involved for the whole year was \$5.17 per week. This latter figure must stand as the total average weekly income from all sources, earnings, assistance, and other work, of the working girls of Boston.* It should be remembered that the average weekly earnings from occupation only, distributed over the whole year, was but \$4.91; the total average yearly income from all sources was \$269.07; for the different departments, \$273.02 in personal service, \$250.63 in trade, and \$271.41 in manufactures.

Wages and earnings are affected by various causes, many of which are disclosed through the personal testimony of the girls themselves.

A good deal of complaint is made in regard to the low wages quite generally paid to working girls in all the various occupations in which they were found employed. The cause of complaint, especially under "Trade," is ascribed to the fact that girls living "at home," with little or no board to pay, work for very low wages. This is considered a great hardship to the lone working girl who is entirely dependent upon her own resources. The mothers in some cases have said that it takes more than the girls earn to feed and clothe them, and some of the girls have been taken from their work and are now idle on that account. In the large stores, employés are reported as hired at the lowest figures possible, and it is said, that wages in the future are likely to be even less.

In the manufacture of men's clothing, considerable complaint is made by the girls as to the very small wages now made in the business. Almost invariably, when anything was said by them concerning wages, the cry was "pay is too small"; in these cases, the pay ranges from \$3 to \$6 generally, a baster on canvas (13½ years old), reporting only \$1.25. It is said that many of the girls get discouraged, as they hardly earn enough to pay running expenses, and are obliged to practise the most rigid economy. One girl says she "turns her clothes upside

down, inside out, and outside in, not being able to make enough over living expenses to buy new clothes." A certain class of piece masters are said to be responsible for low wages; they take work from firms and do it much lower than they need to — "at any rate," as one girl puts it, "girls used to make better pay before they came."

Shirt, dress, and cloak makers, earning \$4, \$5, \$6, and \$7 a week, complain very much of the small pay, while in other occupations, where the pay ranges from \$2 to \$5 a week, the same state of affairs is reported. In paper box making, one girl receiving \$8 a week says girls work harder than the men, and are paid much less — unjustly, she thinks. The wages in this occupation are reported as falling off. Another girl, who formerly worked as saleswoman at \$4.50 a week, says it was not sufficient to pay for room and board, provide suitable clothing to make a decent appearance in the store, and meet other ordinary expenses.

In some cases girls testify that their work is worth more than they receive for it, and think they ought to have better wages. But as others always stand ready to take their places at even less pay, they have to be satisfied with what they get. The need of more pay will be made more apparent when the facts, as to the ways in which the money earned is used, are reached, under "Home Life."

In several instances, girls report increase or expected increase, of wages, and for this reason, they seem to be quite well pleased at their prospects. In many places, it appears to be the custom to engage help at small rates of pay, and gradually increase wages until the maximum is reached. Many girls also serve a certain length of time for nothing, until they become familiar with the business and are then placed on piece work, the same as the rest of the employés. Table girls in restaurants often have their weekly earnings increased by small fees received from regular customers, and in the holiday season by small presents, the fees amounting in some cases to 50 cents or \$1.00, and even \$2 to \$3 a week.

Directly connected with the question of wages received, are the prices paid to piece workers, the graded prices paid to employés working by the week, and the prices paid for overtime during the busy seasons.

Carpet-sewers are allowed (as reported by two girls) as follows:—3 cents per yard for sewing plain carpeting, and 4½ cents for borders; their pay averages from \$2 to \$10 a week (wages reported for week when visited, \$3 and \$5).

Two *shirt polishers* in laundry report wages now received as \$4 a week; in best season, they can make \$5 at the most, sometimes only \$3.50, as work is very uncertain; one who irons open bosomed shirts gets \$8 a week.

Experienced *awning sewers* (by the yard) can make \$15 a week; they make good wages in the busy season.

Dye house employés, as reported by one girl, receive 15 cents an hour for overtime.

Head *saleswomen*, as reported for one store, get from \$8 to \$10 per week, the average pay for saleswomen being \$6. In some stores, very few saleswomen get \$5, while in others, not less than \$5 a week is paid at any time.

Cash dial tenders (mostly young girls) are paid \$2 a week for the first year, and from \$2.50 to \$3, the second year, according to circumstances.

MEN'S CLOTHING.—A *tailoress* on boy's suits, gets from 85 cents to \$3.50 a suit; she does not get a \$3.50 suit very often, and can not make eight "85 cent" suits a week; present wages are reported as \$6.

A *tailoress* (40 years old) says five years ago she used to get \$10 a week and had received the same wages for years; she is now getting \$9 (as reported).

Five *custom tailoresses* are reported as getting \$12 to \$13, 2 at \$9, \$7.50, and \$5 respectively. One other reports that custom work pays well, and she makes in the busy season \$9 a week; in dull times, much less.

A *coat maker* says she gets 75 cents for making a frock coat, and 60 cents for a sack coat. In good times, she can make 16 coats a week; the week for which wages were returned (\$7), she made 12 coats, but had to take work home nights and worked until 10 o'clock. Another coat maker reports that in Montreal, she could make but \$2.75 a week; in Boston, at former place of employment, she made \$7 in summer and \$6 in winter, and at present place, she earns \$4 in winter and \$5.50 in summer. Another coat maker says she has to work overtime at home to average \$6 per week.

Coat basters report pay much less now than formerly; one girl formerly earning \$7 a week has been cut down to \$6.

A *pantaloen stitcher* says wages on piece work have been so cut down that girls who formerly earned \$9 cannot possibly make now more than \$5 per week. Pantaloen finishers take pantaloons which have been sewed up on machine, turn up and put in canvas in the bottoms, tack pockets, put in all the waist-band linings and sew on the buttons, for 12½ cents, formerly 15 to 20 cents; they can finish 16 pairs a week by working from 8 A.M. till dark in summer, and till 7 or 8 P.M. in winter.

Bushelwomen getting \$4, \$5.50, and \$7 respectively, say their employers pay as much if not more than others, and when working after hours, one girl says they get 20 cents per hour.

A *machine presser* says she used to get \$7 a week for what she now receives \$5; and now has to work harder.

Machine button-hole makers receive 20 cents per hundred; the employer receives \$1 per hundred. One girl reports that piece masters are said to be going out of the business on account of the small prices paid by clothiers for making up goods. One other girl says she is paid 25 cents per 100, and can do 800 button-holes per day, while some girls can make 900. The work is very unsteady, and a good deal of time is lost.

Shirt makers, on the best grades, and on custom work, can make good wages when work is brisk, \$9, \$10, \$11, and \$12 being made on piece-work; one price reported being 50 cents a shirt, except button-holes. On cheaper grades of work, the prices paid are 77 cents, \$1.12, \$1.18, to \$1.95 per dozen. For thick flannel shirts, except button-holes, 75 cents per dozen is paid; it takes two days to make a dozen. The nicest flannel shirts have much work in them, and \$2 per dozen is paid, it taking the *best* workers two days to make a dozen.

Overall makers receive 5 cents a pair when made at home, and 50 cents per dozen when made in the shop.

WOMEN'S CLOTHING. — *Dressmakers* are paid \$1.25 to \$1.75 for making a suit; a suit made for the first-named price sells for \$12, and can be made in a day by working in the evening. When paid \$1.75, if any extra work not done by self is added, as plaiting, the cost is deducted, the maker actually receiving \$1.35; the prices of suits are graded according to the quality

of goods, as high as \$5 being allowed. It takes two days to make a suit. Another dressmaker has been working at home for two months making suits for \$5 apiece, her weekly wage being reported as \$5; for overtime in one instance, 12½ cents an hour was paid.

Dressmakers, for themselves, get from \$2 to \$3 per day, with meals; when on a long job, one reports that she gets \$10 a week.

Milliners can earn from \$15 to \$25 a week in busy seasons; at other times, not near so much.

Seamstresses on dresses are paid 75 cents to \$1 per day; in private families, \$1 a day and board; and when going out by the day, \$1.50 per day. A seamstress on buttons gets 10 cents a set for sewing buttons on wrappers, a set being 18 wrappers.

A *sewing machine operator* on fine "white goods," can make from \$11 to \$15 a week.

A *button-hole maker* on ladies' dresses gets 3 cents apiece; a good price, it is said, and good wages can be made.

Cloak and sack makers say they have to work very hard to average \$6 a week the year round, prices being low; one girl gives her weekly earnings for the year, as follows:—8 weeks at \$9; 8 at \$2.50; 13 at \$9; 13 at \$2.50; 5 at \$9; and 5 weeks idle; average \$6.09. The prices paid in some places are 15 cents for an entire cloak, raised, however, on protest to 25 cents; and 22 cents for making a short walking coat, running two rows of stitching around the entire edge and sewing on 30 buttons. It takes 3½ hours to make a cloak for 25 cents. In making Jersey sacks, one girl says she got 90 cents for making a sack by hand, which took three days to finish; she was obliged to take the work home and sit up until 11 at night to make \$2.50 a week. Another girl says she has to baste, stitch, and face with crinoline, and finish seven seams, for 25 cents.

For making boys' waists, 30 cents a dozen is paid, button-holes included. It took one girl one whole day to make the sleeves for 2 dozen boys' waists.

For hemming linen handkerchiefs, 2½ cents a dozen is paid for large ones, and 1¾ cents for small ones; one girl hemmed 75 dozen a day (machine work) when the work was good.

Hoopskirt makers get 82 cents a dozen.

Bustle makers used to get 65, 75, and 85 cents a dozen, but

the price has been recently cut down 15 cents; the bustles are now made for 50, 60, and 70 cents per dozen. They can do $1\frac{1}{2}$ dozen a day by working from 8.30 A. M. to 6 P. M., with half an hour for dinner. The work is often slack and they are now making a bustle which pays but 25 cents a dozen, and a girl can make a dozen only per day.

