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FIRST BIENNIAL REPORT

OF THE

Bureau of Labor Statistics

OF THE

STATE OF COLORADO.

1887-1888.

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JAMES RICE, Secretary of State Commissioner *ex officio*

C. J. DRISCOLL Deputy Commissioner

DENVER:

THE COLLIER & CLEVELAND LITH. CO., STATE PRINTERS.
1888.

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Letter of Transmittal.

STATE OF COLORADO,
OFFICE OF
COMMISSIONER OF LABOR STATISTICS,
DENVER, October 1, 1888. }

To the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

In conformity with the provisions of the law creating the Bureau of Labor Statistics, I have the honor to present herewith, to your honorable bodies, its first biennial report.

The act of the Legislature establishing a Bureau of Labor Statistics was approved March 24, 1887. By the provisions of that act the Secretary of State was made Commissioner of the bureau, with power to appoint a deputy commissioner.

Many able, worthy and intelligent gentlemen sought the position of Deputy Commissioner. For some time I studied the class of work demanded of this bureau, and my conclusions were that a man who, himself, had made the laboring and industrial interest a study, would be best fitted for the position.

The gentleman I selected was Mr. C. J. Driscoll, who was highly recommended by many of our best citizens. He at once entered earnestly upon the discharge of his duties.

Examination of the law creating this bureau will at once convince you of the great magnitude of the work outlined and expected to be performed, and it is no more than justice to the Deputy Commissioner to state that

he has met the varied objections which have been raised, from time to time, to the work required of the bureau, in a cheerful and gentlemanly manner. The difficulties which have been encountered and surmounted by him in course of duty will be apparent on perusal of the report.

The field of labor is widely extended and varied, and, in order to collate details relating to its several departments in this State, much larger means are required than were provided.

I am happy to state that, in the prosecution of this work, the Deputy Commissioner experienced, generally, a spirit of kindness and hearty co-operation in nearly every quarter, a fact which went far to making amends for the insufficiency of the appropriation.

Through the work which has already been done, the relations of the bureau with manufacturers, working-men and others are beginning to be favorably understood, and the information gathered and presented will, in my opinion, be of great benefit to the State and to all persons interested.

I firmly believe that our last Legislature performed a most worthy and commendable act in establishing this Bureau of Labor Statistics, thereby heeding a just request of the working people of the State who desired the establishing of a department devoted expressly to the investigation of matters directly affecting their interests.

I sincerely hope that the useful work just begun, and which looks to be so full of promise and value, will receive ample recognition at your hands, as well as at the hands of future Legislatures of our progressive State of Colorado.

It is certain that no one placed in the position in which the officers of this bureau have been, during the prosecution of this work, and brought into contact with its many features, but would unhesitatingly fall into sympathy with its objects.

In conclusion, I most cordially thank my deputy for relieving me of the performance of nearly all of the details required in connection with the arduous duties of the office. I also sincerely thank the press for its non-partisan and impartial expressions. Those who have assisted in the work of the bureau by correspondence with, or otherwise imparting information to it, one and all, likewise, have my hearty thanks.

Hoping to see this work, now so auspiciously inaugurated, continued for the benefit of the people of Colorado, I am,

Very respectfully yours,

JAMES RICE,

Secretary of State.

Commissioner, ex officio Labor Statistics.

AN ACT

TO ESTABLISH AND SUPPORT A BUREAU OF LABOR
STATISTICS.

Approved March 24, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. That there is hereby established a separate and distinct bureau to be known as the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Colorado, which bureau shall be charged with the collection of statistics pertaining to the internal resources of the State, labor and agricultural. The Secretary of State shall be designated the *ex officio* Commissioner of said bureau. He shall appoint a deputy within ten (10) days after the approval of this act, who shall hold his office for the term of two years. He shall be an elector of this State, well versed in the collection of statistics and matters relating thereto. The Deputy of Statistics shall, within twenty days after receiving his commission, and before entering upon the duties of his office, give bonds to the State of Colorado in the sum of \$2,000, to be approved by the Attorney General. Said deputy shall receive an annual salary of eighteen hundred dollars (\$1,800), payable as other State officers.

SEC. 2. The duties of the Commissioner shall be to collect, systematize and present in biennial reports to the legislature, statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the State, such as the hours and wages of labor, cost of living, amount of labor required, estimated number of persons depending on daily labor for their support, the estimated number of persons employed by the several industries within the State, the operation

of labor-saving machinery in its relation to hand labor, etc. Said statistics may be classified as follows :

First—In agriculture.

Second—In mining.

Third—In mechanical and manufacturing industries.

Fourth—In transportation.

Fifth—In clerical and all other skilled and unskilled labor not above mentioned.

Sixth—The amount of cash capital invested in lands, in building and machinery, severally, and means of production and distribution generally.

Seventh—The number, age, sex and condition of persons employed ; the nature of their employment ; the extent to which the apprenticeship system prevails in the various skilled industries ; the number of hours of labor per day ; the average length of time employed per annum, and the net wages received in each of the industries and employments within the State.

Eighth—The number and condition of the unemployed, their age, sex and nationality, together with the cause of their idleness.

Ninth—The sanitary condition of lands, workshops, dwellings ; the number and size of rooms occupied by the workers, etc. ; the cost of fuel, rent, food, clothing and water in each locality of the State ; also the extent to which labor-saving processes are employed to the displacement of hand labor.

Tenth—The number and condition of the Chinese in the State ; their social and sanitary habits ; number of married and of single ; the number employed and the nature of their employment ; the average wages per day at each employment, and the gross amount yearly ; the amount expended by them in rent, food and clothing,

and in what proportion such amounts are expended for foreign and home productions respectively; to what extent their labor comes in competition with the other industrial classes of the State.

Eleventh—The number, condition and nature of the employment of the inmates of the State prison, county jails and reformatory institutions, and to what extent their employment comes in competition with the labor of mechanics, artisans and laborers outside of these institutions.

Twelfth—All such other information in relation to labor as the Commissioner may deem essential to further the objects to be attained by this statute.

Thirteenth—A description of the different kinds of labor organizations in existence in the State, and what they accomplish in favor of the class for which they were organized.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of all State, county and precinct officers to furnish, upon the written request of the Commissioner, all the information in their power necessary to assist in carrying out the objects of this act. And not more than three thousand (3,000) copies of the printed report shall be furnished to the Commissioner for free distribution to the public.

SEC. 4. Any person who wilfully impedes or obstructs the Commissioner in the full and free performance of his duties, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined not less than ten (10) nor more than fifty (50) dollars, or imprisonment not less than seven (7) nor more than thirty (30) days in the county jail, or both.

SEC. 5. The office of the bureau shall be open for business from nine o'clock a. m. until five o'clock p. m., every day, except non-judicial days, and the officers

thereof shall give to all persons requesting it, all needed information which they may possess.

SEC. 6. The Commissioner shall have power to send for persons whenever, in his opinion, it is necessary ; and he may examine witnesses under oath, being hereby authorized to administer the same in the performance of his duty, and the testimony so taken must be filed and preserved in the office of said Commissioner.

SEC. 7. The Secretary of State shall provide a suitable office for said Commissioner, properly furnished.

SEC. 8. The sum of three thousand dollars (\$3,000) is hereby appropriated out of any money in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the expenses of the bureau for the first two years after its organization.

SEC. 9. If any difference shall arise between any corporation or person, employing twenty-five or more employés, and such employés, threatening to result, or resulting in a strike on the part of such employés, or a lock-out on the part of such employer, it shall be the duty of the Commissioner, when requested so to do by fifteen or more of said employés, or by the employers, to visit the place of such disturbance, and diligently seek to mediate between such employer and employés.

PART I.

Bureaus of Labor Statistics.

PART I.

Bureaus of Labor Statistics.

SECTION I.

IN COLORADO.

The people of Colorado, animated by the progressive spirit shown by those of other States, caused to be introduced at the Legislative session of 1885, two bills for the establishment of a Bureau of Labor Statistics. These bills were referred to the House Committee on State Affairs, where they were "smothered." During the session of 1887, one of them was revived and again introduced, and, in March, it was enacted into a law. The emergency clause, however, was not adopted; therefore, the law did not take effect until June of that year.

Were the motives which actuated the honorable gentlemen who cast their votes in favor of establishing this bureau inquired into, there is no doubt but it would be seen that they were governed by a desire to care for the general welfare and prosperity of the State, as well as to comply with the reasonable requests of the labor organizations within its limits.

The interest now manifested by all classes of citizens in labor statistics, and the eagerness for which they are sought, justify the demands made in every State, that there be created and maintained by adequate appropriations, a department devoted to the interests of the employed, so "that we may arrive at a correct knowledge of the educational, moral and financial condition of the laboring masses."

Statistics are of such vital importance in shaping legislation, that it is surprising to witness the reluctance of legislatures in establishing bureaus for the collection of statistics relating to labor, and the making of reasonable provisions for their maintenance. Such reluctance could be excused when these bureaus were looked upon only as experiments, but now, when they are considered as necessary in a well regulated State as departments of Forestry, Fish, Insurance, Cattle, etc., etc., there can be no good reason advanced for not establishing and rendering to them sufficient aid so that they may not be hampered in performing the important duties expected of them.

When it was first proposed to establish a National bureau of labor, great opposition was manifested to it in Congress; but after three and a half years of trial, during which time it collected and presented to Congress such a vast amount of information on important questions, that that body became convinced of the great value and vital usefulness of the bureau. This year, with scarcely any opposition, it enlarged its scope and created it a "Department of Labor," thus placing it on a footing of recognition and prominence which the duties performed by it justly warranted.

The real value of the work performed by labor bureaus, cannot be determined by the conclusions arrived at, or the statistics contained in a single report. In his message to the Legislature in 1887, Governor Eaton well said:

"Statistics are the basis of the science of government, and legislation can never be anything but a bungling succession of experiments until legislators are regularly furnished with the *data* on which to establish remedies, revenues and expenditures. The results of a single census are almost valueless for such a purpose, and it is only after the statistics have been collected and

collated for a considerable term of years that their scientific value to the legislator becomes obvious."

When the law establishing this office was about to go into effect, and a Deputy Commissioner was appointed, it was deemed proper to have Colorado represented at the National Convention of Labor Commissioners, which was held at Madison, Wisconsin, in June, 1887, where such knowledge could be gleaned from men experienced in the collection of labor statistics, as would be of material assistance in commencing the work of the bureau, and which might enable it to avoid the obstacles encountered by the Commissioners of other States, at the beginning. These expectations were more than realized by attending that gathering.

This bureau, like others, during the first years of their existence, has been compelled to rely, almost solely, upon what is known as the "blank system," for gathering information. In States where bureaus are established, the first appropriations for carrying on their work were meagre, but, as the importance of the work became known, the appropriations have been usually increased. Inquiries can then be made by special agents, and this proves to be the most reliable and satisfactory method for collecting necessary *data* pertaining to the subjects within the scope of investigation. While the "blank system" has not been attended with satisfactory results, yet, it has proved much more satisfactory in Colorado than in many of the other States. This may be partially accounted for through the interest created in the work of the bureau by the visits of the Deputy Commissioner to several portions of the State, as well as by the sympathy and cordial support obtained of the press.

There are many persons, however, who do not understand why the Commissioner should so inquisitively seek

to be informed concerning matters that they consider to be "none of his business to know about." These persons, consequently, have refused to give desired information. A few answers received will well illustrate this feeling. One correspondent wrote: "I believe your object is to inquire into our private business so as to cause our taxes to be increased, therefore, I refuse to fill your blank." On being informed of the object for which the information was desired, he not only filled out the blank, but also offered his services to assist in the work in whatever way might be desired.

Another correspondent wrote: "I have blanks from your office. I represent several companies. It would take some time to fill out your blanks. What is there in it for me?" Another declared: "I do not want to have anything to do with labor organizations, therefore, I positively refuse to answer any of your questions." Another said: "The amount of capital we have invested in our business is our private affair, and not yours." One correspondent returned his blank with "April fool," written across it, and still another sent his back after writing upon it "give us a rest."

A large number of persons to whom blanks were sent, failed to make any reply whatever. Such has been the experience of the Commissioners of other States during their first years of office; but, after their bureaus were well established, and their work had become better understood, both employer and employé cheerfully gave the information that makes their reports so important and valuable. That a similar change, bearing the same beneficial results, will take place in Colorado, there is not the least doubt.

The field intended to be covered in the operations of this bureau became more and more extensive as investi-

gation proceeded, and it was soon apparent that the work laid out could not be completed for this report.

The indifference or willful neglect on the part of some persons to whom blank forms were sent to be filled out, and who failed to make any returns whatever, compelled the abandonment of contemplated lines of investigation.

It was the intention of the bureau to have made especial inquiry and report on the acreage of lands owned in this State by non-resident aliens, together with the nature of improvements, if any, on them. Although the law makes it obligatory on the part of all officials to furnish information required by this office when it is in their power to do so, yet many county assessors to whom blanks were forwarded with the request that they be filled out, either paid no attention to the request of the bureau, or returned them without a particle of information. Others declared the work too laborious to be performed without remuneration, while one impertinently replied: "The Land Office would be the proper place to ascertain the information you wish in regard to ownership of lands in the counties instead of the county assessors." A few only gave the information sought. In consequence of these difficulties, it was impossible to obtain *data* in time for this report, and the matter had to be abandoned.

Another intended inquiry was the ascertaining what amount of capital is employed in certain industries, the object being to show the relation between wages and such capital. This also had to be abandoned after its commencement, for the reason that, where some of the employers who were corresponded with sent in apparently honest returns, others furnished such ridiculous figures as to make it manifest their object was to mislead. Some firms and companies claimed to have mill-

ions invested in business, when, on reference to the books of assessors, it appeared they were taxed but for a few thousands of dollars.

One of the most important matters of all had to be neglected owing to lack of sufficient time and means for carrying out the work. This was an investigation into the coal mining industry, than which, there is probably not a more important one in the State, and, certainly, not one in which the condition of employes needs closer investigation. All things being equal, it is difficult to tell why the coal miner, whose occupation is one of the most dreary, exhausting and dangerous, should be deprived of privileges enjoyed by other knights of industry, and undergo more hardships probably than any. The fact nevertheless exists.

This year there was afforded opportunity only of making a partial investigation into this subject, and, rather than present an incomplete report concerning it, the bureau determined to defer the investigation to the near future.

The questions of hours of labor, weekly pay-days, and other subjects, had likewise to be neglected for the present, owing to insufficient provision for performing the work necessary to make the *data* pertaining to them reliable.

Still one other subject of general interest had to be postponed even after a commencement had been made of the investigation. The matter referred to was "the number and condition of the Chinese in this State, their social and sanitary habits," etc.

The legislation that the bureau considers proper to recommend will be found in the report in connection with the subjects to which it relates.

SECTION II.

LABOR BUREAUS IN GENERAL.

The relations between labor and capital are so rapidly resolving themselves into social and political questions, demanding public investigation and legislative action, that there has been established in several States a department known as "The Bureau of Labor Statistics," the officers of which are instructed to inquire into all departments of labor, and to present, in periodical reports, statistical details relating to the social condition of that large portion of our population designated as the working classes.

In urging upon the legislature of Michigan the necessity of establishing such a bureau in that State, Governor Begole, in his message in 1883, used the following language:

"Railroads and insurance, corrections and charities, education, agriculture and health have been committed to State boards, whose valuable statistics and suggestions form a basis for legislation. Paupers and criminals, the fish that swim in our rivers and lakes, and the cattle that graze in our fields, are cared for by commissioners appointed by the State. A large class of our citizens, and who are seldom found in our halls of legislation to speak for themselves, have no one whose special duty it is to investigate their condition, and report what legislation is necessary for the protection of their interests. I refer to the laboring class."

The above language of Governor Begole is believed to be as applicable to other portions of the country, as it was to Michigan.

Governments are instituted for the purpose of the better protection of life and property, and for securing the prosperity and happiness of its people; the protec-

tion of the life and health of its citizens, particularly of its weaker members, is considered its first duty; the protection of property, a secondary one. The fathers of the Republic had in mind the old maxim of doing "the greatest good to the greatest number," when they founded our government.

A large and respectable portion of the people say that many acts of legislatures, and decisions of courts, are not in harmony with the designs of the founders of the government. They claim that laws are being enacted and construed solely for the protection of property, regardless of consequences to the life, health, or welfare of the masses. If such is not the case, so they reason, the few who live a life of luxury could not accumulate, in so short a time, the immense fortunes they do to bequeath their children, while the many, by whose sweat and labor these fortunes are created, are scarcely able to procure the necessities of life while living, and, at death, have nothing but blessings and good will to bequeath their children.

"Ill fares the land, to hast'ning ills a prey,
Where *wealth* accumulates and *men* decay."