A *book folder*, working by the piece, gets from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 cents per 100 sheets, according to the number of folds. At one place, little girls are hired at 6 and 7 cents an hour, the highest price paid being 12 cents an hour. It is not possible to make more than \$5 a week on an average; the girls formerly received a percentage of 10 cents on the dollar earned and it was a great incentive to hard work; it has since been taken off. One girl once made \$7.50 a week, but it nearly killed her, and she has since limited herself to \$1 a day. A book-sewer reports a percentage of 10 cents on every dollar made as being now given to sewers, to equal pay of folders.

In *Boots and Shoes*, there have been 7 or 8 cut-downs in 8 years; the girls have to work very hard to make \$8 a week, and then only in the busy season (for about 2 months).

In *Rubber Goods*, there have been constant cut-downs, and but little work. Circulars are now made for 6 cents apiece, for which girls were formerly paid 15 cents, since cut to 10, 8, and 6 cents successively. Girls used to make \$12 to \$14 a week, but now only from \$3 to \$6; the factories were reported as running on short time and at low rates, one factory reducing from 600 to 100 hands, those being retained who most needed work. A button-hole maker on gossamers says she left for the reason that the work was put out on new machines because it could be done cheaper. The girls in the shop could not work at same figures and make anything. The employer pays \$75 for the use of the machine, the girls get 4 cents per 100, and the employer pays 5 cents royalty per 100; it was claimed that 4000 button-holes could be made in a day. In sewing waterproof hats, girls get paid at the rate of \$1 for six dozen, the price formerly paid being 30 cents a dozen; they can sew from 7 to 9 an hour.

In *Fish canning*, girls are paid 10 cents per hour after 6 P. M.; but none make more than \$4 a week.

In *Fancy cardmaking*, girls are paid from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 cents an hour for overtime during holidays.

In *Printing*, female compositors get 25 cents per 1000 ems ; this price is considered too small, and it is thought that women should be put on a footing with men in the same office who are paid 30 and 35 cents per 1000 ; in one case, where a girl, by over-exertion in trying to make good wages at 25 cents per 1000, brought on paralysis of one-half of the body, resulting in permanent injury, the small price paid was thought to be especially hard ; if the girl had been paid the same price as the men, there would have been no necessity for overwork. Press-feeders, when working overtime, are paid 20 cents an hour.

For *finishing mittens*, a girl receives 30 cents per 100 ; it is not possible to make more than \$2 per week.

A *sewing machine operator* on quilts used to get $4\frac{1}{2}$, and now $1\frac{5}{8}$ cents for finishing comforters (stitching around the edges) ; when paid $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents girls used to make \$10 a week, but the price was cut down immediately, as the employer said he could not have girls making more than his teamster, to whom he paid \$9 a week ; they work hard now and "like slaves" to make \$7.50 a week.

A *mattress sewer* (machine) receives 7 cents for sewing the several sides of a tick and 2 cents a running foot for cushions, including both sides and ends of the cushion.

One table girl in restaurant says she is required to pay for all crockery broken. In stores, one girl says they are obliged to pay one half of the selling price for broken crockery or ware ; one other girl who accidentally broke a show-case, left because the price was to be taken from her pay ; she was working at the time on 3 per cent commission on sales (with no other pay), and one stormy day she made 5 cents. Two machine operators on cloaks were required to pay 25 and 35 cents respectively for the use of machines ; two operators on gosamers were required to pay for needles and thread, in one case 25 cents for a spool of thread and 15 cents a half-dozen for machine needles ; they were forbidden to buy them outside ; the wages in both cases were reported as \$5 a week.

"SEASONS."

Carpet sewers have two seasons, 3 months in winter, and 3 months in summer ; their wages for these periods average \$12 to \$13 a week ; at other times \$6, \$7, and even less ; the average for the year is from \$6 to \$7 per week. The season, to one

girl, only represents about 4 months in the year. Girls report less work than formerly in the carpet business. When the work is dull, girls who sew in stores are expected to come to the store and sit around to anticipate what may come in.

Glove dyers say that in winter there is a great deal to do, and that they have worked late for several months at a time; by so doing they can earn as high as \$10 a week. In summer the work is dull and the girls take long vacations; they work in summer two to four days only a week until September.

Saleswomen of fancy goods say the busy seasons are from April to July, and October to January.

In the manufacture of *Men's Clothing*, the work is reported as being good in winter and dull in summer; often during the dull times the girls are obliged to wait in the shop for work to be given out, being mostly piece work. The busy season is only about 4 months, during which time they work very hard 18 hours every day. The health of many of the girls is broken before the end of the season, and they are obliged to go home; all are exhausted by over-work, and could not continue such a fearful strain on their energies much longer. The girls feel obliged to work very hard during the busy season to make up for dull times, frequently working until 12 o'clock and sometimes all night. The rates of pay are much smaller now than formerly; first class pantaloon makers get \$2 per pair; custom coat makers make \$10 a week, and some by working day and night make \$18 in the busy season; other coat makers average \$9 in busy season, and \$8 in dull times. The work is very dull for 2 months in summer; in slack times, girls lose from one to three days occasionally, amounting in a year to 2 or 3 months. In one store, the girls are always given some work, and the force is never reduced. From July to September, the pay is said to average not more than \$2 to \$3 a week. Some of the girls only work in the busy season, and remain at home at other times doing housework. One girl reports her work as busiest in the hottest months; they stop work Saturdays at 2 o'clock but it is half-past before they get cleaned up about their machines, and out. In a similar instance, a pantaloon maker says she works in summer until 12 o'clock every night, but in winter not so long; her pay in winter averages only \$4 a week, in summer \$10 to \$10.50.

In *Shirt making*, the busy seasons are in the spring and fall,

very few girls being kept the year round. About Christmas time, and in the spring, work is very brisk, but for about 4 months in the year there is not enough work to keep the girls busy all day.

The season for silk plush sewers, hat trimmers, and binders lasts about 6 months, and is usually very dull in summer. A *hat binder* says that in busy times she makes \$7 a week and over. Her work was reported dull (when seen); also that the shop had been on half-time for months. She says business is hurt by convict labor. *Silk plush sewers* are paid \$2 a dozen; by working hard from 7 A. M. to 12 P. M., they can make \$2 a day.

Machine operators on gentlemen's furnishing goods have a dull season in July and August.

Dressmakers report busy seasons in the spring and fall, and then they have plenty to do, working early and late, and in some cases bringing their work home. The dull periods come in winter, and July and August. This varies sometimes, one girl reporting herself as being busy from May to August. When work is dull, the girls work at anything they can do, sometimes in retail stores for a few weeks.

Dressmakers working for themselves very often have their regular customers the year round, and have but little slack time except that taken for vacation and rest.

Milliners are busy from April to July, and October to Christmas, from 4 to 7 months in all. Girls work late during the seasons.

Bonnet frame makers have two seasons, from February to May, and August 15th to December. In dull times, a few girls work on short time (from 9.30 to 4), or are idle. During the busy season, they often bring work home; one girl says she could not make \$4 per week without so doing; the rates of pay were cut down twice last season. "Time lost" is often attributable to dull season, from 2 to 3 months.

Cloakmakers report busiest seasons as comprising 3 months in spring, and 3 months in fall. One girl says she always brings work home, or she could not make pay received.

A *machine operator* on ladies' wear reports work as brisk in summer, and dull in winter.

A *sewing machine operator* on children's carriage curtains says the season extended from January to July last year; after July, she made lung protectors.

Hoopskirt makers' work is reported good from February to October.

A *corset maker* says "during 4 months of idleness, went out to do housework, and tided over waiting time."

In *Boots and Shoes*, "there are two working seasons in the year with intervals of 2 months between each, in winter and summer." The dull seasons are from April to June 1, and from the second week in October until Christmas, when there is little or nothing to do, except on order work.

A *press-feeder* (on engraved work) had been working, when visited, half time, or three days a week, for about 5 months.

In *Book-binderies*, there are two seasons, September to February, and in July. In this work, the dull season lasts sometimes for three or four months; the girls during that season are never certain of the amount of work they can have to do.

In *Paper Box* making, one girl says work was dull for two months, fall and spring being the busiest seasons. In the good seasons, she earns good pay.

In *Rubber Goods*, girls employed in gossamer rubber clothing factories report an unusually dull season last year. In many instances rates of pay were cut down, and finally the factories were shut down or run in making hoopskirts, bustles, etc.

In elastic fabric manufactories, work is usually dull in summer.

In *Straw Goods*, the seasons are short but busy. A few girls are kept the year round; one girl says she has only about 2 months dull time (1 month in August and 1 month in December and January); while others report the season as from 6 to 7 months. During the busiest part, girls work until 7 P. M. and make good wages.

In *Confectionery manufactories*, work is reported as dull in summer; in fish packing establishments, the busy season is from June to about Christmas; a salt packing mill was reported as having shut down for 2 months the past year.

In *Tobacco Factories* work is dull once during the winter; the girls work about 9 months in the year.

During the summer months, when work in regular occupation is slack, girls often go to the mountains and seashore and work as table-girls at about \$12 a month and board.

In other cases, girls shift from one occupation to another

during the dull seasons in regular occupation, dressmakers, for instance, working in tailors' shops, or as seamstresses, etc.

The surplus money made in busy times is essential to the tiding over of the dull season, and at the end of the year there is little or nothing left of their earnings.

EXPENSES.

The disposition of total income is accounted for in the fifteen short tables which follow.