Persons who are making a study of industrial, social and economic questions, tell us that our country is fast drifting into the condition suggested by the poet, and declare that, for the best good of the State, further progress in that direction must be prevented.

The laboring masses are being led to believe that their condition is not what it should be under a people's government. Laws that have either been repealed or become obsolete in monarchical governments, are rigidly enforced in this. In vain does one search our statute books for laws similar to those enacted by European governments, for the better protection of the working people.

Among the first to feel the blighting effects of commercial depressions are the laboring classes. They have usually been told that "hard times" are caused by over-production. They wonder how there can be an over-production of clothing, of shoes, of coal, of corn and of wheat, when, at the same time, so many people are nearly naked, as well as cold and hungry.

Legislators are confronted by the want of reliable *data* regarding the labor problems they are called upon to solve, and, many times, to appease what is termed "popular clamor," laws are enacted which often prove curses rather than blessings. Therefore, recognizing the importance of having accurate information relating to all questions concerning the social and industrial condition of the people, as well as to comply with the urgent solicitations of labor organizations, the legislatures of many States, including Colorado and our National Congress, have established bureaus for the collection of labor and industrial statistics, as follows:

Bureau of Labor, Washington, D. C.; established January, 1885; enlarged and created a department July, 1888.

Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Massachusetts; established June, 1869.

Bureau of Industrial Statistics, of Pennsylvania; established 1872.

Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection, of Missouri; established 1876; enlarged 1883.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Ohio; established 1877.

Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries, of New Jersey; established March, 1878.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Illinois; established 1879.

Bureau of Statistics, of Indiana; established 1879.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of New York; established 1883.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of California; established 1883.

Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, of Michigan; established March, 1883.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Wisconsin; established April, 1883.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Iowa; established March, 1884.

Bureau of Statistics of Labor, of Maryland; established 1884.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Kansas; established May, 1885.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Connecticut; established 1873 (discontinued); re-established April, 1885.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of North Carolina; established March, 1887.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Maine; established March, 1887.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Minnesota; established March, 1887.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Colorado; established March, 1887.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, of Rhode Island; established April, 1887.

Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, of Nebraska; established July, 1887.

The reports of these bureaus are eagerly sought for, not only by citizens of our own States and Territories, but by those of Canada and of Europe. They are considered authorities upon the various subjects investigated, this being particularly true of the reports of the older established bureaus.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics, as a State institution, is distinctly American. European countries perceiving the benefits derived from them, are establishing similar departments, which are making thorough investigation into the condition of their wage-working people.

The beneficial results of the work of labor bureaus are shown in the better feeling that is gradually growing between employer and employé, and in the enactment of just laws for the better protection of the working people; also, in bringing to light existing wrongs and evils that only need public exposure to meet public condemnation and final extinction.

The commissioners and chiefs of the several bureaus have formed a national organization that meets annually at which time opinions are interchanged and the best methods of investigating and acquiring information concerning various subjects in which they are interested are discussed, and at which interesting and valuable papers, written by persons making a study of industrial and economic questions, are read and commented upon. The results of these meetings are of great value to the public, as well as of material advantage to the commissioners.

The first convention of Labor Commissioners was held at Columbus, Ohio, September 25, 1883. There were six State bureaus represented at this gathering. It was through the efforts of Hon. H. A. Newman, then Commissioner for the State of Missouri, that the con-

vention was held. The reason for a general conference of Commissioners he stated to be as follows:

“As there seemed to be a wide difference in the manner in gathering and compiling statistics in the different States of the Union that have Bureaus of Labor Statistics, the Commissioner of this department concluded that a free interchange of opinions by the different Commissioners would be of much value, not alone to the Commissioners, but to the State legislatures as well.”

At that meeting they formed a permanent organization, electing Mr. H. A. Newman, president, and Henry Lusky, of Ohio, secretary.

The second annual convention was held at St. Louis, Missouri, June 9-11, 1884. At that meeting there were ten States represented. The officers elected at the previous convention were re-elected at this.

The third annual convention was held at Boston, Massachusetts, June 29 to July 1, 1885. There were twelve States and the National bureau represented. Hon. Carroll D. Wright, of Massachusetts, was chosen president, to which position he has been re-elected by every convention since. Mr. John S. Lord, of Illinois, was chosen secretary.

The fourth annual convention was held at Trenton, New Jersey, June 1-3, 1886. Thirteen bureaus, including the National one, were represented at this convention. Mr. John S. Lord, of Illinois, declined re-election. Mr. E. R. Hutchins, of Iowa, was chosen secretary.

The fifth annual convention was held at Madison, Wisconsin, in June, 1887. At this convention there were fourteen bureaus represented, including the National bureau. At this meeting Hon. James Bishop was elected vice-president, and Hon. E. R. Hutchins, secretary. After calling the convention to order, the president, who

is also the Commissioner of the National bureau at Washington, addressed it as follows:

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

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

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

“Looking upon the bureaus, then, in this light, weighing their work by the results thereof, it seems to me safe to predict for them brilliant futures, useful careers, and results which shall place the State bureaus on so high a plane in the service of the various Commonwealths that the question of their perpetuity cannot be raised. The many questions which belong to the peculiar conditions of each State, or of groups of States, render it absolutely essential that the autonomy of the State bureaus, as such, be preserved; and this renders it impossible, were there any desire to the contrary, for the United States Bureau to absorb the duties of the State offices. Such a result would be undesirable in itself, were there not weighty considerations against such a proceeding. The United States Bureau is engaged, of course, in work kindred to that of the States, but it cannot, as a rule, take up like specific questions to those which should engage the attention of the State offices. Their work will be confined to those questions which belong to the State itself as an independent body politic. It seems to me, therefore, that all the offices, State and National, should act in the utmost harmony, as it is the desire of all the members of this convention that they should act; that even under a disposition for some other

action, there can be no absorption by the one of the duties of the other.

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

"The question has often arisen, as we have met together, as to some uniform work. The province of our bureaus leads me to make some suggestions at this time for such work, and I know you will pardon me if I refer to efforts of my own to solve some of the problems which agitate the public mind. Two of the most important of these problems relate to the distribution of wealth, and the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital. The questions might be called one in the concrete; abstractly, I will consider them as two separate

questions. In regard to the distribution of wealth there does not exist any line of *data* which help us beyond a primitive, tentative line, in the solution of the question: "Is wealth more generally distributed now than formerly?" The problem has been discussed from various points of view, but generally from the observation of an individual or from a desire to establish a theory. Neither of these points are safe ones from which to approach so important a question. The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor is now engaged in collecting a line of facts which will bear upon the solution of this question. They will not solve it; they will not determine the facts conclusively, but they will give *prima facie* evidence of the direction of the distribution of wealth. As a basis the bureau has collected all the information for three great periods, from the probate courts of the Commonwealth. The periods adopted have been the years 1829, 1830 and 1831; 1859, 1860 and 1861; and 1879, 1880 and 1881; that is, for three periods of three years each, covering in the whole fifty years. The information collected has been as to the number of estates settled, either under will or otherwise, whether solvent or insolvent, the amount of real and personal property involved, etc. These facts will be brought into relation with death rates, showing whether a larger or smaller number of estates have settled in one period or the other, considered in comparison with number of decedents, and whether as to amounts there has been more or less property distributed as time progresses. Of course, there will be a proper grading of amounts, so that the size of estate may be determined, and whether more of large estates or small estates have been involved. As collateral facts, the question of estate valuation, the distribution of bank shares, of shares of manufacturing and other corporations, and all the facts available relative to wealth, will be collected. Now I would offer it as a suggestion, that such a study be taken up by each of the bureaus in the country, that the same line of facts be gathered, and that the same periods be considered. If this work is done carefully and accurately, without regard to the results, with no influence from preconceived ideas, or notions, or theories, it seems to me no greater service can be done. I have not, of course, given all the details

of the investigation, but have stated enough to show you the practicability of engaging in the study outlined.

“The other question, as to the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital respectively, is one which involves a great deal of difficulty. In nearly all the censuses that have been taken in this country prior to 1885, in which industrial statistics have been involved, the facts as to capital invested have been sought. This is true both of Federal and State censuses. I take courage to assert, however, that every argument, conclusion or deduction, based upon the statistics reported as giving the capital invested in manufacturing are absolutely vicious in their influence and thoroughly false in all their elements. To illustrate this assertion, and to prove it, too, I will give you a specific instance. I know a factory which is worked on a capital actually paid in of \$900,000. This is the sum reported in the census whenever taken. The product is given as \$1,000,000. The usual calculation, as these figures would appear in the census column, is to deduct the total cost of the raw materials used and of the wages paid in securing this product from the total value thereof, leaving a balance of product out of which capital is to be paid for its share as profit or interest, or compensation for superintendence, as well as all the expenses of insurances, losses, commissions, etc. This would show probably an immense margin of profit upon the capital invested. In this particular case, as relates to the factory referred to, the facts are that instead of \$900,000 capital actually employed in securing a product of \$1,000,000, there is a capital of \$1,600,000, divided as follows: Out of the original \$900,000 cash paid in by the stockholders, \$800,000 is invested in plant (meaning thereby buildings, machinery, apparatus, tools, and implements), \$100,000 being reserved in the treasury as working cash capital. Now, the concern borrows on an average, through discounts, \$700,000; this sum, in addition to paid-up capital, being actually essential for the production of the \$1,000,000 worth of goods. In simple terms, then, the corporation uses \$800,000 in plant and \$800,000 cash to produce \$1,000,000 worth of goods. You at once see the viciousness of the old method of reporting capital invested.

“This instance which I have given you represents the usual condition of manufacturing in this country. The conditions vary, of course, for in some cases the whole sum necessary for production has been paid in and no credit capital is required, while in others a less credit capital is needed, in accordance with the amount actually paid in; but in all cases where credit capital is essential, the census statistics are fallacious, and this vitiates the whole body of returns of capital invested. In collecting the statistics for the decennial census of Massachusetts for 1885, I have sought to correct this error, which has been growing in this country since 1810. I have asked the manufacturers of Massachusetts to report their capital invested in itemized sums, giving the separate amounts involved; that is to say, in such a way as to enable me to analyze the capital invested in each great industry in the State. I have asked them to report the money invested in plant, dividing plant into its various constituent elements—in permanent cash capital, in credit capital, first, that borrowed by the concern in any way, second, that borrowed by long credits on the purchase of raw material—and by this process of analyzing capital I am encouraged to believe that we shall solve, if not completely, yet so fully as to show the old error, this question of capital invested. You at once see the importance of the step. You also see the various results which have come from the old method. It does not matter where capital comes from in the production of goods, whether it be paid in or whether it be borrowed, or whether it be the result of long credits in the purchase of material; so long as these elements are essential to secure a given product they constitute capital invested.

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

sum that would appear, while \$200,000 would appear as the product. The truth is that he has borrowed of his own customers the capital sufficient to produce the \$200,000 worth of goods.

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

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

“With these two problems that I have suggested the bureaus can do contemporaneous and harmonious work. The United States bureau cannot touch it, only to a limited extent, but the United States census of 1896 should be so directed as to aid the States in coming to an accurate conclusion as to the relation of capital invested to product. With this relation clearly established, or even approximately determined, the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital respectively, can be determined with some degree of intelligence.

“Gentlemen, let us grapple with these and other great problems. Let us show to the country that no mistake has been made in creating these bureaus. Let us be scientific in our methods; let us aim to give the conditions of industry; let us prove to the working men and to the capitalists that they are safe when they follow the facts; let us show that they are unsafe when they follow mere theories, or when they adopt the empirical use of statistics as their guide. Let us devote ourselves to the faithful investigation of all conditions where facts should be known, and into all causes of bad conditions, of whatever nature, and fearlessly promulgate the results of our investigations. The popular education of the

masses in the elementary facts of political and economic science, and in the principles of social science, is the greatest educational end of the day; but let us remember that to attempt to turn the functions of our labor bureaus to base purposes is a crime, not easily punished by law, but which can and will be punished by an unwritten law which will reach us through a decree more to be dreaded than any merely judicial order or sentence; the sentence public opinion always passes upon the man who prostitutes the cause of humanity."

All the papers presented at the fifth annual convention were possessed of much merit. Lack of space, only, forbids our reprinting them all, but that prepared by C. C. Bonney, of Chicago, has such a direct bearing upon the work of labor bureaus, that it may not be considered out of place to produce it here:

STATISTICS AS A BASIS OF LEGISLATION.

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

"The office of legislation is four-fold:

"*First*—To enact new rules which experience has shown to be necessary or expedient, to govern cases for which the existing laws do not properly provide.

"*Second*—To repeal laws which advancing civilization has either outgrown, or has discovered to be founded on some unsound principle.

"*Third*—To settle by enactment, questions on which the courts have disagreed, or are in doubt.

"*Fourth*—From time to time to condense and simplify the laws relating to any given topic, that they may be more cheaply published, and more easily understood and applied.

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

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

"Now we come to the heart of the matter. The only means by which the results of a wide and varied experience in any department of life can be collected, classified, analyzed and studied, is that which is known

by the name of STATISTICS. Hence it follows that the statistical machinery of government should everywhere be increased, and more liberally supported, to the end that all the departments of control may act in the light of knowledge, instead of blundering along in the dark. The machinery of government should be so arranged that what may be described as a census report on any particular subject, could be obtained from all parts of the State or country within a few days; or, in case of emergency, by the use of the telegraph, in a few hours.

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

“A widely extended and systematic collection, classification, and publication of statistics would not only be of such great value to legislators, and other officers of government, but would also confer immense benefits upon the people at large. If from time to time the supply, at all points, of the various articles of commerce, could be made known, and the demand for each as shown by transportation orders be simultaneously declared, with the prices demanded, and the rates charged, not only would Congress and the State legislatures have a living and continuous basis of legislation, but the people,

especially the producers, would see how to regulate their production, and guard against the mistakes which they are constantly making for want of such knowledge, and which, from time to time, lead to overproduction, stagnation of trade, and finally a calamitous period of insolvency.

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

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

The sixth annual convention was held at Indianapolis, Indiana, May 22-23, 1888. The officers of the preceding year were re-elected. There were many persons present who entertained the convention in a very able manner, upon subjects in which it was greatly interested.

It was expected that Hon. T. V. Powderly would be in attendance and address the convention, but circumstances prevented his doing so. However, he sent a

paper on industrial training schools, to be read before the assemblage.

As the people of this State are becoming interested in that subject, the document is here given in full:

SETTLE THE APPRENTICESHIP QUESTION BY INAUGURATING INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

“From a paper before me I take the following paragraph. It appears to furnish food for reflection and study:

“‘A very serious question confronts the American youth under the existing restrictive system of apprenticeship. What is to become of the millions of boys, who, having finished going to school, are looking about for something to do?’”

“‘This subject is worthy of the best thought of the most profound thinkers of our time, and I make bold to discuss it briefly, in the hope that my words, which at best will serve but as an introduction, may cause others to take up the question itself for discussion.

“‘Have we a restrictive system of apprenticeship in the United States? I fail to find it in operation in many of the trades and callings, and in many others it exists only in name. Its effect on limiting the number of apprentices is scarcely felt in the trade. It is frequently urged that the restrictive system of apprenticeship is driving the American youth from the skilled callings; that the native born is being driven from the workshop to make room for the workmen of foreign birth. It is held by many that the trade-union is to blame for this state of affairs; that the American labor organization is inimical to the interests of the American workman. When the mechanic worked steadily for six days in the week to perform a certain amount of work by hand, it was necessary for him to know the use of tools; in order to fit himself for the performance of such a task, he had to bind himself to the employer for a term of years, during which time he was taught the rudiments of his trade. He worked for a pittance in the hope of one day being able to take his place at the bench as a journeyman. It made no difference whether he learned his machinist, blacksmith, molding, cooper or shoemaking

trade, they were all hard to acquire, and the mechanics of fifteen or twenty years ago had to learn the whole trade in order to take his proper place by the side of other mechanics when out of his time and upon the road as a journeyman. At present it is a waste of time to bind a boy to any of these trades, or to any particular trade, for the reason that they are all subdivided to such an extent that men are set to work on special pieces on entering the workshop, and remain in that particular subdivision during their term of service. The chief aim of the employer in engaging apprentices is to secure the assistance of cheap help on work that it is not necessary to employ competent mechanics to perform. The opposition of the mechanic to a number of apprentices is that the market may not find too many craftsmen in search of employment; under such conditions wages must have a downward tendency. An apprentice in 1888 does not enter upon the trade as the apprentice of 1858 did. In 1858 the apprentice learned all of the "arts and mysteries" of the trade, while the beginner of to-day is placed at a machine and is apt to be kept at it during his entire term of apprenticeship. If he is skillful, and manipulates that machine to good advantage, he is more likely to be of better service to his employer than if he were allowed to take turns at all of the different branches of the trade; but when his term expires he is of but little use as a mechanic, for should he apply to another employer for a situation he may not be lucky enough to find employment at a machine similar to the one at which he served his term, and if he is not so employed he will have to wait until a vacancy occurs, or tramp. During the period from 1859 to 1875 trades-unionism flourished more than at any other time in our history; it was during that period that the greatest opposition to an unlimited number of apprentices was manifested by the mechanics of the United States. During that same period the employers of labor learned to go to foreign lands to secure the services of mechanics who would engage to take the places of the American workmen. The employer was not forced to go abroad for workmen, but he regarded the trade society as a foreign institution, and would not recognize it in dealing with his employés. He was consistent, however, in going to Europe for work-

men who were none the less foreign because he imported them.