Present Actual Weekly Expenses.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$1 00 to \$2 00	10	\$12 00 to \$13 00	12
2 00 to 3 00	41	13 00 to 14 00	5
3 00 to 4 00	84	15 00 to 16 00	7
4 00 to 5 00	165	16 00	2
5 00 to 6 00	194	18 00 to 19 00	5
6 00 to 7 00	183	20 87	1
7 00 to 8 00	133	22 94	1
8 00 to 9 00	84	29 00 to 30 00	2
9 00 to 10 00	51	Not given,	1
10 00 to 11 00	36		
11 00 to 12 00	15	Total,	1,032

Room, Board, and Restaurants.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
<i>At Home.</i>	
At home,	503
At home; pays for room,	1
At home; pays for room and board,	14
At home; pays for room and board separately,	2
At home; pays for room and board, occasionally takes meals at restaurants,	1
At home; pays for room and board, takes some meals at restaurants,	1
At home; pays for room and takes meals at restaurants,	1
At home; takes some meals at restaurants,	8
<i>Restaurants.</i>	
For room and meals at restaurants,	10
In summer pays for room and board, in winter for meals at restaurants,	2
Pays for meals at restaurants,	9
Pays for room, board, and diners,	1
Pays for room and board, and meals at restaurants,	1
Pays for room and board, and extra meals at restaurants,	1
Pays for room and board, and some meals at restaurants,	1
Pays for room and board, meals at restaurants in winter,	1
Pays for room, and takes meals at restaurants,	2
Pays for room and board separately, with some meals at restaurants,	3
Pays for room and board together, with some meals at restaurants,	3
Pays for room and meals at restaurants for self and husband,	1
<i>Room and Board.</i>	
Pays for board, rent free,	1
Pays for room and boards self,	1
Pays for room and board separately,	158
Pays for room and board together,	280
<i>Not Stated, Etc.</i>	
Not stated,	27
Pays weekly for rent,	1
Total,	1,032

Amount paid Weekly for Board and Room.

[The asterisk indicates that the sum specified is paid regularly, but, in addition, other sums are paid towards the household expenses when possible. Those "at home" have board and room free, but those "at home*" pay something towards household expenses, but not a stated sum weekly.]

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$0 50*	2	\$4 25	15
0 58	1	4 38	1
1 00	1	4 50	33
1 00*	5	4 75	8
1 04	1	5 00	34
1 25	1	5 00*	2
1 25*	4	5 10	1
1 50	10	5 25	5
1 50*	2	5 50	6
1 75	1	5 69	1
2 00	28	5 75	3
2 00*	2	6 00	8
2 25	5	6 25	1
2 30	1	6 50	9
2 42	1	6 75	1
2 50	32	7 00	6
2 50*	5	7 50	1
2 75	5	8 00	1
3 00	91	8 25	1
3 00*	3	6 50	1
3 25	10	10 00	1
3 30	1	11 54	1
3 42	3	13 14	1
3 50	45	At home,	54
3 58	1	At home,*	460
3 75	19	Amount not given,	16
4 00	80		
4 12	1	Total,	1,032

Food and Lodging.

<i>Household Expenses.</i>		<i>Room — Con.</i>	
Under \$25 00	8	\$91 00	1
\$25 00 to 50 00	23	117 00	1
50 00 to 75 00	42	130 00	1
75 00 to 100 00	55	132 00	1
100 00 to 125 00	73	161 00	1
125 00 to 150 00	48		
150 00 to 175 00	47	Total,	12
175 00 to 200 00	48		
200 00 to 225 00	27	<i>Room and Household Expenses.</i>	
225 00 to 250 00	30	\$50 00	1
250 00 to 275 00	15	65 00	1
275 00 to 300 00	14	68 00	1
300 00 to 350 00	10	80 00	1
350 00 to 375 00	7	107 00	1
500 00 to 525 00	2	190 00	1
525 00 to 547 00	1	204 00	1
550 00 to 575 00	3	212 00	1
575 00 to 600 00	2	219 00	1
614 00	1		
782 00	1	Total,	9
879 00	1		
Total,	458	<i>Board.</i>	
		\$39 00	2
<i>Room.</i>		43 00	1
\$9 00	1	75 00	1
35 00	1	78 00	1
45 00	1	117 00	1
52 00	1	144 00	1
59 00	1		
65 00	1	Total,	7
78 00	1		

Food and Lodging — Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
<i>Board and Household Expenses.</i>		<i>Room and Board — Con.</i>	
\$107 00	1	\$325 00 to \$350 00	8
121 00	1	350 00 to 375 00	5
122 00	1	375 00 to 400 00	2
152 00	1	442 00	1
170 00	1	520 00	1
173 00	1	600 00	1
243 00	1		
280 00	1		
Total,	8	Total,	454
<i>Room and Board.</i>		<i>Room, Board, and Household Expenses.</i>	
Under \$25 00	4	\$79 00	1
\$25 00 to 50 00	7	88 00	1
50 00 to 75 00	10	105 00	1
75 00 to 100 00	23	109 00	1
100 00 to 125 00	54	162 00	1
125 00 to 150 00	49	175 00	1
150 00 to 175 00	68	194 00	1
175 00 to 200 00	76	196 00	1
200 00 to 225 00	76	202 00	1
225 00 to 250 00	31	213 00	1
250 00 to 275 00	28	224 00	1
275 00 to 300 00	3	241 00	1
300 00 to 325 00	7	493 00	1
		Total,	13

RECAPITULATION.

CLASSIFICATION.	NUMBER.			
	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Household expenses,	32	61	365	458
Room,	8	1	3	12
Room and household expenses,	2	1	6	9
Board,	-	1	6	7
Board and household expenses,	-	1	7	8
Room and board,	35	47	372	454
Room, board, and household expenses,	1	1	11	13
No expense,	5	10	56	71
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Clothing.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Under \$10	1	2	20	23
\$10 to 20	9	3	50	62
20 to 30	9	8	64	81
30 to 40	6	6	80	92
40 to 50	8	4	79	91
50 to 60	8	13	124	145
60 to 70	6	12	60	78
70 to 80	10	19	103	132
80 to 90	2	8	19	29
90 to 100	1	2	15	18
100 to 110	14	22	102	138
110 to 120	-	-	5	5
120 to 130	3	4	29	36
130 to 140	1	2	-	3
140 to 150	-	-	3	3

Clothing — Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
\$150 to \$160	3	10	29	42
160 to 170	-	1	3	4
175	-	2	3	5
191	-	-	1	1
200	1	2	12	15
225	-	-	3	3
250	1	-	2	3
260	-	-	2	2
300	-	-	1	1
450	-	-	1	1
No expense,	-	3	16	19
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Medical Attendance.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$1 00	7	\$26 00	1
2 00	6	27 00	1
3 00	3	30 00	4
4 00	4	34 00	1
5 00	13	40 00	5
6 00	4	40 00 (for father)	1
7 00	1	48 00	1
8 00	1	50 00	5
9 00	1	50 00 (for husband)	1
10 00	19	55 00	1
10 00 (for children)	1	62 00	2
10 00 (for relatives)	1	78 00	1
12 00	6	89 00
13 00	1	100 00
15 00	10	200 00	ng, and
17 00	2	330 00 (for husband)	.
18 00	2	No expense,
20 00	18		
21 00 (for children)	1		
25 00	8	Total,	Aggregates.

[1,032]

Fuel.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$2 00	1	\$12 00	7
3 00	4	13 00	8
4 00	2	14 00	2
5 00	14	17 00	256
6 00	16	18 00	22
7 00	10	17 00	14
8 00	2	18 00	1
9 00	3	19 00	1
10 00	4	20 00	4
11 00	1	No expense,	951
		Total,	1,032

181
28

6
3

28
83

7
8

2
256

22
14

1
1

4
951

1,032

Washing.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$2 00	2	\$20 00	3
3 00	2	21 00	1
4 00	2	23 00	1
5 00	8	25 00	8
6 00	1	26 00	19
7 00	2	30 00	1
8 00	1	33 00	1
9 00	2	35 00	1
10 00	3	39 00	1
11 00	1	40 00	1
12 00	1	48 00	1
13 00	7	50 00	1
14 00	3	52 00	5
15 00	5	65 00	1
16 00	4	No expense,	939
18 00	1	Total,	1,032
19 00	3		

Car Fares.

\$1 00	3	\$25 00	9
2 00	1	26 00	5
3 00	8	27 00	2
4 00	1	28 00	2
5 00	8	29 00	6
6 00	3	30 00	29
8 00	2	31 00	10
9 00	2	35 00	1
10 00	3	39 00	1
11 00	5	40 00	6
12 00	6	45 00	2
13 00	6	48 00	1
14 00	2	49 00	1
15 00	11	50 00	4
16 00	2	52 00	1
Room, a	1	60 00	1
Room, b	2	75 00	2
Board, a	3	80 00	1
Board, b	11	No expense,	858
Room, a, b	2	Total,	1,032
No expense	2		

Totals

Support of Others.