“During the past ten years, which may justly be styled the decade of the iron man, the importation of foreign workmen by employers was practiced on a most extensive scale. During this same period trades-unionism languished in the United States and played but a small part in dictating to employers how many apprentices they should engage; yet, employers imported foreign laborers in such numbers as to arouse the American workmen to a sense of danger, when they began to rebuild their shattered organizations, in which work they were encouraged by the Knights of Labor, the latter organization having secured the passage of a law which, although frequently violated by employers, has for its object the prohibition of the importation of foreign labor under contract. The argument that trades-unionism is to blame for the presence of so many foreign born mechanics in our workshops is not worthy of consideration. The truth plainly stated is, that every foreigner who is to-day at work in the workshops of the United States is here because he believed he could improve his condition by coming, or is here because he was induced to come by some agent, or bureau, in the interest of the employers of labor in the United States.

“It is neither profitable nor encouraging to learn a trade when the chances are that some morning the mechanic will awake to find a machine standing in his place doing the work which he performed the day before. Inventions have been introduced so rapidly and extensively during the last ten years that many trades have been almost revolutionized. This rapid introduction of machinery has had a tendency to depress wages; the reduction in wages and the lack of security in workshop management has been the cause of sending many a boy to college who would have gone into the workshop after passing through the routine of the common public school.

“Americans believe that they live in the best country in the world; the workman being imbued with that sentiment believes that he should receive the best wages in the world. The employer, who may be as proud of his

country as the workman, when it comes to a question of employing an American because he is a countryman, or securing the services of cheap workmen, will cast his lot with the foreign workman and the dollars-and-cents side of the question. The foreign workman, not knowing what his services ought to bring in this land, will step in the shoes of the American workman who received from \$2.50 to \$3.00 a day, and be recompensed at a rate not exceeding \$1.50 or \$1.75 a day. Having lived where it was necessary to practice the most rigid economy, he brings his economical habits and ideas with him, and for a time he can exist on the wages paid to him.

"We also find the manufactories of the United States being operated as though they were the property of one management. The tendency is to bring them under one common head through the agency of the 'trust.' Independence on the part of the workman is being crushed out, for he has only to work in one mill, workshop or factory in one part of the country and he becomes known all over. This system, although in its infancy, bids fair to become so perfected that it will be impossible for a man to work in any part of the country if his last employer is dissatisfied with him. The tendency throughout for the past few years has been to discourage the American youth when he sought to learn a trade. He is unwilling to spend years in acquiring knowledge which may never be of service to him. The colleges and universities are full to overflowing, and soon the professions will be as crowded as the trades are to-day.

"This is an age of revolution and evolution. It is the most marvelous age the world has ever witnessed, and nothing that has gone before can be compared to it, or cited as an indication of what is to follow. We can not, with any degree of accuracy, predict anything for the future; we grope and fear to risk too much, lest some new invention completely upsets all our plans and gives the winning hand to another. We find American youths unwilling to learn trades because they do not bring rich rewards or assurances of stability of employment. There is a fascination about the large cities which they did not

bear some years ago, and, taking it altogether, we find ourselves in a state of transition almost impossible to describe. What the man of *ante bellum* days regarded as a luxury is to-day an absolute necessity. Take a look at the room in which you sit when this is read and contrast it with what your surroundings would have been in 1858, just thirty years ago; note the changes which time has worked, not alone in the appearance of the room, but in that of its occupants. Once we put a little oil in a saucer, hung a rag over the edge, struck the flints together and ignited the rag. With such a light our reading and sewing were done. Then we ran the tallow into the mould and made the candle; we next ran the fluid into the lamp, and stood back in awe to see it burn; after that gas began to work its way beneath our sidewalks and into our sitting rooms; then the old Drake farm was tapped, and the world was astounded to find itself burning the product of the earth after the refiner changed its color. Then we said we can go no farther, and found our words were contradicted by a glare of light which almost rivaled the noonday sun, and electricity flashed itself into favor. [On the ninth of this month, at eleven o'clock at night, I saw a man painting a sign on Chestnut street, Philadelphia, without the aid of lamp or torch; electricity answered every purpose].

“Ten short years ago we wrote our letter, or, if we were in a hurry, we telegraphed to our friends; to-day we call up exchange and talk across cities and counties. Soon, States will be traversed by the sound of the human voice. To-day we talk into a funnel, and not only are the words recorded, but the very sound and quiver of the voice is faithfully preserved to be repeated as often as may be required at any time during our lives or after death. We stop and ask, what next? The answer comes with the rapidity of lightning from some quarter of the universe in the shape of a new invention. What has this to do with the American youth? Everything, for we must devote more time to him than heretofore, so that he may not, Micawber-like, stand in idleness waiting for something to turn up. Let us turn it up for him by inaugurating a system of industrial schools in which the arts, sciences and trades will be taught.

Surely the American youth is worthy of the best that we can do for him, and we should encourage him in his first steps, that his later ones will be for the good of the Nation. At the rate at which science is advancing, there will soon be no shoveling of earth, no leveling of hills by hand, no digging of trenches, no cutting of earth, or wood, or iron by hand; all these things, and all else that enters into the industry of the world, will be done by the aid of science. There will be no trades or tradesmen of any special calling or crafts. In the world's production nothing shall be missing, nor should one man have an advantage over another which nature does not give him. We will have men of no particular trade, but all men will know all crafts, not the "jack of all trades," but a far different being, who knows all trades well. Every school-room should be a work-shop, a laboratory, and an art gallery. At present a trade learned is a trade lost, for the learner does not have an opportunity to practice but one part of his calling, and if thrown out of that one groove, cannot fall into another. Under an industrial system of schooling every American youth will know sufficient of all trades to step into whatever opens itself to him, and he will not be forced by circumstances to stand in the way of another who is anxious to rise, but will be fitted to take a step forward at a moment's notice. He will always find work to do, and will do it more rapidly, with better tools and for a greater reward than the artisan of the present. The unsettled conditions which now make trades-unionism a necessity will vanish, and in that age there will be but one organization necessary, the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man."

PART II.

The Labor Movement.

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SECTION I.

THE LABOR MOVEMENT ABROAD—EARLY ORGANIZATIONS.

Labor organizations are nearly as old as labor itself. From the age when toilers began to emancipate themselves from ignorance, the love of freedom and independence, which always comes with education, began to develop within them. With that love came the kindred desire to ameliorate their condition. Their minds, with a common impulse, began to crystalize into little groups. It may be readily believed that—when individual toilers began first to lift their eyes and their feeble aspirations above and beyond their daily environment of slavish tasks—here and there, they would get together and mingle their longings and complaints. In the conflict against wrong and oppression which then began and which, in various forms, has been since continuously waged, the laborers early learned the necessity of making more perfect organizations of the crude combinations.

Coming together at first for sympathy of ideas, or from that desire for companionship which we are told is loved by misery, the fact soon came to be appreciated, that objects, which one, single-handed and alone, could never hope to gain, might be accomplished, or at least be better striven for, by many working together. Labor organizations have therefore been in existence, in some

form, in all civilized countries, since civilization had advanced sufficiently to recognize the difference between serfdom and individual liberty.

The first record of organization is that of the guilds which were formed in the middle ages. The objects of their formation were, at first, opposition to the feudal lords of that time, a host of petty despots who were the possessors of nearly every earthly thing desirable. Gold, land and property of nearly all descriptions were theirs. This enabled them to lead lives of idleness, luxury and vice, in the midst of which not a thought was bestowed upon the struggling servitors or vassals whom they oppressed. These were compelled to labor in their several classes, and each class stood entirely by itself. Naturally, there was discontent, for, before the time of Goldsmith, that great author's expressed truth, in which he says:

"Laws grind the poor, and rich men rule the law,"

was bitterly realized. This condition of things made men "rebels from principle," as Burke says, and from these small germs have evolved the intelligent and earnest bands which have accomplished so much for the wage-worker, and are still striving to do more.

In the early part of the Christian era, Theseus, the Athenian, separated the skilled from the unskilled workmen, and the trades relating to war were accorded extra privileges. In the early history of Greece there were special trades, each having its particular festivals, and other indications of combinations among themselves. In that country the son worked at the same trade as had his father and forefathers. Thus was a trade confined to a family through several generations.

In Rome's early history Numa Pompilius divided the plebeians into clubs, according to their trades.

The Queen of Lombardy, in the year 590 gave certain privileges to the stone cutters of that time. In the year 738 the monks of Lombardy got dissatisfied with the masons' work, and strove to prevent them working upon sacred structures. The guilds resisted the monks, and a violent controversy resulted; the workmen not only fighting against the edicts of the monks, but also against the custom of the aristocracy, who largely employed serfs and bondmen to perform work. In the struggle the guilds were triumphant.

As early as 1099 the weavers of Mayence formed a guild, and the butchers of Ansberg in 1104. At Worms, the fishermen had a guild previous to 1106, and the weavers there before 1114. The Paris butchers established a guild in 1134, and the bed-cover weavers at Cologne formed a guild in 1149, and, eight years later, the shoemakers had a guild at Magdeburg.

The Strasburg guilds, in the year 1370, having grown strong and having gained a voice in the town councils, got quite exclusive as to their membership, rejecting certain persons considered of a lower grade in the trades. The masons and stone cutters united and formed a grand organization, comprising the guilds of Germany, France, England, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Hungary and the Netherlands.

John Simon Cameron, in his "Story of Labor," says:

"Guilds, or associations of individuals for a common purpose, are of immemorable antiquity. * * * In tracing their history we find the merchant guilds, the prototypes of modern corporations; the religious guilds, the prototypes of modern church societies; the social guilds, the prototypes of Masonic, Odd Fellows and kindred organizations; the craft guild, the predecessor of the modern trades-unions; and, finally, guilds of lawyers and guilds of literateurs and artists."

DENMARK.

The working people of Denmark have had, for many years, clubs for mutual aid and relief for the sick. In 1870 they began the establishment of trades-unions which have since flourished. At Copenhagen, there are more than forty unions, including in their membership bakers, blacksmiths, carpenters, painters, printers, tailors, saddlers and cigar-makers. Since 1870 they have indulged in nearly two hundred strikes, all for increase of wages. These strikes were all mild in character and of only short duration.

ENGLAND.

The English trades-unions have, in reality, existed in some form for many years. Originally, they may be said to have organized in opposition to the rigid laws of that country. The laws were softened in their severity in 1824, and made sufficiently lenient to allow workingmen to form societies for their protection and advancement.

Upon this subject, Mr. John Burnett, the labor correspondent of the London Board of Trade, writes:

“To a very limited extent does the modern trade society resemble the ancient craft-guild. The guild of the middle ages was the union of all the men in a trade, masters and workmen alike, and the object of the combination of these joint guilds was due to the development of industry, and to the growing diversity of interests between the masters and the men. In our time the same diversity of interest has led to the formation of opposing trades-unions, whose object is to look after the interests of the section it represents, without any special regard to that of the other section. In this respect, perhaps, the old trade-guilds had the advantage over the modern copy of their prototype, inasmuch as they insured a neutrality of interest which does not at present exist between employer and employed. However that may be, it is certain that the breaking up of the guilds

left the workers of England for centuries in a state of social anarchy of which we have little conception now, and which reached its climax during the latter half of the eighteenth and first quarter of the present century."

Up to 1824 the laws of England were rigidly opposed to combinations of the workingmen. Law regulated all the relations between employer and employed, with all the favors on the side of the employer.

Mr. Burnett continues:

"At the beginning of the present century, the condition of large masses of the people was miserable in the extreme. The introduction of the steam engine and improved machinery, ultimately a blessing, was at first attended by great inconvenience and suffering to thousands on account of the old fashioned labor being displaced, and having to adapt itself to new conditions."

After 1824, many of the legal restrictions against trade combinations had been removed and the good work before commenced without the sanction of legal authority, was now pushed forward in its course in a manner open and free to inspection. As early as 1809, the "Friendly Society of Iron Founders" was established. The ideas upon which their association and similar societies were formed, were those of sympathy, mutual aid, the establishing of uniform rates of wages, to keep up a fund for the aid of sick or injured members, the burial of deceased members and their wives, to arbitrate trades disputes, and to regulate matters generally between employers and employed.

From the day trades-unions were freed from the ban of the law, down to the present time, labor associations have increased in membership and usefulness, with a gradual, healthy growth. While some of them confine their operations to England, many have extended their jurisdiction to other countries.

Among the latter may be mentioned the "Amalgamated Society of Engineers," that was formed in 1851, by combining several societies of the engineering trades, some of which had been in existence from 1823. This society now has branches in Ireland, Scotland, France, Holland, New Zealand, Queensland, Malta, South Africa, the East Indies, Canada, the United States, and other countries.

Another, the "Steam Engine Makers' Society," which was formed in 1825, and which refused to amalgamate with kindred associations in 1851, having branches in the United States and Canada, and still another, the "Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners" that was founded in 1860, and which had, in 1886, 440 branches scattered throughout several countries, including the United States.

FRANCE.

The French workingmen are generally industrious, and, after marriage, are economical and have ambition to own homes. Previous to marriage they are not as careful of their earnings. All are, however, careful as to their dress, desiring neat attire for working costume and a bit of cheap finery for their holidays.

In the large trade centres there are labor organizations, but they are not as numerous as in other countries. This may be due to the fact that there is an established system of arbitration for settling labor disputes, also a method of insurance established by law, which pays moderate sums to employes in case of injury or sickness, or to their heirs in case of death.

GERMANY.

There are a number of labor organizations in existence in Germany. Some of them are modeled after the plan of the English trades-unions, while others are

purely beneficial in their character, taking the form of benevolent, or insurance associations, which are encouraged by assistance received from employers. The law under which these associations are formed prohibits the discussion of politics at their meetings. Strikes are infrequent in this country, except in the large centers of population. The feeling existing among employers and employés, in nearly all portions of Germany, is described by the several American consuls as being quite friendly.

HOLLAND.

In Holland trades-unions have been in existence since 1866. There are altogether nearly one hundred organizations, including two composed of females. A portion of the entire number is mostly of a social nature. The relations between employer and employed are very pleasant. There have never been but few strikes, and they were generally failures.

INDIA.

In India, the sudra, or the working caste, has what may be called guilds, or labor organizations, conducted in a manner which is highly creditable, when it is considered how small have been their opportunities for advancement under the social and religious class restrictions and caste prejudices of that country. In fact, these societies would make good models for workmen in more enlightened countries. By these guilds, wages are regulated, efforts to lessen competition are made, and hours of labor are regulated with a view of giving employment to all. Fines are imposed for the violation of rules. Certain privileges are sold for short periods, and apprentices are required to pay for their education in any skilled trade. The money obtained by these means is used to aid the widows and orphans of deceased

workingmen. Strikes are not unknown to these organizations. One of the most vigorous was against a reduction of wages, and it was successful after a six weeks' struggle.

ITALY.

Italy has numerous organizations of workingmen designed for the mutual aid of members, especially during periods of sickness or scarcity of employment. Strikes occasionally occur, but they are always of an orderly character. Usually, the leaders of the striking people settle matters in dispute by negotiation. It is customary in some localities for the employer to furnish doctor and medicine for sick employés, also, to continue their wages until recovered. Men, especially miners and those employed upon railroads, are thoroughly trained for their work and accidents are infrequent.

JAPAN.

The Japanese have labor organizations, each trade having its own guild. Formerly the government sold or distributed exclusive privileges to labor to certain parties, and, through that system have the guilds become established. This privilege system has been abolished, but the guilds remain for the protection of mutual interests.

RUSSIA.

Russia has been the home of labor organizations for many years. The societies are called "artels." Peter the Great divided workmen into two great classes, or guilds, during the year 1721. In 1852, under the rule of Alexander II., the old guild laws were modified and trade associations were allowed to form. These laws gave trade great freedom, and protected it when it was organized upon the platform of mutual assistance. The

“artels” still exist, and represent in their membership every industry in the Nation.

SPAIN.

Spain's workingmen, also, have organizations, but they are not numerous. The occupations of a large portion of the laboring classes of this country are such, that the latter consider organizations of no special advantage.