Child	3	\$27 00 (mother; partial)	1
Sisters	1	30 00 (two children; entire)	1
Relatives; partial)	1	30 00 (relatives; partial)	1
Sister; partial)	1	30 00 (parents; partial)	1
Brother; partial)	3	40 00 (child)	1
Father; partial)	1	40 00 (brother; partial)	1
(mother; partial)	1	40 00 (sister; partial)	2
Under \$100 (relatives; partial)	2	45 00 (mother; partial)	2
\$100 (relatives; partial)	1	45 00 (sister; partial)	1
2 00	1	50 00 (child; entire)	2
3 00 (child; partial)	1	50 00 (two children; partial)	1
15 00 (mother; partial)	1	50 00 (father; partial)	1
15 00 (parents; partial)	2	50 00 (mother; partial)	2
20 00 (brother; partial)	2	50 00 (parents; partial)	1
20 00 (mother and sister; partial)	1	50 00 (sister; partial)	2
20 00 (parents; partial)	4	65 00 (mother; partial)	1
20 00 (relatives; partial)	2	75 00 (father; partial)	1
25 00 (child; entire)	1	75 00 (parents; partial)	1
25 00 (mother; partial)	2	77 00 (child; entire)	1
25 00 (relatives; partial)	1	78 00 (child; entire)	1
25 00 (parents; partial)	1	78 00 (mother; partial)	1
25 00 (relatives; partial)	1	95 00 (father; partial)	1
25 00 (sister; partial)	1	96 00 (child; entire)	2

Support of Others — Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
\$100 00 (parents; partial)	1	Child; entire,	1
104 00 (two children; entire)	1	Two children; entire,	1
147 00 (mother's relatives; entire)	1	Mother; entire,	2
150 00 (child; entire)	1	Brother and sister; partial,	1
162 00 (father; entire)	1	Child; partial,	1
185 00 (mother and child; partial)	1	Husband; partial,	2
233 00 (child; entire)	1	Mother; partial,	2
302 00 (parents; entire)	1	Parents; partial,	1
329 00 (parents; partial)	1	Relatives; partial,	4
400 00 (mother; partial)	1	Sister; partial,	1
430 00 (parents)	1	No expense,	931
446 00 (child; partial)	1	Total,	1,032
Brother and sister,	1		
Child,	8		

All Other Expenses.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
Under \$25 00	267	\$200 00 to \$225 00	2
\$25 00 to 50 00	215	225 00 to 250 00	3
50 00 to 75 00	83	250 00 to 275 00	3
75 00 to 100 00	29	400 00	1
100 00 to 125 00	15	No other expenses,	384
125 00 to 150 00	14	Total,	1,032
150 00 to 175 00	11		
175 00 to 200 00	5		

Other Expenses: Nature, and Number having such Expenses.

[Summary by number, of preceding expense tables, excepting Food and Lodging, and Clothing.]

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service. [83]	Trade. [123]	Manu- facturea. [826]	Aggregatea. [1,032]
Car and ferry fares,	7	23	146	181
Children's support,	3	1	24	28
Church,	—	—	6	6
Debt and interest,	—	—	3	3
Dentistry,	3	3	22	28
Fuel and light,	5	7	71	83
Funeral expenses,	1	—	6	7
Furniture,	—	1	7	8
Gave (or assisted) husband,	—	—	2	2
Gave (or assisted) parents,	22	36	198	256
Gave (or assisted) brothers and sisters,	1	4	17	22
Gave (or assisted) relatives,	1	—	7	8
Household expenses,	18	31	206	255
Lodges and societies,	—	—	4	4
Music and painting,	2	4	7	13
Personal expenses,	—	1	8	9
Sickness and medicines,	6	12	109	127
Sundries and incidentals,	55	67	508	630
Waahog,	4	10	79	93

Total Yearly Expenses.

CLASSIFICATION.	Personal service.	Trade.	Manu- factures.	Aggregates.
Under \$50	2	1	10	13
\$50 to 100	5	11	30	46
100 to 150	9	17	80	106
150 to 200	14	17	131	162
200 to 250	21	12	158	191
250 to 300	2	23	146	171
300 to 350	14	17	110	141
350 to 400	3	14	67	84
400 to 450	7	7	36	50
450 to 500	1	1	18	20
500 to 550	1	2	13	16
550 to 600	-	-	6	6
600 to 650	2	1	10	13
650 to 700	1	-	1	2
700 to 750	-	-	3	3
750 to 800	1	-	1	2
800	-	-	1	1
850 to 900	-	-	2	2
900 to 950	-	-	2	2
1,039	-	-	1	1
Totals,	83	123	826	1,032

Savings or Debt.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	CLASSIFICATION.	Number.
<i>Savings.</i>		<i>Debt.</i>	
\$4 00	1	\$4 00	1
5 00	4	5 00	2
10 00	2	6 00	3
15 00	1	7 00	1
17 00	1	8 00	1
19 00	1	11 00	1
20 00	5	14 00	1
25 00	11	18 00	1
30 00	6	20 00	4
32 00	1	24 00	1
35 00	1	25 00	2
37 00	1	30 00	1
40 00	10	35 00	1
45 00	1	48 00	1
48 00	1	50 00	1
50 00	19	62 00	1
54 00	1	75 00	3
59 00	1	76 00	1
60 00	3	78 00	1
70 00	1	126 00	2
72 00	1		
73 00	1		
76 00	7		
80 00	2		
90 00	1		
100 00	16		
105 00	1		
126 00	3		
128 00	1		
150 00	6		
160 00	2		
200 00	3		
250 00	1		
300 00	3		
Total,	120	Total,	30
		RECAPITULATION.	
		Savings,	120
		Debt,	30
		No savings or debt,	882
		Total,	1,032

RECAPITULATION. — *Principal Expenses; Savings and Debt.*

CLASSIFICATION.	PERSONAL SERVICE.		TRADE.		MANUFACTURES.		ALL OCCUPATIONS.	
	Num-ber.	Yearly Average.	Num-ber.	Yearly Average.	Num-ber.	Yearly Average.	Num-ber.	Yearly Average.
<i>Principal Expenses.</i>								
Food and lodging,	78	\$165 01	113	\$144 43	768	\$169 66	959	\$166 31
Clothing,	83	65 18	120	80 08	810	66 19	1,013	67 75
Medical attendance,	8	13 88	14	22 00	117	25 65	139	24 60
Fuel,	4	12 50	7	8 71	70	8 50	81	8 72
Washlog,	4	27 50	10	24 50	79	19 82	93	20 06
Car fares,	8	20 88	28	26 11	138	22 06	174	22 66
Support of others,	9	72 67	6	68 00	61	66 48	76	67 33
Other expenses,	56	41 61	72	36 11	620	42 17	648	41 45
Total yearly expenses,	83	261 43	123	246 20	826	263 53	1,032	261 30
<i>Savings and Debt.</i>								
Savings,	13	80 69	11	63 82	96	71 95	120	72 15
Debt,	4	21 75	5	31 40	21	40 67	30	36 60

From the recapitulation just given, and the recapitulation of the tables on wages and earnings, we get at the real economic condition of the working girls. By an analysis of the recapitulation of principal expenses, it will be seen that these items of expense are not common to all; for instance, of the 1,032 girls, 959 paid out something for food and lodging, the average yearly expense for each being \$166.31; 1,013 spent on an average \$67.75 for clothing; only a very small percentage of the whole number were under any expense for medical attendance, fuel, washing, car fares, or support of others, while 648 reported other expenses not classified. These principal expenses not being common to all, it is therefore impossible to give a yearly average for each of the 1,032 girls for each of these items in detail; but the \$261.30, given as the average of all expenses for the year, represents the actual average yearly expense for each of the 1,032 girls involved.

The margin of annual income over annual expense is very small; from an annual income of \$269.07, the average for all the girls, there must be paid out a yearly expense of \$261.30, leaving a margin for everything outside of the absolute necessities of life of \$7.77.

Only 120 out of 1,032 made any savings during the year, the savings being for that 120 an average of \$72.15 per year; 30 girls ran into debt to the amount of \$36.60 per year on an average; the balance just met their expenses with the assist-

ance of friends and what could be earned outside regular occupation. Very many who lived with their parents or friends were enabled to get through the year without running in debt through the aid of board being given them; from such figures as we have, we found that only 21+ per cent of those living at home with parents paid board, while 66+ per cent of those living with relatives or friends paid board; taking all in these two classes together we find that only 30+ per cent of all those living with parents, relatives, or friends pay board.

HOME LIFE.

It is not enough to know the wages paid to working girls; the ways in which the money earned is used and the number dependent upon their work, are essential in determining their actual condition. The income and expense tables fully show from what sources the total income is derived, as well as the amounts expended for room and board, or contributed towards the common expenses of the household. They do not show, however, upon how little money, in many instances, the family is obliged to live, and how necessary, under these circumstances, is the constant work of the supporting members of the family.

The information furnished by the working girls shows that the wages earned by them constitute in many cases the chief, and sometimes the entire support of the family, the parents looking to the earnings of one, two, three, and four daughters to pay the household bills; the father often being reported not able to work much or always, on account of disability, from lack of steady work, or possibly, from disinclination to work while there is revenue from any other source. In large families, the earnings of the girls, together with the wages of the father, when all are working, do not more than cover living expenses. The work of the brother or brothers is also spoken of, and their earnings form a part of the family fund. Four sisters are reported as working and supporting the father, who does not work regularly; they pay stated sums each week, and at any time when the father is not working, they pay all their money into the house. Many report it as being very hard work to keep the family together and send the younger children to school; in one instance, those needing support included three children of a deceased

sister. In some cases, one or both parents are reported as being old or out of health, and the children of the family are often called upon to pay, in addition to the household expenses, bills for medical attendance and sometimes funeral expenses, etc., for parents or other members of the family, which, in most cases, is apt to be quite a heavy tax upon them.

In cases where the father is dead, or not living with the family, the mother is often wholly dependent upon the girls and boys working for her support, and where there are younger children, for their education and support as well; the mother working also at times, or keeping the house only. One girl is reported as having supplied a home for her widowed mother for the past twenty years; others are supporting invalid mothers, sisters, brothers, or other relatives, in whole or in common with one or more sisters or brothers; in some cases, doing the housework besides.

This often entails, in cases where the girl assisted by brothers provides the family income, a great deal of hard work for the girl, she being compelled to work nights to keep up her part of the expenses; in other instances, the brother or brothers being well-situated provide the larger part of income, and of course to that extent relieve the girl of the necessity of extra or undue labor.

In still other cases, where the father is living, the mother adds her weekly earnings to common fund, and where widowed, often has quite a family to maintain.

Girls who have no parents living either provide support for other members of the family, or divide the expense with other brothers or sisters, usually finding it hard work to get along. Others have been obliged to leave their homes on account of bad treatment or conduct of dissipated father, or because they felt the need of work, and not finding it at home, have come to Boston, and are dependent upon themselves for maintenance; these girls also generally contribute something to the support of parents and family at home. One girl has built a cottage for her parents and bought them a horse and carriage, while another lives with sister who requires no board, so that all her surplus earnings may go to the support of their aged and infirm parents. Another girl who used to live with her aunt says she left her, because her aunt charged her for board when sick

or idle, and she concluded that it was just as cheap to pay her board in the city and save car fares.

Married women living with their husbands are at work, and very often report their earnings as being the major part of joint income. The husbands are reported as either being out of health and not able to work, or only working at times or about half the time, and contributing but little towards the support of the family.

In all these various conditions of the existence of the family, the average wages of the working girls were from \$4 to \$6 per week, some reporting as low as \$1.50 and \$2, others \$7, \$8, \$9, and \$10, and one as high as \$18; the larger part receive the average figures.

It should also be mentioned that in a few instances, the income of the family is increased by rent of tenements sublet, from rooms let to lodgers and boarders, and in the case of a few of the girls their houses, in town and out of town, are owned by them, and the revenues therefrom are applied to living expenses; three sisters so owning a house in common, report a mortgage of \$200 on same, with interest at 8 per cent, due in three years, and nothing now saved towards the principal.

The widowed mothers of the girls are also assisted in some cases by pensions, and from charitable sources.

Having considered the support rendered by working girls in the family, it is well to notice how in other cases, the working girls themselves have been aided by relatives and friends, and how circumstanced in a money point of view, at home or wherever located.

In quite a number of cases, the girls report, that living at home or with some members of the family, they are not obliged to work, but do so from choice, or because they do not care to become a burden to their parents, in some cases, paying no board and in dull times staying at home idle; if any board is required, it is always stopped when out of work. Others prefer to work in Boston rather than remain at home, but go home a part of each year on a visit; still others live with friends, are very easily circumstanced and are very well satisfied. In a few instances, married women at work say there is no necessity for working, as their husbands with whom they

live are well able to support them; they work from choice only.

Of those who derive assistance from their parents in any way, some report that if they did not live at home and receive aid from parents or brothers, they could not live, one girl receiving \$8 and \$9 a week, besides her board, from parents, the girl being at work because she wants the money to spend. Another girl receives assistance weekly from her mother who is a domestic; another is in debt to her mother for medicines and other things, while others receive money and dresses from home as needed. Another girl says she is the only one that works, as her mother has sufficient property to support the family. Other women, left with children by the death of husband or otherwise, report that if it were not for parents they could not support their children on the wages earned.

Others receive assistance from husbands absent at work in other places, from brothers, married sisters, and friends, who aid them in money, clothes, and in various ways, and with such assistance they are able to get along. Living with brothers, sisters, or relatives, they are either charged no board, or by doing certain parts of the housework or sewing are boarded free. Those living with friends either work nights and mornings at housework, sewing, etc., for their board, or are boarded at low rates out of kindness and when unable to meet expenses are not pressed for board. In one case, an orphan girl who had lived from childhood with relatives who were very cruel to her, she sleeping many a night on the top of the shed for personal safety, reports that the kind-hearted woman who took her in, and with whom she now has a home, only charges her \$2.50 a week, and treats her as one of her own girls; in another case, a girl working away from home and upon whom her parents are somewhat dependent, was obliged to have her food given her for some time by friends with whom she lived, or else she could not have maintained herself; she is married, but receives nothing towards support from her husband with whom she does not live. In a few instances, and only a few, support from the city has been given, while in others, extra sewing nights and mornings has helped to piece out income, necessitating, however, a very regular life in order to keep up under this constant strain of hard work.

Girls living away from home, in boarding and lodging houses, the latter especially, are oftentimes obliged to practise very close economy in living, one girl being reported as taking her meals at restaurants, and often going without her supper as well as other meals, because she did not have the money to pay for them; another, as going without meat for weeks, eating bread only without butter, and seldom able to buy a baker's pie, while in the case of three sisters living in one room, with all meals at restaurants where employed, they are only able to get a bare living without any of life's comforts; they economize in every way possible, buy food and cook it themselves Sundays, and when invited out to dinner (which is only rarely), they make a "field-day" of it.

In the same way, girls speaking of their dress, say that it is almost impossible in many cases to buy new clothes, they depending largely upon what is given them in the way of old dresses and other garments by relatives or friends; others spend little or nothing for clothes each year, or have a new suit once in two or three years. One girl says "it costs every cent she earns for board and other expenses," and that she was obliged to take ten dollars that she had saved for a new dress and pay a doctor's bill, and that she is in consequence nearly destitute of clothing suitable for street or store wear. This matter of dress, she says, has a great deal to do with one's success in seeking employment, a poorly dressed woman being refused on the score generally of "just hired," while a shabbily dressed girl is entirely ignored.

Touching the question of income, and in addition to and explanatory of the savings or debt table, are the facts reported by some of the working girls as to how they have been able to make some slight saving each year, or the causes which have led them into debt. Some of the girls report that it takes about all they ever earn to meet expenses, and that it is only by the strictest economy that they can lay by anything; two others, sisters, say they want for nothing, live frugally and manage to save a little something, while another says she pays all of her money to her mother, but thinks it is being saved for her ultimate benefit. Four sisters report that they each expect to receive \$200 from the estate of a deceased uncle, while one girl says that the \$40 saved the past year she intends to

send to her parents. Of those who have saved in past years any considerable sums, two are reported as having \$500 in savings bank, in one case the result of seven years' savings; two others, as having \$100 saved, in one case during four years of work; one other girl says her savings in all amount to \$300, while still another says that in three years she has almost paid for a \$300 piano. A tailoress, earning ten dollars a week, says she has lost money in various savings banks, \$300 of which was in Mrs. Howe's "institution," but notwithstanding these losses she has about \$5,000 saved. Another woman, well advanced in life, says she has during the past year built a little house to provide for old age, and that in her working career she has accumulated some hundreds of dollars, but could not have done so if she had not been with friends and not obliged to pay any board. In still other cases, one girl says she is using her money towards clearing a debt on a farm left her by her father, while another says three years ago she saved up money enough to pay the passage to this country of her mother and brother. From those in debt, or without savings, comes the report that through the sickness of the girl herself or her mother, the savings of years have been eaten up by medicines, etc.; in one instance, a girl reports that during a ten weeks' sickness two years ago she spent the savings of eight years and was \$20 in debt. Another says she has incurred a debt of \$75 on account of the expenses of her son's illness; another that she placed some money, the savings of many years, in the hands of a friend who has lost it by speculation, while still another says she opened in company with another woman a boarding and lodging house, but owing to the bad management, as she says, of the other woman, the venture was a failure and she suffered a loss of \$500 in money; she has had some money left her, and that with what she has earned make her savings now amount to \$500.

In a few instances, girls are reported as having come to Boston from other states and countries, on account of the favorable reports received of plenty of work and good pay, and with the expectation of making a great deal of money, but in all these cases they are dissatisfied and intend to return at their earliest opportunity; they report the work duller here even than from whence they came, and that they have been unable

to find sufficient good paying work upon which to live. Others say that during work-life there is little chance for amusement, while others think girls in many cases would be much better off at housework or some kindred occupation than in shops or factories. One girl left her work to do light housework in a boarding house, but found there were thirty boarders to work for, and so left and went back to her usual occupation.

It is interesting to note the "life" experiences of a few who have been at work for a number of years and have a history, and from them learn what the future of working girls entirely dependent upon their own labor may be, if the conditions developed in regard to small pay, etc., should continue.

A carpet sewer, 34 years of age, and now earning six dollars a week, says she was married at 29 and lived with her husband until, on account of his dissipated habits and neglect of her, she finally left him and went to work, earning \$2 a week and running up a board and lodging bill of \$35. She has received since a little money from her husband's lodge and makes a little extra by crocheting tops on woollen mittens at ten cents per dozen pairs. She gets her own meals on a little parlor stove and is compelled to live in a small way in order to keep herself and boy alive; she spends scarcely anything for clothing.

A coat maker, earning six dollars a week, says that at the age of fourteen she had a fever and for lack of proper medical care it settled in her right leg, causing decay of the bone; although a great sufferer, she has worked for 26 years and taken care of herself without assistance. She had one hundred dollars in the bank in December, but in consequence of dull times was obliged to draw it out to meet expenses. Eleven years ago, she made the acquaintance of another lame girl, and formed with her a partnership both in their work and housekeeping. They share everything in common and their relations have been of a most affectionate and self-denying character.

In a garret, four stories up, was found a machine operator on men's clothing who said she was married at the age of 20; her husband was consumptive but lived 16 years after her marriage. During her married life she worked more or less, at home and in stores. She has two children, a boy of 11 and a girl of 5, but they do not now live with her; up to a short

time since, the boy lived with her and went to school; her work failing, she could not pay his board in advance, and he was sent to live with relatives. At night, after working through the day, she makes clothes for her children and does her own sewing and washing; she has not had a new dress for three years, and she says it sometimes costs a good deal more than she earns to provide for herself and children, and that she has often had to go without her supper.