SWIZERLAND.

In Switzerland the relations between employer and employed are very happily arranged. There is a feeling of protection manifested by employers toward their workers, which encourages the latter to practice frugality. There are several labor organizations among the toilers, and, also, among the manufacturers and merchants, but the two never clash.

It has not been attempted, in the foregoing pages of this section, to make a complete exhibit of the conditions of labor in foreign countries. The principal object is to show the tendency among the industrial classes of all Nations to organize for mutual self-protection.

SECTION II.

LABOR MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES—CON- SPIRACY LAWS.

The trades and labor-unions of this country are modeled, generally, after the plan of the English trades-union. The advancement of labor organizations in America has been retarded by the decisions of our courts, which, following old English decisions, have declared that, under the common law, it is an indictable

offense, punishable by imprisonment, for working people to combine, even for the purpose of procuring an advance of wages. As unreasonable as this may seem to ordinary mortals, it has been held [6 T. R. 636]:

“That journeymen each may insist on raising his wages if he can; but if several meet for the same purpose it is illegal, and the parties may be indicted for a conspiracy.”

In 1806, the journeymen boot and shoe makers employed in a certain establishment in Philadelphia, formed an association for the purpose of procuring a raise in wages. A few of the employés, who were satisfied with the wages paid, refused to act with the others, and were consequently treated as “scabs;” their employer also experienced loss through the refusal of the majority of the employés to work unless their request was conceded. For this action, criminal proceedings were commenced against them by the employer. The only offense proven was that they were guilty of an attempt to advance wages through a combination; this, the defense acknowledged, but reasoned that the common law of England was not the law of the State, and, as there was no statute law relating to the matter, such a combination was not unlawful in Pennsylvania. The judge ruled otherwise, and instructed the jury to find a verdict of guilty, if they were satisfied that a combination to raise wages existed. A verdict of guilty was accordingly rendered.

The master hatters of New York formed an association in 1823, for the purpose, so it appears, of regulating wages, and they agreed not to employ any journeyman who had left his last place on account of wages paid. This caused the journeymen to organize a society, or union, and establish a “scale of wages,” the members agreeing not to work in any shop where men worked for less than the established union rate. The firm of Jager & Hains

employed one Daniel Acker, who worked for "knock-down wages," consequently, the union men employed by them refused to work unless Acker was discharged. He was discharged, but the men who refused to work were indicted for conspiracy. In the indictment it was charged that:

"Henry Trequier and others, [named] did unlawfully conspire, combine, confederate and agree together, etc., that they would not work, nor would either of them work for, or be employed by, any master hatter who had in his service any workmen or journeymen engaged in said art, who had not agreed to certain rules adopted by the said Henry Trequier and others" [named].

It was also charged that the acts of these men caused Acker to be discharged from his employment.

These facts were not denied by the defendants, but their counsel claimed that the English doctrine of conspiracy by which it was sought to punish his clients, could not be tolerated in this country, and, as the journeymen hatters were compelled to combine to protect themselves against the unreasonable measures adopted by the master hatters' association, they had therefore committed no offense. The court did not take this view of the case, but charged the jury, in effect, that the association of the journeymen amounted to a conspiracy, inasmuch as that "they not only remonstrated against the employment of Acker in the same establishment with the defendants, but carried their combination to the extent as to cause him to be discharged."

The court left it to the jury to say whether the acts of the defendants amounted to a conspiracy or not.

The jury immediately returned a verdict of "guilty." [Wheeler Cr. Cas., 142].

In a case brought before the New York Court of Errors in 1835, from Geneva, [14 Wend, 1] where jour-

neyemen shoemakers organized and fixed the price of making coarse boots, and entered into an agreement that if a journeyman shoemaker should make such boots for a compensation below the rate established, he should pay a penalty of ten dollars; it was held that the parties thus "conspiring" were guilty of a misdemeanor and punishable accordingly.

And further, that "a previous indictment for the same offense is no bar to a second indictment, although, upon the first, defendant has been arraigned and pleaded."

In rendering the decision, the judge cited cases before mentioned as sound law, and further said:

"I have found but few adjudications upon this subject, but precedents, in the absence of adjudication, are some evidence of what the law is. Among those we find precedents at common law against journeymen for conspiring to raise their wages and lessen the time of labor, and to compel masters to pay for a whole day's work; against journeymen lamp-lighters, for conspiring to raise wages; and against journeymen curriers, for the same offense; against salt-makers, for conspiring to enhance the price of salt; against journeymen serge weavers, for refusing to work for a master who had employed a man contrary to certain rules entered into by conspiracy; against journeymen leather-dressers, for conspiring to induce a man to turn a person out of his employment."

The common law theory of conspiracy, as laid down in the case of *Rex. vs. Bykerdyke*, [1 M. & Rob., 179] has been frequently affirmed.

The facts in the case are these: One Garforth was an agent, or manager, of a colliery, in which were employed a large number of men, seven of whom were obnoxious to the others. The seven, at their own request, being summoned by Garforth before a magistrate for refusing to work, expressed a fear to work except

under the appearance of being compelled to do so. The other men met and agreed upon a letter to the manager, to the effect that all the workmen in his employ would strike in fourteen days unless the obnoxious persons were discharged. For this offense several of the men were indicted for conspiracy.

The Court instructed the jury:

“That a conspiracy to procure the discharge of any of the workmen was unlawful; and further, that the law did not empower workmen to meet and combine for the purpose of dictating to the master whom he should employ, and that this compulsion was clearly illegal.”

The defendants were convicted.

The New Jersey Supreme Court followed this doctrine of common law in deciding a case brought before it in 1867. [3 Vroom, 151.] It was charged that one Donaldson and others gave notice to their employer that, unless he discharged two fellow-workmen, they would not work for him, and that their request being refused, “they quitted their said employment and remained away until their demands were complied with.”

The Chief Justice, in rendering the decision of the Court, said:

“It appears to me that it is not to be denied that the alleged aim of this combination is unlawful; the effect was to dictate to this employer whom he should discharge from his employ. This was an unwarrantable interference with the conduct of his business, and it seems impossible that such acts should not be, in their usual effects highly injurious. How far is this mode of dictation to hold lawful? If this manufacturer can be compelled in this way to discharge two or more hands, he can, by similar means, be coerced to retain such workmen as the conspirators may choose to designate. I cannot regard such a course of conduct lawful.

“It is no answer to the above consideration to say, that the employer is not compelled to submit to the

demands of his employés; that the penalty of refusal is simply that they will leave his service. There is in this coercion; the men agreed to leave simultaneously, in large numbers, and by preconcerted action.

“This indictment sufficiently shows that the force of the confederates was brought to bear upon their employer for the purpose of oppression and mischief, and that amounts to a conspiracy.”

A Connecticut case, of deep interest, may be cited, because it is of recent date:

In 1886 the *Journal and Courier*, owned by the Carrington Publishing Company, of New Haven, Connecticut, which was and had been a non-union office, desired to become a union office, and through the president, J. B. Carrington, requested the New Haven Typographical Union to furnish a force of union men. This was agreed to by the union. At the same time Mr. Carrington informed his non-union employes that the office was to be placed under union rules, and that they must make arrangements with that organization to be admitted to membership, if they wished to continue in his employ.

During pending negotiations it leaked out that the union, for certain reasons, refused to admit all of Carrington's printers to membership. The non-union men met and decided that all must be taken in or none, and prevailed upon Mr. Carrington not to abide by his proposition to the union.

The union still refused to admit two, whom it regarded as very objectionable. The publishers insisted that all their old employes should be admitted to membership and remain in their employment, otherwise, they would not further recognize the union. The typographical union, aided by other labor organizations, then instituted what is known as a “boycott” against

the company. Legal proceedings were taken by the latter against Benjamin F. Glidden and three other members of the union, and they were indicted for conspiracy.

The charges under which they were indicted were embraced in six counts, summarized by the judge as follows:

“The first count charges the accused: *First*—With unlawfully conspiring to compel the Carrington Publishing Company, against its will, to discharge from its employment certain specified workmen, and to compel said corporation to employ the accused and others in their places. *Second*—The count then proceeds to state as a further object of said conspiracy, as follows: ‘And to injure and oppress the said workmen, then in the employ of said corporation as aforesaid, by depriving them of their said employment.’ *Third*—It is alleged that as a part of said conspiracy, it was concerted that by certain unlawful means therein set forth, the accused conspired to accomplish the purposes of said conspiracy.

“Among such unlawful means to be employed, is the withdrawal of patronage from the corporation and its customers, certain alleged threats and intimidations not particularly specified or described, and a demand for money to pay their expenses, which is the expenses of attempting to induce or compel the Carrington Publishing Company to accede to their wishes. The court then states certain acts done in pursuance of said conspiracy.

“In the second count the object of the conspiracy is alleged to be, to injure and oppress and reduce to beggary certain enumerated workmen of the corporation, to deprive them of their employment with said corporation, and to prevent them from getting employment anywhere in their trade, and to force the corporation to discharge them, and as a part of said conspiracy, that the accused agreed upon certain alleged unlawful methods of accomplishing the design of said conspiracy.

“The third count alleged that the object of said conspiracy was to induce others, by threats and persuasion,

not to patronize the *Courier*, or the Carrington Publishing Company, and so to ruin the business of the *Courier* or the Carrington Publishing Company.

“In the fourth count it is alleged that the object of the conspiracy was to ruin the business of said corporation by the specified means, to which is added an allegation of an act done in pursuance of the conspiracy.

“The fifth count states the object of the conspiracy to be to deprive one Gleason of his employment, and prevent him from exercising his trade and calling with the Carrington Publishing Company, and so reduce him to beggary, etc.

“The sixth count is like the fifth, with the addition of sundry names of other persons to be prevented from exercising their trade and calling.”

The jury found three of the accused guilty of conspiracy. An appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of Errors, and this court affirmed the finding of the lower court, because the defendants did “intimidate the publishers and attempted to compel them to discharge certain workmen, and to employ defendants and others to be named by the latter,” also because the defendants “deprived the publishing company of its liberty to carry on its own business in its own way, though in doing so, they interfered with no right of the defendants. The motive of the defendants was to gain an advantage unjustly and at the expense of others; therefore, the act was legally corrupt. To accomplish this, they intended to harm the publishing company; therefore, it was malicious.”

Further, the Court pronounced it “also a crime to injure other workmen of the company by depriving them of their employment. They have as much right to work for the publishing company as others and the right is entitled to the same consideration and protection.” [State vs. Glidden, 55 Conn., p. 46.]

The only "crimes" of which these men were guilty, as it was shown at their trial, was that some of them distributed circulars requesting the public to "boycott" the Carrington Publishing Company, and attempting to induce people to withdraw their patronage from the *Journal and Courier*.

The foregoing decisions of courts are given for the purpose of showing what the conspiracy law is to-day, in States where its harshness has not been softened by legislation.

When employ  s are arrested and punished as conspirators, for associating to protect their interests, and employers who do the same thing are not, as in the case of the journeymen and the master hat-makers of New York, the working people cannot be censured for believing that

"Laws are made the rich to aid,
And to crush the worthy poor."

In 1867 the English parliament greatly modified the common law theory relating to labor combinations; and in 1876 finally removed every vestige of legal grievance of which trades-unions complained.

The New York legislature, in 1870, enacted a law giving the working people the right to "peaceably assemble for the purpose of securing an advance in the rate of wages or compensation."

The legislature of Pennsylvania, by an act approved May 9, 1869, declared, "it shall be lawful for any and all classes of mechanics, journeymen, tradesmen and laborers, to form societies and associations for their mutual aid, benefit and protection, and peaceably to meet, discuss, and establish all necessary by-laws, rules and regulations to carry out the same." It also enacted in 1872, "that it shall be lawful for any laborer or laborers, workman or workmen, or journeyman or journeymen,

acting as individuals or members of any club, society, or association, to refuse to work for any person or persons whenever in his, her, or their opinion the wages paid are insufficient, or the treatment received by them, or either of them, is brutal or offensive, or when the continued labor by said laborer or laborers, etc., would be contrary to the rules, regulations or by-laws of any organization to which they may belong."

In February, 1883, the New Jersey legislature modified the rule of common law by the adoption of the following:

"An act relating to persons combining and encouraging other persons to combine.

"SECTION 1. That it shall not be unlawful for any two or more persons to unite, combine or bind themselves by oath, covenant, agreement, alliance or otherwise, to persuade, advise or encourage, by peaceable means, any person or persons to enter into any combination for or against leaving or entering into the employment of any person, persons or corporation.

"SEC. 2. That all and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act be and the same are hereby repealed."

There has been no legislation in this State relating to conspiracy; therefore, the common law, in all its severity, obtains here. That it has not been enforced, is no contradiction of the fact that it remains suspended, like the sword of Damocles, over the working people of the State, and may drop at any time, and inflict serious injury on unfortunate laborers, who, in their simplicity, cannot understand why it should be a crime for them to unite, in a peaceful effort, to procure an increase of wages, or for the purpose of exacting fair treatment from an overbearing or tyrannical employer.

In March, 1884, a conflict occurred between the tailors' union, of Denver, and one of our merchants, over a

question of wages. Three members of the union, who were appointed to adjust the difficulty, were arrested for conspiracy; the evidence against them being insufficient to convict, the defendants were discharged.

A few years ago, during a strike in this State, extraordinary efforts were made to procure evidence to prove the existence of a combination or conspiracy among certain persons for the purpose of attempting to coerce a company into employing men against its will. The evidence obtained was not satisfactory, therefore, no arrests were made. These instances are cited only to illustrate that the doctrine of common law, concerning "unlawful combinations," still exists in Colorado, and is now "but sleeping." They also show the need of legislation to protect the laboring masses from injustice.

SECTION III.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

At the beginning of the present century, the only combination in the United States having the appearance of labor organizations, were the "Farmers' Clubs." The demand for labor in the agricultural districts took many wage-workers from the cities, and mechanics in consequence being scarce, commanded good wages.

The "Caulkers' Club" of Boston existed before the Revolution, but the association was mostly of a political or social nature. Some of its members were identified with the famous "Boston Massacre in 1770."

A sort of labor demonstration took place in Philadelphia on July 4, 1788, when several trades were repre-

sented in the procession, each class by itself, the members of which appeared at work in the various callings, as the pageant moved.

Among the first trades to form associations were the journeymen shipwrights of New York, who had incorporated a society in 1803, and the New York house carpenters, who organized a union in 1806.

About 1825, the Evans Brothers began the publication of the *Workingmen's Advocate* at New York. This is claimed to have been the first labor organ published in this country. In a few years this paper was succeeded by one called the *Daily Sentinel*, and the latter was subsequently displaced by the *Young American*. The last named sheet published the first labor platform. The platform, which seems to have been as radical as any of the demands or propositions now made by workingmen, was as follows:

"*First*—The right of man to the soil. Vote yourself a farm.

"*Second*—Down with monopolists, especially the United States Bank.

"*Third*—Freedom of public lands.

"*Fourth*—Homesteads made inalienable.

"*Fifth*—Abolition of all laws for the collection of debts.

"*Sixth*—A general bankrupt law.

"*Seventh*—A lien of the laborer upon his own work for his wages.

"*Eighth*—Abolition of imprisonment for debt.

"*Ninth*—Equal rights for women with men in all respects.

"*Tenth*—Abolition of chattel slavery and wage slavery.

*“Eleventh—*Land limitation to one hundred and sixty acres; no person, after the passage of this law, to become possessed of more than that amount of land. When a land monopolist dies, his heirs to take each his legal number of acres, and be compelled to sell the overplus, using the proceeds as they please.

*“Twelfth—*Mails in the United States to run on the Sabbath.”

Labor organizations, soon after this, began to cut a prominent figure in political movements, and during Jackson's second term as President, Ely Moore was elected as the first labor Representative of Congress. Mr. Moore was the president of the general organization of trades-unions of New York city, the grand object of which was to combine all trades-unions in an assembly. This same idea has since been adopted by the trades-unions in their efforts to form a confederation of trades.

During the years 1844-5, there was inaugurated a great agitation against existing abuses, especially concerning the treatment that women and children, employed in factories, were receiving.

From the commencement of the movement in this country, looking to the amelioration of the condition and the welfare of the industrial classes, agitation has been continually maintained with more or less vigor. The past ten years, especially, have witnessed the formation of more organizations than any similar period in the history of the annals of labor. There is here given an outline sketch of each National organization having branches in Colorado, together with a brief history of each local organization.

There are many other National associations in existence, representing various industries throughout the country, but as few, if any persons following these trades are employed in Colorado, mention of the societies has been omitted. Among these are the boatmen,

brushmakers, metal workers, nailers, piano makers, spinners, seamen, stereotypers, weavers, etc.

There are also organizations which are socialistic. The membership is composed of persons holding most moderate, as well as extreme views of socialism. Although it is claimed by them that the object of these associations is to elevate and otherwise ameliorate the condition of the working classes, the organizations appear to be of a political nature, therefore their history and description are not included in this report:

BUILDING TRADES.

BRICK-LAYERS.

The "Brick-layers' International Union" was formed at Philadelphia, October, 1865.

BUILDING LABORERS.

The "Building Laborers' National Protective Union of America," was organized in Worcester, Massachusetts, in September, 1887. Prior to this date a local organization existed in Worcester and thus became the parent of the national union, which is claimed to have a large membership.

CARPENTERS—AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF.

The "Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners of England," which was organized in 1860, extended its operations to this country in 1869, when the first branch of the order was established in New York City. At the close of 1886 this society had twenty-five branches in the United States.

CARPENTERS AND JOINERS—BROTHERHOOD OF.

Several attempts had been made to establish an American national organization of carpenters, but were unsuccessful until August, 1881, when the "Brother-

hood of Carpenters and Joiners of America," was formed at Chicago. Some of the results gained by this organization, are, an increase of wages in one hundred and seventy-five cities; a uniform reduction of the hours of labor to eight per day in ten cities, and to nine in ninety-one cities, and also the establishing in one hundred and thirty-eight cities, of the eight and nine-hour system on Saturdays. The brotherhood has now a membership of nearly 50,000.

PAINTERS.

The painters have made many attempts to organize their craft. During 1865-6 there existed a sort of national organization which had branches in some of the largest cities.

In 1871 "The Painters' Grand Lodge" was formed in New York City, and continued to exist for four or five years.

At Baltimore, in March, 1887, was established "The Brotherhood of Painters and Decorators of America," which now promises to be an extensive organization.

PLASTERERS.

"The Operative Plasterers' International Union," was organized in 1882, and held annual sessions until 1887, when, at its convention at St. Louis, it voted to make its regular sessions biennial.

PLUMBERS.

"The International Association of Plumbers, Steam and Gasfitters" was formed in June, 1887, by delegates representing local unions from the principal cities of the country. Like all newly-formed organizations of working people, this is growing rapidly.

FREE-STONE CUTTERS.

Although local unions of free-stone cutters have existed for years, and efforts had been made to establish a national organization, it was not until December, 1887, at Chicago, that the "Stone Cutters' Association of North America" was formed. It has grown rapidly in membership since, and now promises to be influential in matters pertaining to the interests of stone cutters.

GRANITE CUTTERS.

At Rockland, Maine, in 1877, the "Granite Cutters' National Union" was formed. Ex-Congressman Murch, of Maine, was its first secretary.

TIN, SHEET-IRON AND CORNICE WORKERS.

The "Tin, Sheet-Iron and Cornice Workers' International Association" was organized at Toledo, Ohio, in January, 1888, and, although formation was effected at that recent date, the growth of the order has been very rapid.

OTHER TRADES.

BAKERS.

The "Journeyman Bakers' National Union of the United States" was organized at Pittsburgh, in January, 1885. Previous to that time attempts had been made to form organizations among the bakers, but were unsuccessful, except in a few instances.

A comparison of the census taken in 1881, 1886 and 1887, respectively, in thirty-five cities, relative to the wages and hours of labor of bakers, shows the results of union:

Average wages per man: In 1881, \$8.20 per week; 1886, \$10.60 per week; 1887, \$12.95 per week.

Average hours per day: In 1881, sixteen and two-thirds; 1886, twelve and one-quarter; 1887, ten and nine-tenths.

BARBERS.

In 1878 the "Barbers' Protective Union" was formed, but it has not grown very rapidly. This may be accounted for by the fact that so many of the barbers are proprietors of shops, and desire to be governed by but few rules.

BREWERS.

The "Brewers' National Union of the United Brewery Workmen of the United States" was organized in 1886.

CIGAR-MAKERS.

Local unions were formed by the cigar-makers about 1850-1, and in 1864, at New York City, "The International Cigar-makers' Union" was organized.

COAL MINERS.

There is, perhaps, no class of laborers more deserving of assistance and sympathy than coal miners. The nature of their employment isolates them from their fellow-workmen during hours of labor which are usually so long as to leave but little time for self-improvement or for the enjoyment of such rational amusements as "make life worth living." Employers, knowing their condition, take advantage of, and many times impose burdens upon them that seem outrageous to contemplate.

Although several strikes had taken place in the coal mining industry throughout the country, yet the earliest attempt to organize the miners, appears to have been about 1857-8. Their first national organization named the "American Miners' Association," was formed at Belleville, Illinois, in 1861, but collapsed in 1867-8.

Many local unions still continued, and at Youngstown, Ohio, in 1873, organized the "National Association of Miners." This association took part in the great strike of 1874-5, and, after a fierce war with the coal and iron mine owners, it became disorganized and finally disbanded. Some of its members grew desperate and lawless, and although credited with having an organization among them known as "Mollie Maguires," the fact is that no such organization existed. The title was but a "nick-name," as it were, applied to those men who were identified with the outrages charged, and who used their membership in other organizations as a cloak to further their own schemes. Some of these men were arrested and arraigned for murder and other crimes.

Concerning the principal Pinkerton detective who was instrumental in exposing the criminals, the following extract is from Simond's "The Story of Manual Labor," a recent publication:

"Informer McParlan, stricken blind, now begs his bread from door to door, led by a dog, through the streets of Chicago."

This statement is manifestly incorrect, because McParlan is, at present, superintendent of the Pinkerton Detective Agency in Denver, Colorado.

The experiences of the troublous times made the miners somewhat timid about forming other associations. This wariness has, however, gradually worn off, and the coal miners are now forming several associations, each having a tendency to national organization. Among them may be mentioned more prominently, "The National Federation of Miners and Mine Laborers," "The Coal Miners' Amalgamated Association," and "The Coal Miners' Protective Association." Large numbers of coal miners are also forming assemblies under the jurisdiction of the Knights of Labor.

ENGINEERS—STATIONARY.

The "National Association of Stationary Engineers of the United States" was formed in New York, October, 1882. Like all organizations of recent date it has grown rapidly, and is claimed to have a membership of nearly 20,000.

GLASS-BLOWERS.

The glass-blowers organized at Philadelphia in 1848, since which time the various divisions of the trade have been formed into separate associations. Some of these associations have branches in Europe. At a meeting of the glass-workers of the world, held at Pittsburg in 1885, six European nations were represented, and the formation of the "Universal Federation of Glass-Workers" was one of the results of that gathering.

HATTERS.

The New York journeymen hatters formed an organization in 1823.

In 1854, the "National Trade Association of Hat Finishers of the United States of America" was organized.

In 1869, the "United Wool Hat Finishers' Association" was formed, and in 1883 the "National Hat Makers' Union" was organized at Philadelphia.

IRON-WORKERS.

In 1849, the iron moulders who had previously organized, maintained successfully a strike in Cincinnati. The strike lasted for nine months. The "Iron Moulders' Unions of North America" were formed on July 5, 1859.

In April, 1858, a few men [iron puddlers] assembled and organized a trades-union, under the name of the "United Sons of Vulcan."

The long strike of 1874 convinced the iron and steel workers that the time had come for an organization that should champion the cause of the smelters, roasters, puddlers and moulders alike, and, after the meeting and consultation of many committees, the several associations were, in 1876, merged into one called "The Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin-Workers of the United States." In 1877, this organization adopted the name of "The Mechanical Engineers of the United States of America."

The "Amalgamated Society of Engineers" is composed of "smiths, fitters, turners, pattern-makers, millwrights, planers, borers, slotters, mechanical draughtsmen, brass-finishers and copper-smiths, employed in engineering trades; machine joiners, employed in the construction of cotton, silk, flax, woolen, or other machinery; and ship-smiths." It was formed in England in 1851. The first branch was established in the United States in 1863, and at the close of 1887 it had forty-one other branches in this country.

The "Associated Brotherhood of Iron and Steel Heaters," and the "Iron and Steel Roll Hands Union" were organized in 1873.

The "National Horseshoers' Union" was formed in 1874, from members of the New York Union, which began its existence in 1849.

The "International Brotherhood of Boiler-makers" was organized at Chicago in 1880.

SHOE-MAKERS.

In March, 1867, the first lodge of the order of the "Knights of St. Crispin" was organized at Milwaukee. Succeeding lodges followed rapidly in the Eastern States, and a general convention was held in the spring of 1869, at Worcester, Mass. The order grew rapidly up to the

shoe-makers' great strike of 1872. At that period a great life-and-death struggle ensued. Fifty of the largest shoe manufacturers combined and refused to employ any member of the order. Two thousand men found themselves without employment, and almost without the means of subsistence, and the next year the financial and industrial panic slaughtered and buried the organization, together with the fortunes of mechanics and those of a host of small manufacturers throughout the Eastern and Middle States.

Soon after the order of the "Knights of St. Crispin" had dissolved, manufacturers in Massachusetts saw the necessity of associations among the workingmen, and, in 1875, aided them in the formation of the "Shoemakers' League," but, in less than a year, this organization, with a membership of about three thousand, surrendered its charter and disbanded, but revived the order of "Knights of St. Crispin."

December, 1879, "The Lasters' Protective Union" organized in the City of Lynn, Massachusetts. Many small unions of lasters were formed, and, in 1885, they amalgamated under the title of "The Lasters' Protective Union of New England."

TAILORS.

The first tailors' union is said to have been formed about the year 1806. Since that time many local unions have come into existence.

The "Tailors' National Trade Union" was organized at Philadelphia, in 1865. It prospered fairly until 1876, when it held its last annual convention at St. Louis. It continued to exist for a time after the adjournment of that convention, but finally went to pieces.

Again at Philadelphia, in 1883, "The Journeymen Tailors' National Union" was formed. This new organ-

ization is having a very rapid, yet healthy growth. It has one or more branches in nearly every city or large town in the country.

TELEGRAPHERS—COMMERCIAL.

The telegraph operators had quite an extensive organization previous to their great strike of 1883, when the unsuccessful termination of that strike buried, for a time, all organization among them. They are now forming under the title of the "Brotherhood of Telegraphers of the United States and Canada." This title was adopted at a convention held in Chicago in 1885.

In 1886 the delegates assembled in St. Louis, when the constitution and preamble were considered and reconstructed. The brotherhood is working under the jurisdiction of the Knights of Labor.

The organized commercial operators are claimed to number a little over ten thousand.

TELEGRAPHERS—RAILWAY.

The "Order of Railway Telegraphers of North America," another federation of telegraph operators, is said to have a membership of over twelve thousand. It adopted a constitution and by-laws at a National convention of the members held at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, June 9, 1886, when the National organization was formed.

TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION.

The "New York Typographical Society" was formed early in the present century. This society was incorporated in 1818.

A society of printers was organized in Cincinnati in 1827, which existed until 1851; it was then disbanded, but reorganized in 1852.

In 1850 the compositors met in national convention at New York and formed the nucleus of the present "Typographical Union," which numbers over 30,000 members.

In 1873 the formation of the "German-American Typographical Union" was effected.

The pressmen of the large cities have formed separate associations, but receive their charters from the "International Typographical Union," and are subject to it.

RAILROAD ORGANIZATIONS.

The men employed in the various positions on railroads have formed several associations for their protection and mutual benefit.

The engineers met at Detroit in 1863, and organized "The Brotherhood of the Foot-board," but, at their next meeting held at Indianapolis, August, 1864, they reorganized under the name of "The Grand International Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers."

The "Conductors' Brotherhood" was organized at Mendota, Illinois, in 1868. In 1879 the name was changed to the "Order of Railway Conductors."

The "Yard-Masters' Benefit Association of America" was organized at Indianapolis, Indiana, June, 1871.

In December, 1873, the firemen met at Port Jervis, New York, and formed the "Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen."

In September, 1883, the "Brotherhood of Railroad Brakemen" was organized at Oneonta, New York.

In February, 1886, the "Switchmen's Mutual Aid Association of the United States of America" was formed at Chicago, Illinois.

Miscellaneous Organizations.

FEDERATION OF TRADES.

A National union of several trades was formed in 1866, but collapsed in 1871.

In 1873, it was again attempted to form a National organization of labor unions. Delegates representing societies in various portions of the country, assembled in convention at Cleveland, and instituted the "Industrial Congress of the United States." This congress met the next year for the last time.

The "Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions of the United States and Canada" was effected at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, in 1881. Many of the trades-unions did not affiliate with this "federation." The consequence was, that at the time fixed for the annual convention of 1886, to be held at St. Louis, Missouri, a convention of other trade organizations was assembling at Columbus, Ohio. It, however, convened at St. Louis, but adjourned to meet at Columbus, where a union, with other associations there assembled, was effected; and, on December 8-12, 1886, the "American Federation of Labor" was formed.

One of the cardinal principles of this organization is, the enforcement of existing labor laws, and the enactment of such others as will be beneficial to the laboring masses.

This new "federation" has grown rapidly, and now has a very large membership.

GRANGERS.

"The Patrons of Husbandry," or "National Grange," was organized at Washington, D. C., in 1866. It grew

rapidly until about 1876-8, when its membership began to so decrease that the order nearly became extinct. The impulse given to organization within the last few years, has revived the "Grange," and, again, its influence is being strongly felt in many States.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

The "Knights of Labor" were organized in 1869. There had been an attempt to organize the garment cutters of Philadelphia into a society, and the trial had failed. At the end of the meeting, Uriah Stevens, one of the members, gathered six others, and an organization was effected, which has since grown to be the Knights of Labor. For a long time the name of the order was kept a secret, and in place of a title five stars were used as its symbol. The organization welcomed all trades and nationalities to its membership. It grew rapidly and still continues so to do.

It is now the largest and most powerful labor organization which the world has ever known.

The objects for which the Knights of Labor are organized, are set forth in the first two sections of the preamble to the Constitution of the order, and which are as follows:

First—To make industrial and moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of industrial and National greatness.

Second—To secure to the workers the full enjoyment of the wealth they create, sufficient leisure in which to develop their intellectual, moral and social faculties; all of the benefits, recreation and pleasures of association; in a word, to enable them to share in the gains and honors of advancing civilization.

In specified detail, among the objects sought by the order, are the following:

Establishment of bureaus of labor statistics.

Reservation of the public lands for use by the people.

Abrogation of all laws which do not bear equally upon capital and labor.

Removal of unjust technicalities, delays and discriminations in administration of justice.

Adoption of health, safety and indemnification measures for men employed in hazardous occupations.

Passage of laws providing for arbitration between employers and employed, and power to enforce decisions of arbitrators.

Prohibition, by law, of the employment of children under fifteen years of age, in workshops, mines and factories.

Passage of a law prohibiting the hiring out of convict labor.

Laws prohibiting the importation of foreign labor, under contract.

The organization, by government, in connection with the postal department, of financial exchanges and safe deposits, and facilities for deposit of the savings of the people in small sums.

To secure for each sex equal pay for equal work.

To shorten the hours of labor.

There are other objects mentioned, but those given above are sufficient to show, generally, what the organization seeks.

The education of wage-working classes has been, and is, the mission of this organization, and it has probably accomplished more in that direction than has been by any organized effort since the dawn of civilization.

The organization has completely wiped out National, sectional and color prejudices from among its members. At its annual gathering, persons representing nearly every nationality, as well as "the boys in blue and the boys in gray," and also white and colored people, assemble and participate, equally, in the deliberations; all having but one purpose in view, and that is, the amelioration of the condition of the toilers, regardless of creed or color.

LINEMEN.

The "United Order of Linemen of America" was founded March, 1886, in Denver, Colorado, and has numerous branches in western cities. The order is composed of persons whose occupation is that of "stringing" telegraph, telephone and other electric wires.

SOVEREIGNS OF INDUSTRY.

The "Sovereigns of Industry," an organization somewhat similar to the Grange, was formed at Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1874, and continued in existence until 1880, when it collapsed. The operations of this organization were mostly confined to the New England States.

TRAVELERS' PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION.

The "Travelers' Protective Association of the United States" was organized June, 1882, and was incorporated in Chicago, September, 1886. Its membership is composed of commercial travelers.

SECTION IV.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN COLORADO.

The formation of labor societies began in this State nearly with its settlement. The pioneer organization is that of the printers. They received their charter in 1860. It was sent to them across the plains on a freight team. Since that time organizations have steadily increased. At first their growth was slow, but during the last six years it has been so rapid that to-day Colorado has more labor organizations, in proportion to its population, than any State in the Union.

There is here given in alphabetical order, a brief history of several labor organizations now in existence in this State. There may possibly be a few others besides those named in the following list, but searching inquiry instituted by this bureau, both by mail communication and personal visits of one of its officers to various parts of the State, have failed to discover any such:

BAKERS.