In another instance, a very bright, smart and most intelligent woman was found living in a small attic room lighted and ventilated by the skylight only. In her younger years, she said she taught school in summer and went to school in winter, studying music and preparing herself to enter the Normal school to become a teacher. Disappointed in this respect, she has had a rather hard life since, and now has a little child to support. While at work, she leaves her little girl at the Day Nursery and pays five cents for the privilege. In the dull season, she has lived on less than a dollar a week for food for herself and child. When seen she was doing quite well as compared with her experience for some years; she had paid her rent to date and had the first five dollars in her pocket over and above living expenses for many a day, with a prospect of earning sufficient to fully meet running expenses. She felt quite elated over what seemed good fortune to her, it being something new in her experience as a working woman.

In the same way, a very intelligent, well-educated and good-appearing lady, apparently quite comfortably situated with relatives, reported that five years ago her husband was sun-struck, and two years after he was obliged to be confined in an asylum, where he died. During his illness and after his death, having no money or property, the support of the family including two children, now six and eight years respectively, devolved upon her, and she went out sewing, making cloaks and suits, and in dull seasons doing nursing and such other work as she could find. Being quite smart, she succeeded in making, as she says, \$400 a year for almost four years. Constant application to work, often until 12 at night and sometimes on Sundays (equivalent to nine ordinary working days a week), affected her health and injured her eyesight. She has been treated for her eyes and was ordered by the doctor to

suspend work, stay in doors and keep out of sun and lamp light; but she must earn money, and so she has kept on working. Her eyes weep constantly, she cannot see across the room and "the air seems always in a whirl" before her. She complains that women having husbands employed, work in shops for rates of pay less than girls who are dependent solely on themselves can afford. On account of her poor health, the past year has been a bad one for her, and she has been unable to meet her expenses. She was obliged to sell some of the furniture bought when married and other articles, and owed when seen three months' board for self and children; she gets aid from relatives in the shape of clothing for children, and that is all. She hopes something may be done for working girls and women, for, however strong they may be in the beginning, "they can't stand white slavery for ever."

VI. MORAL CONDITION.

The moral condition of the working girls cannot be stated with that statistical accuracy which belongs to the other conditions we have discussed, and yet in certain directions we have the most positive information and of such a character that it possesses all the value of a statistical statement.

It has often been said that the shop girls are an immoral class, that it is largely from their ranks that prostitution is recruited, and the vile charge has often been made that in great stores where many girls are employed, an engagement often depends upon the willingness of the saleswoman or shop girl to become the intimate friend of either the proprietor or head of a department. The assertion is often very flippantly bandied about that when a girl seeks employment and the wages offered are very low and she objects to such low wages, she is coolly informed that she must seek some gentleman to help her to support herself. In addition to our desire to ascertain the general moral condition which surrounds the working girls of Boston, we have had a very strong desire to ascertain the truth or falsity of these damaging assertions and charges, and first, we will consider the girls in their homes and employments. Under social condition, we dealt very fully with the condition of the girls in their homes.

It was seen that a very large proportion of them were living at home with parents and friends. In addition to this we found that in nearly all the cases where a girl was called upon in the evening and found to be out, her parents or the friends with whom she was living, knew of her whereabouts, and would oftentimes send for her to come home and give the information sought by the agents. This evidence in itself is very emphatic in establishing the moral surroundings at least of the girls involved. A few of the girls testify to ill treatment by friends or relatives, but as a rule, they were surrounded by such home influences that it is entirely unreasonable to believe them to be guilty of walking in evil ways. Some of them have spoken very frankly about ill treatment by their employers; some of these say that the employers or the men placed in charge are in the habit of speaking very roughly to employes and oftentimes while they do not swear at the girls, they use violent and sometimes bad language before them; others are said to curse and swear at the girls and treat them very shabbily. One girl says she has been subjected to rough words and harsh treatment from the foreman in charge of the department; his general demeanor is bad. She says he is a good tool for employers, who are all right themselves apparently, but that they do not know of many things which otherwise might be remedied; they place implicit confidence in him and having little or no knowledge of their help, they do not know but what their employes are well treated.

Another girl says her employer is good natured according to his mood; if he does not like the way the work is done, he is apt to take it rudely from her hands and tell her to leave; on the other hand, he might feel good natured enough to pay her in advance if he thought she needed money.

In some places, during working hours, no one is allowed to call upon the girls employed; even on the occasion of the death of a friend who was killed, the girl was notified after much trouble, and then only through a speaking tube. This girl says she was absent two and three-quarter hours, and her employer, although knowing the circumstances, would not allow her the time; he also fails to pay for overwork when done. Other girls speak of the bad language used by employers, and in some cases say they had left for this reason.

Only five girls were found of the whole number interviewed who gave any specific reasons why their surroundings in the shops and places of employment were not of a moral character. In almost every case, the answer was that, so far as known, there were no immoral influences exerted over the girls at their work, but rather that the moral atmosphere of the places where employed was very good and as pleasant as could be wished. In fact, it is reasonable to suppose that employers are as anxious to have good moral conditions exist in their places as any other class of men.

The working girls seen by the agents were well appearing generally, frank and honest in their statements, and gave every indication that they were leading orderly, upright lives. Certainly, there was little or no evidence to the contrary, nor has there been anything adduced in support of the rumors to which we have referred. They were mentioned frequently to the agents, both by the working girls and by women of bad repute, but, as already remarked, in only five instances could these rumors be traced to anything tangible whatever, and these instances were of such a trivial nature that they are hardly entitled to a place in this Report.

We do not hesitate to assert that the working girls of Boston are, as a rule, living in a moral atmosphere so far as their homes are concerned, and that they are not corrupted by their employers, and that employers do not seek to corrupt them. All such statements originate in the idea that girls cannot dress well with the small wages they receive, unless they lead immoral lives in which they receive pecuniary assistance.

The testimony of capable and honest women, of the heads of departments in dry goods stores, millinery establishments, of forewomen in shops, matrons of homes, and of all those best informed and in the best position to give testimony on this point, is that the working girls are as respectable, as moral, and as virtuous as any class of women in our community; that they are making as heroic a struggle for existence as any class is a fact which all the statistics prove.

The idea that well dressed girls receiving low wages must live disreputable lives is a very common one, but, as has been shown under economic condition and other chapters of this Report, a large number of these girls live in comfortable

homes with parents in comparatively easy circumstances and well able and willing to support their children, who pay little or no board and spend their earnings as they please, chiefly for dress. Many are graduates from the High School, and large numbers are employed for months in making out commercial lists and addressing envelopes for the pittance of two or three dollars per week; at the end of such service they leave and their places are filled by others recently graduated from school; the supply of this labor always exceeds the demand.

Other well dressed girls, who live at home, turn their earnings into the common family fund and their clothes are provided for by their parents and these are generally made during the evening by themselves, and by skill and ingenuity a good appearance is made at little cost. It is only the few who are well dressed and helped by their friends who attract attention, and of these the question is often asked, how can they dress well when they earn so little? Such questions led to the idea that they take up prostitution, but the fact that the girl works hard all day for three or four dollars a week is sufficient proof that she is not living in prostitution; girls cannot work hard all day and be prostitutes too.

There is another class of working women who live in the city among strangers, whose home is the boarding house or lodging room and who are away from home influence, but our conclusion from the facts gathered is that their number is much less than is generally supposed; but many of this class have good homes in the country, or friends living there, to which they return when sick or out of work, and they are often supplied with clothing by their friends at a distance. There are others however who have no home but the boarding house, and no friends to depend upon for aid, sympathy, or moral encouragement, and it is among this class of shop girls chiefly, that the aid and assistance of the benevolent and charitably inclined people of our city should be directed. It is among these that Boffin's Bower* exerts a great influence, and with whom the name of Jennie Collins* is a household word; but none of these girls can by any possible stretch of the imagination be charged with being dissolute. Our agents have

* See note on page 133, *post*.

visited them in their rooms and held free and frank converse with them; they have spoken frankly about themselves as to how they were circumstanced, and our agents have come away impressed with the heroic struggle they are making to lead a proper life. The weakest and least competent go to Boffin's Bower and to some other establishments, where, if they are in need of a meal or dinner, they can get it without lowering themselves by begging.

About sixty girls board and lodge at the Young Women's Christian Association building, Warrenton Street; they pay from \$3.00 to \$5.00 per week, including washing; they have religious services night and morning and are expected to attend church at least once on Sunday; also, they are obliged to be in the house before 10 o'clock at night at which time the doors are locked. All these girls are struggling hard to secure an honest livelihood and are surrounded by good moral influences and are living virtuous lives; this is the testimony of those in charge.

Many working women out of employment find a temporary home at 17 Davis Street; the small charge of 15 cents is made for a meal or for a lodging, while if a girl out of employment has no money, she is allowed to stay five days and everything possible is done to find her employment; but the inmates of this home are mostly domestic servants, a class not considered in this investigation, and the home on Davis Street is simply mentioned as an instance of what may be done to help girls who are out of employment. The matron, however, testified that she had seen a great deal of the working women, and held a high opinion of them, especially of those who worked in stores and shops, and that when in temporary difficulties they have too much pride and self respect to apply to any of the charitable institutions for aid, and live on one meal per day, and as far as their morality goes, she believes implicitly in them.

On Harvard Street, in connection with Hotel Harvard, is a house having a flat of 24 rooms which are let exclusively to working women at from \$1.00 to \$2.50 per week each; these rooms are under the charge of a special janitor who has been six years in his present position and has seen much of and knows much about the working women of Boston; his testimony is emphatic that there is not a more industrious, moral, or virtu-

ous class in the community. He says the idea is preposterous that they walk the streets at night or are improperly influenced by their employers.