During the year 1882, there was a union among the bakers of Denver, which aided in the formation of "The Denver Trades Assembly." This union existed for some time, but finally dissolved.

In April, 1886, the present "Journeymen Bakers' Union No. 37, of Denver," was organized. It is connected with the Bakers' National Union. This branch met with many obstacles in the beginning, but by persistency overcame them.

There are but few journeymen bakers in the city of Denver who are not members of the union.

Previous to the formation of the union, the average day's work for a baker was sixteen hours. The union limited the hours to twelve each day, and also established an acceptable rate of wages, which is still maintained. The only complaints the bakers now make are that many of the shops are in an unhealthy condition because of the lack of proper drainage; they ask that this may be remedied, and also that the shops be white-washed at least once a year. These requests seem but reasonable, when we consider that cleanliness is one of the necessary requirements of establishments where food is prepared for the public.

BARBERS.

The barbers of Denver formed a union in May, 1886, and for a time were very active in their efforts to reduce the hours of labor, and also to abolish Sunday work. For a while they were successful, but for some cause they relaxed their efforts and became inactive. Now the organization exists only in name.

BRAKEMEN.

The "Brotherhood of Railroad Brakemen of America," is represented in Colorado by four lodges. "Snowy Range Lodge No. 30," is located in Denver, and was organized in that city in 1884. Since then, lodges have been instituted at Pueblo, Salida and Leadville, respectively. The objects of this order are similar in all respects to those of sister organizations, including their beneficial features.

BREWERS.

"Local Union No. 44," of Denver, is a branch of the "Brewers' National Union," and was formed in November, 1887, with forty members. Nearly all persons employed in the breweries in Denver are members of this union. The differences that have arisen between

employers and employés in the brewery business, and which extended to several portions of the country during the present year, did not affect Colorado. The feelings existing between employers and employés here, are of the most friendly nature.

BRICK-LAYERS.

"Local Union No. 1, of the Brick-layers' International Union of America," was founded in Denver in October, 1884.

When first organized, ten hours constituted a day's work, and the wages were \$4.50 and \$5.00. In July, following the organization, an attempt was made by the bosses to reduce the wages fifty cents per day. The proposed reduction was successfully resisted by the union, and the old rates were maintained.

In May, 1886, the union embarked in the general eight-hour movement, and was successful in establishing the eight-hour rule, with a uniform rate of wages at \$4.00 per day. Since that time the wages of brick-layers have been increased to \$5.00 per day for eight hours work.

Local Union No. 2, was organized at Pueblo, this year.

BRICK-MOULDERS AND SETTERS.

The "Denver Brick-moulders' and Setters' Union" was organized in Denver, April, 1886.

Previous to the organization of the union wages were rated at \$3.00 per day. Endeavors were being made to reduce wages to \$2.75, but they were unsuccessful. The men employed in the various brick-yards, believing that a union would help them, organized as above. They then demanded wages equivalent to \$3.50 per day, which was conceded, and that scale has since remained in force.

There has been one strike and one lock-out since organization. The former was not ordered by the union and also was unsuccessful. The lock-out occurred in the spring of this year, 1888, and was also unsuccessful. Particulars of these troubles are included in the chapter devoted to "Strikes."

BUTCHERS.

The "Butchers' Benevolent Union" was organized at Denver, in December, 1887, with twenty-two members. The principal object of the union is the care of its sick members, and the reduction of the number of working hours. The butchers think it unreasonable to require them to work fifteen and eighteen hours, when other wage-workers are employed but from eight to twelve hours each day.

CARPENTERS—THE AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF.

The Denver branch of "The Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners of England" was organized July 11, 1882. The objects of the society are to raise funds for the advancement and protection of the trade, relief of members in case of sickness or accident; superannuation, burial of deceased members and their wives, aid emigration, aid the unemployed, and partially reimburse for loss of tools by theft, water or fire. There is also a contingent fund used for the purpose of granting assistance in cases of extreme distress not otherwise provided for in the rules.

CARPENTERS—BROTHERHOOD OF.

"Union No. 55, of the Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America" was organized March 19, 1884, in Denver. Prior to organization the rate of wages was \$2.50 to \$2.75 per day of ten hours' work. The advan-

tages derived from organizing are shown in the fact that the scale has been raised to \$3.00 and \$3.25 per day, while the hours of work were reduced to nine.

In June of this year an eight-hour movement was inaugurated, which at this writing, August, is partially successful. Of the one hundred and thirty-nine contractors in the City of Denver, seventy-eight are employing five hundred and three men at eight hours; fifty-eight are employing three hundred and three men, and but three contractors, employing only six men in all, are exacting ten hours for a day's work.

The Denver union has established a "Free Employment and Statistics Bureau," which, during the last week in July of this year, secured employment for thirty-two men.

Like sister unions, its constitution and by-laws provide benefits in case of sickness, total disability, or death.

CIGAR-MAKERS.

The "Cigar-makers' Union No. 129, of Denver," is a branch of the "International Cigar-makers' Union." It was organized in August, 1884, with nine members; its present membership is one hundred and eighty, which includes every cigar-maker in Denver, except a few Chinamen. The jurisdiction of the Denver branch extends to every town and city in Colorado, and also into Wyoming Territory. When the union was first formed it was looked upon with disfavor by the cigar manufacturers, who had reduced the wages of employes in attempting to compete with the cheap manufactured cigars from the east. Through the efforts of the union, a market for a better class of goods has been established, consequently the wages of cigar-makers have been increased, as they express it, "from a mere pittance to respectable living wages." The daily hours of labor

have been reduced from ten to eight. The union has also succeeded in procuring for women the same rate of wages paid to men. Male and female are admitted to membership, nor is there any distinction made on account of color.

CLERKS—DRUG.

The "Denver Drug Clerks' Association" was organized in 1885, in Denver, the objects being the "advancement and elevation of pharmaceutical science, reciprocal improvement, and the promotion of harmony and good feeling among its members." Other objects included were the obtaining of a higher scale of wages, and regulation of hours of duty.

One of the benefits derived from organization has been early hours of closing of most of the drug stores, and the almost total abolishment of the old custom of keeping them open all night. The passage at the last session of the legislature of the "pharmacy act," materially aided the clerks in excluding from service in drug stores any persons not legally competent to act as pharmacists.

The association is on the eve of re-organization, and it is contemplated to form a State society.

CLERKS—GENERAL.

The clerks, in various branches of business in Denver, have several times formed associations among themselves, but the organizations have existed only a short time. The latest attempt was made in the early part of this year, 1888. For a time the association was represented in the "Trades' Assembly," of Denver, a central organization composed of delegates from various trades-unions. At this writing, August, there would appear to be no organization among the clerks. Many

of them are, however, thinking of making an effort to establish a permanent association, and believe that their efforts will be attended with success.

CONDUCTORS.

There are three divisions of the "Order of Railway Conductors" in this State, located respectively, at Denver, Pueblo and Salida. The membership includes nearly all the regularly employed railway conductors in the State. The organization is very conservative, and some of its officials claim "is not to be classed among the striking labor organizations."

COOKS AND WAITERS.

The "White Cooks' and Waiters' Benevolent and Protective Union of Colorado," was organized in Denver September, 1887.

Owing to the fact that men in these lines of business are usually transient, it has been difficult to keep up a perfect organization until recently. The membership of the union is large, and so well managed that a reading room and library, for use of members, were successfully maintained during the winter months of 1887-8.

No regular scale of wages has been adopted by the union, but, by tacit understanding, a minimum rate is fixed, below which none of them will work. The by-laws embrace the usual benevolent features.

ENGINEERS—AMALGAMATED.

The Denver branch of "The Amalgamated Society of Engineers" was established in September, 1882.

The principal objects of the organization are to associate workers of the various mechanical branches of the machinists', blacksmiths' and pattern-makers' trades, and to provide funds for the relief of members in case

of sickness or accident; the burial of deceased members and their wives, and to aid the unemployed and aged.

For these purposes the present organization has distributed among its various branches during the thirty-seven years of its existence, \$13,669,330, which is at the rate of \$369,441 per annum.

ENGINEERS—LOCOMOTIVE.

The "First Division, No. 186, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, in Colorado," was organized in Denver, March, 1875, since which time divisions have been organized at Pueblo, Leadville, La Junta, Salida, Alamosa and Colorado City.

The objects of the brotherhood are to combine the interests of locomotive engineers, to elevate their standing as such and their characters as men. The by-laws insist that members shall be of good moral character, temperate habits, locomotive engineers in good standing, and actually employed as such. Intoxication and the traffic in intoxicating liquors are strictly prohibited. Neglect of duty, injury to employers' property, and the wilfully or carelessly endangering the lives of persons, result in expulsion. Bereaved brothers' families in distress are aided, and sick members of the brotherhood are assisted. There is also an insurance feature connected with the order which affords the families of provident members valuable aid in case of death.

There has been no general strike of the order in this State, but it has had differences of a local character. Their first troubles were with the Union Pacific Railroad Company, and were relative to the classification of engineers. There was also a disagreement with this company concerning mileages, involving the differences between the rates of wages paid on the mountain and prairie divisions of the road, respectively. A similar

disagreement concerning mileage occurred with the Denver and Rio Grande Railway Company. All these difficulties were amicably adjusted. Another disagreement took place on the Burlington system, growing out of the classification of engineers, and involving a question of wages.

For particulars concerning this latter trouble, see "Strikes."

ENGINEERS—STATIONARY.

"Denver Association No. 1, of the National Association of Stationary Engineers," was organized in Denver, in March, 1883. Leadville Association No. 2, was organized in that city in 1887. There are organizations also at Pueblo and Greeley, making four in this State.

The objects of the organization are purely educational in the science of steam engineering. The constitution of the order prohibits interference of the members with employers so far as to promote strikes or interrupt harmony between them and the employés. Neither is the association permitted to be used for political or religious purposes.

FIREMEN.

The "Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen of North America" organized its first Colorado Lodge No. 77, June, 1877, in Denver. The order has grown rapidly in this State until now there are two lodges in Denver, and one each in Pueblo, Salida, Leadville, La Junta, Como and Colorado City.

The objects of the organization are comprehensively set forth in its motto, which embraces the four words, "Protection, Charity, Sobriety and Industry." Specifically expressed, they are for the purpose of uniting the members, elevating their social, moral and intellectual

standing; the protection of their interests and the promotion of their general welfare. In case of death, provision is made for widows and orphans, or if a member be totally disabled, he is substantially aided, while the sick are cared for.

The Brotherhood seeks to co-operate, on a basis of mutual justice, with its employers. It has had no general trouble in this State, but has had local differences with some of the railroads, which were amicably adjusted.

HORSE-SHOERS.

The "Journeyman Horse-Shoers" organized Union No. 29, of Denver, in December, 1886. So far they have gained many important concessions from employers, among these a regular rate of wages of \$3.00 and \$3.50 per day, for five days of ten hours per day, and nine hours on Saturday, and half-a-dollar per hour for overtime. Previous to the formation of the association the rate of wages was \$2.50 and \$3.00 per day.

Many of the members of the union complain of Sunday employment, and of a meal ticket scheme practiced by several employers to their own advantage and profit, but to the disadvantage and loss of the workers. The members of the order desire the passage of laws prohibitory of Sunday labor.

IRON MOULDERS.

The "Iron Moulders' Union No. 188," of Denver, was organized October, 1878. There is another union at Pueblo, which was organized April of this year, 1888. All moulders in this State are under the jurisdiction of either of the above unions.

The objects of the union are protective and charitable, "based upon justice, founded in necessity, maintained by prudence and a firm belief that labor is worthy a proper and just remuneration."

The rules, among other things, prohibit commencement of work before 7 a. m., and, at present, allow ten hours work each day.

The only trouble which the union had to encounter was this summer, 1888, in Denver, in connection with the amount of work required daily of moulders in a certain shop. The men claimed that the amount of work demanded was a physical impossibility, should it be exacted during the heated term.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

The first local assembly of the Knights of Labor in Colorado, was organized at Erie, Weld county, Colorado, July, 1878. The growth of the order was not rapid, and until the spring of 1884, there were but five assemblies organized up to that time, in the State. In April of that year the U. P. R. R. Co. issued an order reducing the pay of all its employés from ten to fifteen per cent. Against this reduction the employés "struck," and the obnoxious order reducing wages was rescinded. Other workingmen, perceiving the benefits derivable from organized efforts on the part of the Union Pacific employés, began to unite, and assemblies of the Knights of Labor sprang rapidly into existence all over the State.

Within the past year or two the membership decreased somewhat in Denver, owing to the withdrawal of numbers of men for the purpose of joining trades-unions, many of which were formed. Other causes also contributed to decrease the ranks of the order, still, while a reduction was taking place in the metropolis, the order was growing rapidly in the State, and, to-day, while not as strong, numerically, as formerly, the organization is in a healthy condition, and its membership active and earnest in carrying out its objects. Several of the assemblies were formerly identified with the Trades Assembly

of Denver, but, after the establishment of district assemblies, Nos. 82 and 89, withdrew from that body to within the precincts of their own organizations.

While an antagonistic feeling is said to exist in some parts of the country between trades-unions and the Knights of Labor, a most friendly feeling obtains among the working people of Colorado, irrespective of the nature of the organization to which they may belong.

LABORERS—BUILDING.

The "Laborers' Benevolent and Protective Union No. 1," of Denver, is a branch of the "Building Laborers' National Protective Union," which embraces hod-carriers and all unskilled laborers employed in erecting buildings. The Denver branch was organized in June, 1887, but did not affiliate with the National organization until April, 1888.

The objects of the association are for mutual benefit in labor, to help sick members, bury dead brothers and aid widows and orphans of the latter.

When the laborers first organized, the wages paid in Denver ranged from \$2.25 to \$2.50 per day. Soon after the organization came into existence the wages were increased to \$2.50 and \$2.75 per day. Early this spring (1888) a "strike" was organized to secure an advance to \$2.75 and \$3.00 per day, which was only partially successful. The hours of labor constituting a day's work have been reduced from ten to eight.

The membership here is said to be quite extensive, and those belonging to it are intelligent and industrious men.

LINEMEN.

The first lodge of the "United Order of Linemen of America" was formed in Denver, and was established

as "Queen City Lodge No. 1." Through its influence a National organization was formed.

The objects of the association are to regulate the scale of wages paid to its members, and advance, in every possible manner, the interests of those belonging to it. Mutual development and instruction in the profession are made specialties, and, with these objects in view, a debating society is established, and literary entertainments occur periodically.

The tendency was exhibited by employing-corporations to cut down the wage-scale before the linemen's organization sprang into existence. Since organization no inroads have been attempted and a fair scale has been maintained. Benefit provisions are features of the by-laws of the order.

MINERS—COAL.

The coal miners have, from time to time, formed unions among themselves with more or less success.

At the present time the only organizations are in the shape of assemblies of the "Knights of Labor" and the "Coal Miners' Federation." The latter was formed at Louisville, Colorado, July, 1886, and embraces within its membership miners in Boulder and Weld counties.

The objects of the organization are to maintain a fair rate of wages and to prevent "discrimination" on the part of mine bosses. The organization has a standing executive board with a permanent secretary. Full power is conferred upon this board to adjust all differences. The board is maintained by the payment, monthly, of a small sum by each member of the organization. Such has been the success of the federation, and with such moderation have its affairs been conducted, that very few, if any, troubles have occurred between employers and employed since its formation.

MINERS—ORE.

Ore miners' unions have been formed in various parts of the mountains at different times. Pretty nearly all, however, have been absorbed by the "Knights of Labor," and but three are in existence at this writing. These comprise unions at Leadville, Aspen and Breckenridge.

The most extensive of the old organizations was the "Co-operative Miners' Union," which went to pieces at the time of the great strike at Leadville in 1880 [see "Strikes"], and the organization which has succeeded it is the "Lake County Miners' Union," which was formed in 1885.

The benefit provisions embraced in the by-laws are similar to those guiding other organizations, and the object of the union is to advance and protect the interests of the members, both in regard to working and social matters.

MUSICIANS.

The musicians of Denver, like the clerks, have made several attempts at organization for mutual protective purposes. The object of the musicians was, the establishing and maintenance of a scale of prices. Each successive union, however, collapsed, owing, as one of the leading musicians expresses it, "to lack of harmony." The title of the latest organization was "The Denver Musical Protective Union." It had seventy-four members, but disintegrated four years since. While the musicians do not belong to what may be termed the industrial classes, still, their endeavors to fix a wage-scale entitle them to notice in this report.

PAINTERS AND DECORATORS.

"Denver Branch No. 79, of the Brotherhood of Painters and Decorators of America" was formed March, 1888.

Prior to organization, wages were, for painters, \$2.75 per day of ten hours' work. Union elevated the scale to \$2.75 for nine hours. There is no fixed scale for fine decorators, the prices paid varying according to skill of the artist and the character of the work to be performed. Paper-hangers, who are included in the union, receive \$3.00 per day. The membership, numerically, is fair. The by-laws include invalid benefits, provisions for interment of deceased, and for aiding unemployed members.

Previous to the organization of the present union, other attempts had been made to combine, but met with nothing beyond temporary success.

PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY.

The "Patrons of Husbandry," otherwise and popularly known as "Grangers," is a powerful organization in this State.

The "Grange Movement" first struck Colorado in February, 1873, and at once took practical shape in the organization of a grange in Jefferson county. The formation of granges became so rapid that January, 1874, witnessed the organization of a State grange. There are now eighty-five subordinate granges in the State.

The specific objects of the order are to "develop a better and higher manhood and womanhood among its members; to enhance the comforts and attractions of their homes and strengthen their attachments to their pursuits; to foster mutual understanding and co-operation; to maintain, inviolate, their laws and to emulate each other in labor, to hasten the good time coming. Other objects are reduction of expenses, to buy less and produce more, make farms self-sustaining, diversify crops, to crop no more than can be cultivated, condense weight of exports by selling less in bushel and more on

hoof and in fleece; to sell less in lint and more in warp and woof; to discourage the credit system, mortgage system, fashion system, and every other system tending to prodigality and bankruptcy," etc.

PLASTERERS.

The "Plasterers' Exchange," of Denver, which includes plasterers and lathers, and which is now attached to the National organization of "Operative Plasterers," was instituted in March, 1885. Previous to that time attempts had been made to form an organization among the plasterers of the city, and also to reduce the hours of a day's work to eight, but they were unsuccessful, except for a few months in the fall of 1884.

The "boss" plasterers, as well as the journeymen, seeing the necessity for more friendly feelings to exist between them, organized the "Plasterers' Exchange," and at once established a rule that eight hours should constitute a day's work; that rule has been maintained ever since. The wages paid to plasterers previous to the organizing of the "Exchange," was \$3.50 per day. Through the efforts of the Exchange wages have been gradually increased to \$4.00, the present daily wages paid to plasterers in Denver.

On the first of June of this year the wages were increased to \$5.00 per day. During that month the "bosses" decided to pay but \$4.00 after July first. The men struck against the reduction, but were unsuccessful.

PLUMBERS AND PIPE-FITTERS.

The "Plumbers' Steam and Gas Fitters' Association No. 38," of Denver, is connected with the National association of that name. The Denver branch was organized in July, 1887, with twenty members. Nearly

every person now working at these trades in Denver is a member of the association. A uniform rate of wages, \$3.50 per day, has been maintained, and the hours of labor have been reduced from ten to nine.

The association, through its officers, say that trade schools, in connection with the public schools, should be established; that there should be a compulsory arbitration law; that savings banks should be operated by the Government, and that a special law, for the incorporation of labor organizations, should be enacted.

PRINTERS.

The "International Typographical Union" has five branches in Colorado, located respectively as follows: Denver, Colorado Springs, Pueblo, Aspen and Leadville. Denver Union No. 49, is the oldest labor organization in the State, and was organized April, 1860.

The pioneer printers having determined to organize, made application to what was then the "National Typographical Union" for a charter. This was granted on June 9 of the same year. The precious document was brought hither by ox-team, which traveled over many hundreds of miles of prairie then in complete possession of the Indians.

At that time the only printing establishments between the Missouri River and Salt Lake, Utah, were the *Rocky Mountain News*, which was established in 1859, and the *Rocky Mountain Herald*.

The union grew slowly owing to its great distance from more settled portions of the west and scarcity of traveling facilities. In 1864, a great flood in Cherry creek carried away and destroyed the books and papers of the union, together with its valuable papers and funds, amounting to \$120.

In 1869, on the organization of the "International Typographical Union," a charter was received from that body.

The objects of the union are to cherish, protect and promulgate the interests and rights of the members as workingmen; to cultivate the social ties existing between members of the craft; to abolish injurious privileges, and bring all under restraint of wholesome duty. Specifically, the objects are to secure the elevation of the position and maintenance and protection of the interests of the craft in general; the regulation of prices and other matters pertaining to the conduct of the printing business within its jurisdiction, affording politic relief for sick or indigent members; regulating the apprentice system and providing for the interment of deceased members.

With the coming of railroads and the advent of vast numbers of people to the region, the demand for printers' services increased, and of the many hundreds of that craft in Colorado now, only a small number are unemployed, and there are but very few printers who do not belong to one or other of the unions named.

STONE CUTTERS—FREE STONE.

In 1879 a local union of free-stone cutters was organized in Denver. The cutters then worked ten hours for \$3.00 and \$3.50 per day. In 1881 the union secured \$4.00 per day of nine hours' work, and in June, 1882, without a strike being resorted to, the hours of labor were reduced to eight, the four-dollar scale remaining in force.

On the formation of the National association in 1887, the Denver union affiliated. Immediately after the constitution and by-laws of the National association went into effect, which was March 1, 1888, a successful move

was made by the Denver branch for a half-holiday on Saturday.

Among the objects of the association are the maintenance of harmony with employers, the elevation of the members, one and all, and the regulating the control of the apprentice supply. There are the usual benefit provisions in the constitution.

STONE CUTTERS—GRANITE.

The Denver branch of the "Granite Cutters' National Union" was formed April, 1885. At that time the wages paid to granite cutters were \$3.00 per day of ten hours' work. By the efforts of the organization the wages were increased to \$4.00 per day, which rate has since been maintained. The jurisdiction of the Denver branch extends over the State.

In the Spring of 1886, an attempt was made at Silver Plume, Clear Creek county, to reduce the wages. The union resisted this attempt, and after a struggle of nearly six months' duration, the union came out successful, enforcing a uniform scale of wages.

SWITCHMEN.

The "Switchmen's Mutual Aid Association of the United States of America" has two lodges in Colorado, viz: No. 15, in Denver, organized in June, 1886, and another in Pueblo.

The purposes are mutual advancement, mutual protection and mutual good, especially, care for members who may be injured in their dangerous calling, and helping those dependent upon them for support.

TAILORS.

The "Journeyman Tailors' Union of Denver" was organized in Denver, June, 1871, and became a branch

of the Journeymen Tailors' National Union in May, 1884. It was the second trade-union organized in this city.

Since the organization of the union, wages of tailors in Denver have been increased from ten to fifteen per cent., and a large majority of the employers have been induced to pay a regular and stipulated scale of wages. Among the benefits which have been secured since organization—in addition to the increase of wages—are the providing of convenient and pleasant work-shops by employers, and the abolition of tenement-house work.

The tailors work, on an average, ten hours per day.

The union has had no general trouble in the State. Locally, disputes have arisen between its members and individual firms, but they have been of brief duration and mutual concessions ended them amicably.

One of the cardinal principles of the organization is to procure for female workers the highest possible wages. As an illustration it may be shown that the prices paid in union shops in Denver for vests—which are nearly all made by females—range from \$2.50 to \$3.50, according to quality. In non-union shops, prices for making articles of similar quality range from \$1.25 to \$1.75.

TELEGRAPHERS.

The "Order of Railway Telegraphers of North America" has two divisions in Colorado. The oldest was organized at Pueblo in October, 1887, and the other in Denver, April, 1888.

The objects of the order are to raise the standard of the fraternity by striving, in every way, to furnish good service for a reasonable compensation, and assisting all sick members whose pecuniary condition may demand it.

No member is permitted to teach the art of telegraphy, excepting under stringent regulations; no member is allowed to use his influence for the purpose of creating a strike, under penalty of expulsion. The order has an insurance department connected with it, by which a benefit of \$1,000, in case of death or total disability of a member, is paid.

There is no branch of the "Brotherhood of Telegraph Operators" in this State.

TIN, SHEET-IRON AND CORNICE-WORKERS.

The "International Association of Tin, Sheet-Iron and Cornice-Workers" has one branch in this State. This was organized in April, 1888, as "Local Union No. 10, of Denver." It has more than doubled its membership since the time it came into existence, nearly every person employed in the trade belonging to it.

The order has a mutual benefit system, sick-aid provisions, etc., provided for in its constitution and by-laws.

Although the association is of recent formation, its advantages are apparent in the general "bracing-up" of the persons employed at the tinnern' and sheet-iron workers' trades.

TRADES' ASSEMBLY.

The "Trades' Assembly of Denver" is one of the most important and useful of the industrial organizations. It is made up of representatives of fourteen trades-unions, each being distinct from the other.

The "Typographical Union" took the initial step toward forming the Assembly, and, later, five trades-unions, composed, respectively, of the "Typographical

Union," "Tailors' Union," "Bakers' Union," "Stone Cutters' Union" and the "Iron Moulders' Union," organized the Assembly, November 12, 1882.

The result sought, in organizing these unions, was unity of action among the working classes, by delegate representation, in a central body. The declaration of principles sets forth that while the assembly is opposed to entering any political body as a party, it declares it a duty to use influence with the law-making power to secure the adoption of proper laws regulating the hours constituting a day's work; regulating the employment of children, and securing reforms in prison labor so as to prevent the product of the convict coming into competition with honest industry.

The declaration of principles further pronounces it to be the duty of every laboring man to use his utmost endeavors to secure amelioration of the condition of the laboring classes generally, and the members are pledged to assist each other in securing fair wages for the laboring man by all honorable means, and to withdraw, and urge all others to withdraw, all patronage from any unfair employer. The rigid enforcement of all beneficial labor laws is demanded, especially compulsory education and the abolishment of the truck system.

Since its organization the Trades' Assembly, as shown above, has grown extensively. Formerly many local assemblies of the Knights of Labor were included in representation in the Assembly, but since the organization of Knights of Labor District Assemblies, have withdrawn.

The Trades' Assembly has proven itself to be a powerfully influential body. It has a legislative committee, which is very active during sessions of the legislature. In 1883, the first efforts were used in the defeat of a "conspiracy" bill, and also to secure enactment of

a law exempting certain wages from attachment or garnishment. Success attended these efforts, but a curious oversight resulted in rendering the latter law inoperative. After the supposed enactment, it was signed by the Governor, and the discovery was then made that the measure had not received a majority of the votes of members elect of one branch of the legislature.

At the legislative session in 1885, the 'Trades' Assembly committee aided materially in securing the passage of many laws beneficial to the working classes; among them an exemption law and a law compelling employers to provide seats for females engaged in mercantile and manufacturing establishments. It also lodged a vigorous protest against the proposition to lease out State penitentiary and industrial school labor.

It was also the Trades Assembly by whom was projected, and under whose auspices was carried out, the great labor demonstration which occurred February 22, 1885.

During the last session of the Legislature, in 1887, in concerted action with the Knights of Labor, much beneficial legislation for the industrial classes was brought about and seed sown for further good.

It may be added that it was owing to the combined efforts of these organizations that the first Monday in September, in each recurring year, was ordained a legal holiday and denominated "Labor Day."

TRAVELERS.

The "Travelers' Protective Association of the United States" has a division, No. 15, in Colorado, with a membership of 350. It was organized January 1, 1887.

From the name of this association it might be considered an organization which could be properly classed

with labor societies. The following from the by-laws of the association, however, explains the objects sought to be obtained :

“The abolishment of all local, State or county licenses exacted from commercial travelers; securing reduction of passenger rates on lines of transportation, obtaining a fair and equitable allowance of baggage, securing hotel accommodations commensurate with the prices paid; elevating the social and moral character of commercial travelers as a profession; promoting acquaintance among those belonging to the order, providing pleasant, social amusement and entertainment for them on the road, and securing employment for members out of work.”

YARD-MASTERS.

The “Yard-Masters’ Mutual Benefit Association, Division No. 8,” was organized in Denver, May 1, 1878. There is another division at Pueblo. The object is to provide for the widows and orphans of deceased members or those suffering from total disability. The affairs are conducted on a purely mutual benefit principle.

The constitution prohibits participation, by members of the association, in strikes, under pain of expulsion.

The foregoing brief history of the several labor organizations in this State shows the advancement made by them in late years. The exhibit is an interesting and important one, both from business and social standpoints.

It must be apparent to every thinking man and student of social economy, that there is something wrong when such vast numbers of men, representing an element in society, band together for protection. It is not customary with a majority of men to expend money and time in pursuing myths, and it is not reasonable to suppose that the thousands of men, in this State,

embraced in the membership of the organizations named in the foregoing statements, differ in disposition in that respect, from their fellow mortals. Time and money expended by them in promoting the cause in which they have embarked, are almost incalculable. The beneficial results which, it is shown, have followed organization, indicate cause of action and would appear to justify the means taken to secure them.

It cannot be denied that there is a large class of people who regard, with the utmost disfavor, the action of the industrial classes in forming labor organizations. They do not hesitate to express themselves in terms which indicate that they look upon such associations as a menace to society, and denounce the persons composing them as "conspirators." This class of people is not embraced within the ranks of those who have given the subject of labor organization much study.

The organizations spoken of are most beneficial to society from several standpoints. It is a well-founded fact in the history of nations that mobs have ever been the bugbears of governments, no matter how strong the latter. Mobs recognize neither authority nor law, and, before the epoch of organization, men who sought redress of grievances, usually resorted to "mob-law," as it is termed. This is rapidly becoming a thing of the past under the influences of organized, peaceful agitation. The banding together under legal recognition, and under systems of by-laws, which are enforced by officers, to whom are entrusted their execution, teaches men obedience to authority and law.

Small organizations and governments, as well as larger ones, can only be maintained by the wisdom of the people interested.

A brilliant illustration of this obedience to law and order was afforded on the occasion of the great demon-

stration of the industrial classes on Washington's birthday, 1885, in Denver, when, on a cold, damp, snowy Sabbath afternoon, with slush and mud ankle-deep, thousands of men paraded the streets for the purpose of entering peaceful protest against encroachments upon their liberties and rights. Many good people objected to permitting this demonstration, giving as a reason that they feared such a large gathering of the working-people could not be controlled, consequently, there would be disorder; also, that such a demonstration would be "desecration of the Lord's Day."

No day can be considered so sacred that it can possibly be desecrated by the peaceful assemblage of people to petition for redress of grievance, as well as to protest against encroachments on their rights as citizens.

That the fears entertained were groundless was shown by the perfect decorum and discipline maintained throughout that great demonstration, each man perfectly realizing, through the teaching of his association or society, that obedience to authority and law are the prime duties of a citizen.

Another of the great benefits to society, derived by these associations, lies in the fact that nearly all of them provide for their sick, injured and aged members, and the burial of the dead, while many have insurance provisions attached to their by-laws, which afford resources for the bereaved families of deceased members. Thus, the cold charity meted out by "Relief Societies," and the expense to the public of maintaining hospitals and similar institutions, are being gradually but surely dispensed with, and the time is not far distant when they will not be needed in the land, at least not by the honest, toiling element of society, members of which, enrolled in some one of these organizations, scarcely ever become beggars.

There is another benefit conferred on society by these organizations. One of the prime objects is the securing of a reduction of hours of labor. Some "philanthropists" have opposed this on the ground, advanced by them, that the disposition of working-men is to spend their leisure hours in "vicious amusements, carousing in saloons, etc." The facts, based on actual experience in our own State, show the utter falsity of such statements. The securing of shorter hours of labor in many of the trades has permitted workmen, like many of their "more moral" fellow mortals, to devote time to their homes, attention to those dependent upon them for protection and support, and has allowed them opportunity for mental, moral and physical recreation. Men not burdened with home cares have also employed their time in mental and physical improvement—in brief, shorter hours have enabled all to live as citizens of a free republic, conferring on each the chance of assuming a share of responsibility in the requirements of social and political economy.

In the following tables are given dates of formation of the several organizations, together with the number of charter members and the present membership of each. There are many assemblies of Knights of Labor, comprising membership of several hundred, omitted, because their organizations are not in "working order," and consequently could not be enumerated accurately:

TABLE No. I.

GRANGE LODGES.