The matrons of the homes on Pleasant Street and North Bennet Street give evidence to the same effect. The same testimony comes from correctional institutions, matrons and superintendents, that they rarely if ever have any females coming from stores or shops. The matron of the Penitent Females Refuge in Rutland Street, a house of mercy which offers refuge to fallen women who desire to return to the paths of virtue, has been connected with the institution for over 20 years and has had a very wide experience among fallen women, and she holds a high opinion of the virtue and moral character of the working women of Boston; she said there was no truth in the charges of immorality against the girls; that some of the women involved would be sure to drift there to her home or she would be likely to hear about them from some of her inmates, into whose history and antecedents inquiries are made. Like evidence comes from the Home for Destitute Women in Oak Place.

Interviews upon this subject with prostitutes on the streets and with night policemen on their beats, all tend to show one thing, that all such statements as those referred to are utterly false and without foundation.

A captain of police expressed the matter well when he said that people, who charge the working women with walking the streets at night for evil purposes, do not know what they are talking about; night walkers are all of them hardened convicts or prostitutes; some of them may have been hard working women, but no working woman ever walks the streets as a prostitute. This captain said that when a girl falls from virtue, she has first to graduate as a "parlor girl," and then serves some time in a still lower house before she is hardened enough to take to the streets. All the officers with whom our agents conversed on the subject gave similar testimony.

We have been thus explicit upon this particular point of our investigation because men have come to this office with the assertion that the streets were crowded with working girls in the evening, who were in the habit of soliciting men to accompany them home, and these gentlemen have expressed themselves as greatly astonished that in a city as well regulated as

Boston, girls should come out of stores and shops and ply their vocation as night walkers on the streets in the evening.

The only remark we can make in this matter, after having given, as we have, positive testimony that such charges are absolutely untrue, is, that if gentlemen have had such experiences on our streets it does not speak well for them and indicates to our mind that the first offence was on their part and that they were again mistaken in supposing the girls they were approaching were working girls.

Let us now consider how far the ranks of prostitution are fed by girls from our shops. From 170 inmates of houses of ill-repute, known to the police, we have gathered some very valuable information; the causes given for their taking up the life they follow is of interest. Of these 170, 22 declined to give any cause, 17 entered their present life on account of ill-treatment at home, 59 from choice, most of them on account of love of easy life and love of dress, 26 testify that they were driven into the life by poor pay and hard work, while 46 were led into the life through seduction. It is important to know just the course so far as given through which these women have passed before entering their present life. This is shown in the following table. This table is to be read thus, taking the first item; a woman was employed in a box factory, was then married, then became a dressmaker, and then entered a house of ill-repute. With this explanation the whole table is easily understood.

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
Box factory, married, dressmaker,	1
Canning goods, table work, at home,	1
Chambermaid, seamstress,	1
Coal picker and begging, dressmaker,	1
Compositor, married, music store,	1
Corset factory, housework,	1
Corset maker,	1
Cotton mill,	10
Cotton mill, at home,	4
Cotton mill, hotel waitress,	1
Cotton mill, housework,	5
Cotton mill, housework, table work, housework,	1
Dressmaker,	4
Dressmaker, at home,	1
Dressmaker, married,	2
Dressmaker, shoe factory, married,	1
Dressmaker, table work, at home,	1
Dressmaker, tailoress, cotton weaver, at home,	1
Dry goods store, cloak maker,	1

OCCUPATIONS.	Number.
Hat factory, cotton mill, hotel work, care of invalid,	1
Hoopskirt factory, jewelry finisher, seamstress,	1
Hosiery mill, teacher, table work, at home,	1
Housework,	18
Housework, at home,	3
Housework, brush maker, at home,	1
Housework, cotton mill,	3
Housework, cotton mill, bookkeeper,	1
Housework, cotton mill, married,	1
Housework, hoopskirt factory,	1
Housework, hotel work,	1
Housework, lozeage factory, dressmaker,	1
Housework, machine sewer, table work, at home,	1
Housework, married,	1
Housework, married, liquor business,	1
Housework, miscellaneous work, table work,	1
Housework, rubber factory,	1
Housework, saleswoman,	1
Housework, seamstress,	1
Housework, shoe shop,	2
Housework, table work,	5
Housework, table work, at home,	1
Housework, table work, dressmaker,	1
Housework, tailoress,	1
Jewelry, at home,	1
Married (no previous occupation),	1
Milliner, at home,	1
Mill operative,	2
Music teacher,	1
Nurse, brush factory, seamstress,	1
Nurse, cotton mill,	2
Nurse, housework,	2
Nurse, housework, cotton mill,	1
Nurse, table work, housework,	1
Nurse and housework,	1
Nurse and housework, cotton and woolen mills,	1
Nurse girl, housework, saleswoman, at home,	1
Nurse girl, saleswoman,	1
Nursery work, housework,	1
Paper mill,	1
Print works, at home,	1
Reform school, housework,	1
Rubber factory,	1
Saleswoman,	2
Saleswoman, housework, married,	1
Saleswoman, table work,	2
Shirt maker,	1
Shoe factory,	3
Stocking weaver, housework,	1
Table work,	5
Table work, chambermaid,	1
Table work, hosiery mill,	1
Table work, married, at home,	1
Table work, saleswoman, cotton weaver,	1
Tailoress,	2
Tailoress, married,	1
Tailoress, table work,	1
Tailoress, upholstery work,	1
Thread mill, housework,	1
Woolen mill,	2
Writer in office, at home,	1
No previous occupation,	30
Total,	170

To summarize the previous occupation, or that immediately preceding their entry upon the life of shame, we reach the following results: 60 came directly from housework, table or hotel work; 32 from textile factories; 6 from shoe factories; 19 were dressmakers, seamstresses, or tailoresses; 5 were sales-

women ; 18 had been in various occupations, while 30 had had no previous occupation.

The foregoing statements do not prove unfavorable to the working girls. These 170 women are leading lives of shame it is true, many of them leading lives of sorrow, also. Often during this investigation when considering this class of women, and the temptation to which girls are exposed, we have wished that public condemnation could fall as severely upon the seducer, and upon the tempter, as it has in the past upon his victim. This punishment would be quite severe enough.

In conclusion, so far as this part on moral condition is concerned, we can most freely and positively assert that the working girls of Boston are making an heroic, an honest, and a virtuous struggle to earn an honorable livelihood, and that it is rare that one of them can be found following a life other than one of integrity. We can also assert, to the credit of the merchants and employers of Boston, that they do not make the honor of the girls they employ the price of a position.

If, in our future investigations, we find this is not true, we assure the guilty ones that their infamous business shall be exposed.

We, of course, do not wish to be understood as asserting that the working girls are any better than the same number of girls in any other calling, for the amount of private immorality in any community or among any class cannot be traced, yet they come out of this investigation with as good a name as that which can attach to any class.

We only wish it were possible to investigate and expose the conduct of men who help women into fallen lives, and then see these men meet the punishment which justly belongs to them.

The fact that here and there a girl forsakes the path of virtue and lives a sinful life should not be used to the detriment of the class to which she belongs, especially when her life is peculiarly exposed to temptation, as is the case with girls struggling along on five dollars or less per week. It is easy to be good on a sure and generous income ; it requires the strongest character to enable one to be good and respectable on an unstable income of five dollars per week.

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION.

Summarized, the investigation into the condition of the working girls of Boston enables us to state that in round numbers,—

There are 20,000 working girls in the city of Boston, exclusive of domestics; of these 68.7 per cent are living at home with parents or other relatives; 11.3 per cent are living in boarding houses; 15 per cent in lodging houses; and 5 per cent in private families.

The single constitute 88.9 per cent of the whole; the married, 6.7 per cent; the widowed, 4.4 per cent. In regard to nativity, 58.4 per cent were born in Massachusetts, but both parents of 73.8 per cent were foreign born, and 3.9 per cent had one parent foreign born, the purely American girls being 22.3 per cent of the whole.

The present average age of the working girls is 24.81 years, while the average age at which they began work was 16.81, and the average time actually at work, 7.49 years; the average number of occupations followed is 1.78, and the average time spent in each, 4.43 years. Of the whole average time employed, during 6.31 years they have been employed in Boston, or 84.3 per cent of the whole time; so the working girls of Boston are Boston girls.

Of the whole, 85+ per cent do their own housework and sewing, either wholly or in part.

But 22+ per cent are allowed vacations, and 3.9 per cent receive pay during vacation; the average vacation for those receiving it being 1.87 weeks. A little over 26 per cent work the full year without loss of time, while 73+ per cent of the whole lose an average of 12.32 weeks each; the average time worked by all during the year is 42.95 weeks. In personal service, 26.5 per cent work more than 10 hours per day; in trade, 19.5 per cent are so employed, and in manufactures, 5.6 per cent; in all occupations, 8.9 per cent work more than 10 hours per day, and 8.6 per cent more than 60 hours per week.

In regard to health, out of 7.49 years employed, the average time for the working girls, 5.57 years have been in good health, or in other terms during 74.4 per cent of the whole time employed they have been in good health; or referring to num-

bers, 76.2 per cent of the whole number employed are in good health.

The present actual weekly earnings (week of investigation, 1883) are for all employed \$6.35, but the average weekly earnings for the average time employed, 42.95 weeks, was \$6.01, and the average weekly earnings of the working girls of Boston for a whole year are \$4.91.

The average weekly income, including earnings, assistance, and income from extra work, is \$5.17 for the year.

The average yearly income from all sources is \$269.07 and the average yearly expenses for positive needs are \$261.30, leaving but \$7.77 on the average as a margin for books, amusements, etc.