No.	Where Located.	Town or city.	County.	When Organized.		MEMBERSHIP.			Number of Members of K. of L.
				Month.	Year.	Charter Present	In-crease.	De-crease.	
1	Wheat Ridge		Jefferson	Feb.	1873	19	67	48	
2	Ralston		Jefferson	Aug.	1873	21	31	10	
3	Greeley		Weld	Dec.	1873	26	58	32	
4	Arvada		Jefferson	Dec.	1873	20	43	23	
5	Valmont		Boulder	Dec.	1873	27	39	12	
6	Loveland		Larimer	Dec.	1873	29	66	37	
7	Fort Collins		Larimer	Dec.	1873	22	47	25	
8	Longmont		Boulder	Dec.	1873	13	13		
9	Ni Wol		Boulder	Dec.	1873	18	33	15	
10	Morrison		Jefferson	Dec.	1873	27	41	17	
11	Platte Canon		Jefferson	Dec.	1873	16	22	6	
12	Seebolt		Douglas	Dec.	1873	20	20		
13	Platte Valley		Arapahoe	Dec.	1873	13	25	12	
14	Boulder		Boulder	Dec.	1873	23	27	4	
15	Lower Boulder		Boulder	Dec.	1873	20	30	4	
16	Longmont		Boulder	Dec.	1873	29	29		
17	Platteville		Weld	Dec.	1873	27	41	14	
18	Evans		Weld	Dec.	1873	28	26		2
19	Littleton		Arapahoe	Dec.	1873	19	41	22	
20	Lapton		Weld	Jan.	1874	14	42	28	
21	Lapton		Weld	Jan.	1874	21	21		
22	Fontaine		El Paso	Jan.	1874	15	22	7	
23	El Paso		El Paso	Jan.	1874	14	48	34	
24	Monument		El Paso	Jan.	1874	24	22		2
25	Ralston		Jefferson	Jan.	1874	28	26		2
26	Denver		Arapahoe	Jan.	1874	18	18		
27	Longmont		Boulder	Jan.	1874	27	27		
28	Valmont		Boulder	Jan.	1874	21	37	16	
29	St. Vrain		Boulder	Jan.	1874	22	10		

TABLE No. I.

GRANGE LODGES—Concluded.

No.	WHERE LOCATED.		County.	WHEN ORGANIZED.		MEMBERSHIP.			Number of Members of K. of L.
	Town or city.			Month.	Year.	Charter	Present	In-crease.	De-crease.
30	Boulder	Boulder	Boulder	Jan.	1874	19	34	15	
31	Burlington	Boulder	Boulder	Jan.	1874	27	51	24	
32	Frankstown	Douglas	Douglas	Jan.	1874	18	27	9	
33	Sedalia	Douglas	Douglas	Jan.	1874	17	53	36	
34	Island Station	Arapahoe	Arapahoe	Jan.	1874	27	27		
35	Erie	Weld	Weld	Jan.	1874	25	31	6	
36		Boulder	Boulder	Jan.	1874	20	20		
37	Denver	Arapahoe	Arapahoe	Jan.	1874	19	37	18	
38	South Water	El Paso	El Paso	Jan.	1874	27	27		
39	Mace's Hole	Pueblo	Pueblo	Jan.	1874	13	34	21	
40	Sedalia	Douglas	Douglas	Jan.	1874	19	19		
41	Greenwood	Pueblo	Pueblo	Jan.	1874	15	15		
42	Fort Collins	Larimer	Larimer	Jan.	1874	27	30	7	
43	Greeley	Weld	Weld	Jan.	1874	27	34	3	
44	Larkspur	Douglas	Douglas	Jan.	1874	14	14		
45		Pueblo	Pueblo	Feb.	1874	16	16		
46		Pueblo	Pueblo	Feb.	1874	13	21	8	
47		Pueblo	Pueblo	Feb.	1874	13	14	1	
48	Colorado Springs	El Paso	El Paso	March	1874	18	18		
49	Florence	Pueblo	Pueblo	March	1874	18	18		
50	Morrison	Jefferson	Jefferson	Feb.	1874	18	22	4	
51	Greeley	Weld	Weld	March	1874	25	16		9
52		Douglas	Douglas	Feb.	1874	17	17		
53	Spring Valley	El Paso	El Paso	Feb.	1874	20	36	16	
54	Muddy Creek	Pueblo	Pueblo	March	1874	14	14		
55	Butte Valley	Huerfano	Huerfano	March	1874	13	13		
56	Spanish Peaks	Pueblo	Pueblo	April	1874	16	58	42	
57	Walsenburg	Huerfano	Huerfano	April	1874	13	13		
58		Arapahoe	Arapahoe	April	1874	25	43	18	

75

[illegible]

Total number of Grange Lodges, 85.

TABLE No. II.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR ASSEMBLIES.

Local No.	LOCATED AT.		When Organized.	Total Charter Members.	Total present Membership.	Members out of employment.	Number belonging to 'Trades' Unions.	Number belonging to Railroad Organizations.
	Town or City.	County.						
771	Erie	Weid	Aug. 1878					
10005	Leadville	Lake	Jan. 1879					
1424	Denver	Arapahoe	Jan. 1880					
1500	Starkville	Las Animas	Apr. 1880					
3218	Denver	Arapahoe	May 1884					
3255	Pueblo	Pueblo	June 1884					
3493	Sterling	Logan	Aug. 1884					
3524	Grand Junction	Mesa	Dec. 1884					
3566	Salida	Chaffee	Jan. 1885					
3604	Leadville	Lake	Feb. 1885					
3608	La Junta	Bent	Feb. 1885					
3667	Stout	Larimer	Mar. 1885					
3682	Georgetown	Clear Creek	Mar. 1885					
3716	Williamsburg	Fremont	Mar. 1885					
3706	Pueblo	Pueblo	Apr. 1885					
3714	Denver	Arapahoe	May 1885					
3899	Ouray	Ouray	June 1885					
4239	Monarch	Chaffee	Sept. 1885					
4401	Aspen	Pitkin	Oct. 1885					
4447	Golden	Jefferson	Nov. 1885					
4697	Leadville	Lake	Dec. 1885					
4743	Fort Collins	Larimer	Dec. 1885					
	Gunnison	Gunnison						
	Black Hawk	Gilpin	Dec. 1885					
4871	Montrose	Montrose	May 1886					
7342	Buena Vista	Chaffee	May 1886					
	Ouray	Ouray	June 1886					
7882	Leadville	Lake	July 1886					
5896	Las Animas	Bent	Aug. 1886					
7103	Central City	Gilpin	Dec. 1886					
9150	Lake City	Hinsdale	Dec. 1886					
9197								
				893	3,865	23	29	25

9795	Crested Butte	Gunnison	1886
10373	Langford	Boulder	1887
10597	Loveland	Larmer	1887
10992	Glenwood	Gunnison	1887
	Glenwood Springs	Garfield	1887
	Golden	Jefferson	1887
	Mitchell	Eagle	1887
	Gilman	Eagle	1887
652	Aspen	Pitkin	1888
865	Fort Morgan	Weld	1888
	Carbondale	Garfield	1888
10083	New Castle	Garfield	1888
	Totals		
			3,865
			29
			25

Total Assemblies, 43.

TABLE No. III.

TRADES-UNIONS.

NAME OF ORGANIZATION.	Local No.	LOCATED AT		When organized.	Total charter members.	Total present membership.	Members out of employment.	Number belonging to Knights of Labor.
		Town or City.	County.					
Bakers' Union	37	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	April 1886	12	60	1	6
Brewers' Union	44	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Nov. 1887	40	105	8	40
Brick-layers' Union	1	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Oct. 1884	47	225	.	25
Brick-layers' Union	2	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . . .	May 1888		150		10
Brick-makers' Union	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	April 1886	40	29	5	2
Butchers' Union	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Dec. 1887	22	40	6	2
Carpenters, Amalgamated Society of.	387	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	July 1882	15	245	.	1
Carpenters' Union	55	Denver . . .	Pueblo . . .	March 1884	18	180	.	.
Carpenters' Union	410	Pueblo . . .	Arapahoe .	April 1888	9	290	.	20
Cigar-makers' Union	129	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Aug. 1884	34	58	2	19
Cooks' and Waiters' Union	1	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Sept. 1887	.	230	6	.
Engineers, Amalgamated Society of.	415	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Sept. 1882	25	40	5	1
Hod-carriers' Union, B. L. N. P. U. .	.	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	June 1887	13	102	.	8
Horse-shoers' Union	29	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Dec. 1886		30	.	.
Iron-moulders' Union	188	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Oct. 1878	12	30	.	.
Iron-moulders' Union	192	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . . .	Oct. 1887		335	.	.
Linemens' Union	1	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	March 1886	82	139	.	16
Miners' Protective Union	Breckenridge	Summit . .	May 1886	30	100	.	.
Miners' Protective Union	Leadville . .	Lake . . .	1885	85	55	.	.
Miners' Protective Union	Aspen . . .	Pitkin . . .	1886		.	.	.
Painters' Union	79	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	March 1888	20	.	.	.
Painters' Union	110	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . . .	Aug. 1888		.	.	.
Plasterers' Union	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	March 1885
Plumbers' Union	38	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	July 1887

Stationary Engineers	1	Denver	Arapahoe	March 1883				
Stationary Engineers	2	Leadville	Lake	Nov. 1887	60	82	3	4
Stationary Engineers	3	Pueblo	Pueblo	March 1885				
Stationary Engineers	4	Greeley	Weld	March 1879	29	145		5
Stone-cutters' Union (free stone)		Denver	Arapahoe	April 1885				
Stone-cutters' Union (granite)		Denver	Arapahoe	June 1871	25	151		7
Tailors' Union		Leadville	Lake	Aug. 1885	43	80		
Tin and Sheet-iron Workers' Union	10	Denver	Arapahoe	April 1888				
Typographical Union	49	Denver	Arapahoe	June 1860				
Typographical Union	175	Pueblo	Pueblo	June 1884				
Typographical Union	179	Leadville	Lake	March 1884	46	313		13
Typographical Union	143	Aspen	Pitkin	March 1879				
Typographical Union	82	Colorado Spgs	El Paso	Sept. 1886				
Totals					957	3,184	36	179

Total Unions, 38.

TABLE NO. IV.

RAILROAD ORGANIZATIONS.

NAME OF ORGANIZATION.	Local No.	LOCATED AT		When organized.	Total charter members.	Total present membership.	Members out of employment.	Number belonging to Knights of Labor.
		Town or city.	County.					
Brakemen, Brotherhood of Railroad.	30	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Aug. 1884				
Brakemen, Brotherhood of Railroad.	31	Salida . . .	Chaffee . .	Aug. 1884		286		15
Brakemen, Brotherhood of Railroad.	32	South Pueblo .	Pueblo . .	Aug. 1884	88			
Brakemen, Brotherhood of Railroad.	203	La Junta . . .	Bent . . .	Mar. 1886				
Brakemen, Brotherhood of Railroad.	220	Leadville . . .	Lake . . .	June 1886				
Conductors, Order of Railroad . . .	36	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . .	Feb. 1882	66	240		
Conductors, Order of Railroad . . .	44	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Feb. 1877				
Conductors, Order of Railroad . . .	132	Salida . . .	Chaffee . .	July 1884				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	29	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . .	Mar. 1881				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	186	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	Mar. 1875				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	199	Salida . . .	Chaffee . .	1881				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	209	Alamosa . . .	Conchos	80	434		
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	258	Leadville . . .	Lake . . .	Aug. 1883				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	282	La Junta . . .	Bent . . .	July 1885				
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	385	Colorado City .	El Paso . .	Apr. 1888				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	59	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . .	Sept. 1880				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	77	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	June 1877				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	140	Salida . . .	Chaffee . .	Jan. 1883				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	196	Leadville . . .	Lake . . .	Jan. 1884	116	423		10
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	256	Como . . .	Park . . .	Mar. 1885				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	259	La Junta . . .	Bent . . .	June 1885				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	273	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	June 1885				
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive		Colorado City .	El Paso . .	Feb. 1888				
Switchmen	15	Denver . . .	Arapahoe .	June 1886	45	75	5	
Switchmen	49	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . .	Nov. 1887				

Telegraphers	49	Pueblo . . .	Pueblo . .	Oct. 1887	172	320	5	25
Telegraphers	77	Denver . .	Arapahoe .	1888				
Yard Masters	8	Denver . .	Arapahoe .	May 1878	28	67	.	.
Yard Masters		Pueblo . .	Pueblo . .	Nov. 1887				
Totals					595	1,845		

Total organizations, 29.

TABLE NO. V.
MISCELLANEOUS ORGANIZATIONS.

NAME OF ORGANIZATION.	No.	LOCATION.	When Organized.		MEMBERSHIP.		
			Month.	Year.	Charter.	Present.	Increase. Decrease.
Drug Clerks	Denver	1885	27	40	13
Travelers' Protective Association	Denver	January	1887	15	350	335
Totals	42	390	348

Total organizations, 2.

ANALYSIS OF THE TABLES.

Blank spaces in the foregoing tables may be understood to indicate that the information required to fill them in could not be obtained, even after persistent efforts by this bureau, yet, the absence of the *data* does not materially affect the general information concerning labor organizations as they are to-day.

It will be seen by the tables that the total number of organizations in this State is one hundred and ninety-seven. The charter membership was four thousand two hundred and five, and the present membership is eleven thousand six hundred and seventy-four, making an increase of seven thousand four hundred and sixty-nine. Deducting the granges from the total number of organizations, the number of trades-unions, Knights of Labor assemblies, railroad and other labor organizations is one hundred and twelve. These latter have a membership of nine thousand two hundred and eighty-four. The charter membership was two thousand four hundred and eighty-seven, showing an increase in these organizations of six thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven.

The total number of organizations in 1870, exclusive of grange lodges, was one; in 1880, twelve; in 1881, fifteen; in 1882, eighteen; in 1883, twenty-two; in 1884, thirty-four; in 1885, sixty; in 1886, seventy-eight; in 1887, ninety-seven, and on August first, 1888, the number had increased to one hundred and twelve.

As will be seen, the first grange lodge was formed in February, 1873, and that seventy-four lodges were formed between that date and June, 1876. From that year until March 1887, none were organized. In the latter year two lodges sprang into existence, and during the present year, 1888, nine more have been formed, giving a total of eighty-five granges in this State.

The tables show the present membership of each class of organizations to be as follows: Grangers, two thousand three hundred and ninety; Knights of Labor, three thousand eight hundred and sixty-five; trade-unions, three thousand one hundred and eighty-four; railroad organizations, one thousand eight hundred and forty-five; and miscellaneous, three hundred and ninety. The tables also show that throughout all the associations outside of the Knights of Labor, there are but two hundred and seventy-nine persons belonging to that order who hold membership in the others. Deducting this number from the total membership of all the organizations, eleven thousand three hundred and ninety-five persons are shown to be enrolled in the labor associations of Colorado. These figures do not include nearly six hundred coal miners working in the northern counties of the State who maintain a *quasi* organization for their protection. Were this number added to the total membership of the regularly working organizations, a grand total of over twelve thousand would appear.

It should be understood that the figures representing present membership include only persons in "good standing" in the respective organizations; were the total number of all those whose names appear on the books as members, given, the aggregate would be fully doubled.

It may be observed that the local numbers of the organizations do not correspond with dates of formation. This is explained by the fact, that in many instances where charters have "lapsed" old numbers have been given to the newly organized bodies. The tables show that but few members of the organization are out of employment.

PART III.

Strikes and Lockouts.

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The history of strikes is nearly identical with that of labor. From the earliest time, when men began to labor under masters, there began protest against injustice and wrongs or grievances, real or fancied. In the early ages, when to labor was to be a slave, he who dared to raise his hand or voice against a cruel master, was to all intents and purposes a "striker." His upraising might only accomplish his own death, but the principle involved in his protest was the same—he had put in practice that which was his theory of right.

The "lock-out" is the companion of the strike in antiquity of origin. It is simply the strike from the other side. If the laborer or employé does not have wages or other arrangements according to his ideas of justice and right, he refuses to work for that employer until matters be adjusted. If the employer can not control his employés as he desires to do, he puts into practice the "lock-out." In other words, he refuses to let the employé work until the matter in dispute is arranged satisfactorily to himself.

The first organized "strike" may be said to have been inaugurated by the children of Israel, when they refused to work at the Egyptian brick-yards, and remained in the wilderness forty years rather than concede the demands of their task-makers, who desired them to work by a new process and with insufficient material.

The many boys who have left home, because they would not brook what they considered parental harshness and subsequently became "self-made men," were domestic strikers, and their success in after life has, like the results of many other strikes, gone far toward justifying their action in the eyes of the world at large.

The American colonists, who declared that they would have representation with their taxes, or that they would leave the parental government in a body, were strikers. Had their action been in the end a failure, history would have designated the Revolution as a rebellion, and the destruction of the tea at Boston as a criminal offense.

The right to strike or to "lock-out" belongs equally to those upon the two sides of the many questions upon which employers and employés may disagree. The man who sells his labor is surely entitled to a voice in the matter of its value and the method of its use. If the employer pays for a man's time, skill or labor, it may also be considered that he has a right to say how he shall use what is his by right of purchase. The method by which a just balance may be struck between the two elements, is the problem which has agitated thoughtful minds for many years and which to-day remains unsolved.

For the greater portion of the period since which labor ceased to be regarded as slavery, and long after the time when those who toiled for wages were looked upon as an illiterate class, it was sought to keep the balance of power upon only one side of the question. The strength of union was feared by those in authority in governments, and by those who were small rulers in their position as employers. Pliny was refused, by the Roman Emperor