Those making savings are 11+ per cent of the whole, their average savings being \$72.15 per year. A few run in debt, the average debt being \$36.60 for the less than 3 per cent incurring debt.

Of the total average yearly expenses *63+ per cent must be expended for food and lodging and *25+ per cent for clothing, a total of 88+ per cent of total expenses for subsistence and clothing, leaving but 11+ per cent of total expense to be distributed for all the other wants of living.

The working girls of Boston, as a class, are honest, industrious and virtuous, and are making an heroic struggle against many obstacles, and in the face of peculiar temptations, to maintain reputable lives; they are entitled to the aid, sympathy, and respect of all who love good order, honest lives, and industrious habits.

With the facts before us, and by which we can very accurately determine the condition of the working girls of Boston, it would be reasonable to suppose that some suggestion might be advanced, looking to the general improvement of that condition. We should not forget that with the progress of the modern industrial system there seems to be no limit to the industrial opportunities of women. A quarter of a century ago

* These percentages agree with the law laid down by Dr. Engel of Prussia as to percentage of expenses belonging to subsistence, etc., which law was fully corroborated by the investigations of this bureau in 1875. See Sixth Annual Report, Mass. Bureau of Statistics of Labor, pp. 437-441.

women were allowed to enter but few occupations; now, as seen by the first tables on occupation, there are hundreds of avocations in which they can find employment. The result of this vast extension of opportunity is the same as under like conditions in other directions; whenever any industrial operations are simplified to such an extent that the weaker person can perform what was done of old by the stronger one, the cheaper labor comes in and wages must of necessity be lowered temporarily. As the adult man has in light occupations given place to the woman or the young person, wages in specific employments have decreased as compared with the former wages of the man, but have vastly increased as compared with the former wages of the woman or young person; in other words, by the progress of, or change in industrial conditions, the limit to the employment of women has been removed and their opportunity for earning wages correspondingly increased and the wages themselves greatly enhanced. Now the working girls of Boston find themselves in the condition of such new elements of labor, and no action can be taken which will increase abnormally their wages, for they are now earning something where formerly they could earn nothing.

For an increase of wages, certainly a most desirable result to be gained, they must depend upon industrial and economic conditions, and not upon legislative enactment or even to concerted actions of persons charitably and benevolently disposed.

While in regard to their wages no suggestions can be made by which they can be improved, improvement is possible in nearly every other direction.

First. Their hours of labor should not exceed ten hours per day, for, as we have seen, 85 + per cent of the working girls of Boston do their own housework and sewing either wholly or in part, and this home work must be done in addition to that performed for their employers. They should not be kept too constantly at work; in stores when trade is dull some might be allowed, as they are in many cases, an opportunity to go home for the purpose of attending to domestic sewing, and in many ways their burden might be lightened. Employers can do more in this direction than can be accomplished by law; more kindness on their part, more thoughtfulness as to the condition of their employes in all things that belong to physical and sanitary

conditions would result in making the girls happier in their lot, more cheerful in the service rendered, and we are sure the economic results of such kindness and thoughtfulness would be realized in the returns to capital invested. Those employers who understand the power of moral forces, of human sympathy, of care for the welfare of their employés, have seen the positive economic results of their broad-heartedness; positive and practical benefits are the actual outcome of an investment of this kind. We are not suggesting sentimentalism, but the application of the highest principles.

Second. We would suggest that parents teach their children to respect all honest labor; the honest working girl engaged in honest labor should be respected by all honest minded people; she should be welcomed in the churches of the city, she should be drawn into the best associations where social and moral surroundings would aid her in cultivating her own self respect, and in which mutual assistance would be rendered; certainly it should not be possible to class her as the "forgotten woman;" her struggle is too heroic, her hardships too painful, her lot too dreary for Christian people to thoughtlessly pass her by.

Third. One great lack in the lower grades of industry is the want of thorough training in technical knowledge, and of the capacity for close application; to secure these, there should be numerous institutions for free instruction in various branches of work. Such institutions already exist and are doing most excellent work; prominent among these are, sewing schools under the patronage of churches, the Chapel of the Evangelists, the Young Women's Christian Association, the North End Laundry, the Temporary Home for Working Women, the Training School for Nurses, the School of the Church of our Father, and several others; all such institutions should be generously supported and their number increased. These institutions together with evening schools can do much towards making the labor of the working girls far more efficient, thus bringing their economic conditions to a higher plane.

Fourth. We would like to see established homes for working girls; these should be founded on the basis of such homes in London on the plan elaborated by John Shrimpton, Esq., of London. These homes are for the express purpose of accommodating young women engaged in business during the day,

the object being to furnish a respectable home during those trying periods of non-employment, and while looking for a new situation; it is during this time that the girl is most subject to temptation, and most liable to succumb to evil. Poor, out of work, and seeking employment day after day, then is the time she needs all the strength of the highest virtue; and the more attractive she is the greater must be her moral power. We have seen that the girls are employed on an average but 42.95 weeks in the year; this fact shows the necessity of the establishment of one or more such homes; these homes are not charity affairs in the general sense, but really excellent boarding houses where a girl out of employment can find a good home with good living, including use of dining and sitting rooms, and library, at a minimum cost, which cost is charged to her, if she has no means to pay, until such time as she finds a new situation; she is then allowed to remain in the home and pay off her indebtedness by instalments, while the rate of her living is not increased. If she has been obliged to remain at the home so long that the indebtedness is a burden the matron of the home reports this fact to the proper officers, or to benevolent individuals, and she is aided. Of course no girl of bad character is allowed to remain in these homes.

The rates in the London homes are as follows:— for rent of rooms, including use of dining and sitting rooms with library, from 60 cents to \$1.00 per week; board, meaning thereby, breakfast, dinner, and tea, averages \$1.12 per week, subject to special arrangement; separate meals are, breakfast 5 cents, dinner 12 cents, tea 5 cents, supper 3 cents. There are now in London several of these homes located in different parts of the city, but within that great district where manufactures abound.

The rules for the government of these homes, taking those for the residents at Morley House in Fitzroy Square as a sample, are as follows:—

I. Each Resident is required to make her own bed, and keep her compartment neat, and is expected to look after her own luggage, as the Committee will not hold themselves responsible for any loss.

II. Needlework and writing are not allowed to be done in the bedrooms, as their occupation prevents a current of fresh air passing through the rooms, and impedes the servants in their work.

The compartments to be left by 10 a.m., Sundays included. It is particularly requested that on Sunday the Residents abstain from needlework.

III. Each Resident when at home is *requested* to attend Family Prayers, which commence at half-past eight in the morning, and half-past nine at night; and the Bible Reading, held on Sunday and also on one evening in the week.

The doors are closed at half-past ten p.m. In individual cases arrangements may be made with the Superintendent for Residents returning *occasionally* at a later hour.

IV. As the object with which this House has been established is to provide all the comforts and blessings of "Home Life" for those who cannot reside with their own families, it is earnestly hoped that all the Residents will in every way assist in promoting that object, the accomplishment of which so largely rests with themselves.

V. Rent of Bedroom to be paid in advance.

VI. No stimulants allowed on the premises.

VII. Each Resident is required to pay One Penny per week towards the support of the Sick Fund, which is established for the benefit of those residing in this House. In all cases medicine is supplied free for 21 days, and in the event of any Resident being confined to the House on account of illness, One Shilling per day is allowed for a period of not more than 14 days. The Sick Fund is under the management of the Superintendent.

The government of these homes is under a board of trustees, with treasurer, finance committee and so forth, with the founder, John Shrimpton, as the honorary director, and who has the general business management of them. One of the homes is named the "Garfield House," in honor of the late president of the United States, and is situated at 361 Brixton Road, S. W. Each house is under the immediate charge of an experienced matron, and everything is done to make the residents of the homes happier in their lot, and to lead them into a higher moral atmosphere; their success has been really surprising. With one such home in Boston, under proper management, more real practical good could be accomplished than through any other means. Something kindred to them is already in existence here, but nothing which fully meets their purpose; the Warrenton Street establishment of the

Young Women's Christian Association more nearly represents such homes than any other in the city.

The great success of the London homes lies in the fact that the residents of them are on an independent basis, as they are not objects of charity.

Boffin's Bower* assists working girls by advice and encouragement in carrying out their views, by aiding them in finding suitable employment, and, if destitute, there they can get a wholesome meal. The Temporary Home for Working Women, on Tremont Street, has some of the features of the London home, but none in the city supply the want furnished by such establishments as the homes for working girls in London.

Fifth. If people of wealth, in making provision for the distribution of that wealth by will, could be impressed with a knowledge of the amount of happiness they could bring to deserving people by remembering the generally weak institutions which are fighting bad conditions, they would, we feel certain, liberally endow such institutions, or provide the means for the establishment of new ones upon better and broader plans. It may be that the time has now come when, instead of leaving great sums to educational institutions, money can be made to tell more for the practical Christianity of the age by so placing it as to help relieve those who are obliged to make the contest of life with the barely elementary education furnished by the lowest grades of schools, the necessity of providing their own support too often obliging them to forsake the school for the shop.

* Miss Jennie Collins, the founder of Boffin's Bower, died July 20, 1887, aged 57 years. The work inaugurated by Miss Collins is being carried forward as she hoped to live to see done, that is, by the establishment of homes so cheap in their charges that working girls can take care of themselves without becoming objects of charity. The name Boffin's Bower is not used, the work being now done by the New England Helping Hand Society. It is located at No. 12 Carver Street, Boston. Mrs. Micah Dyer, Jr., is Chairman, and Mrs. E. Trask Hill, Secretary.

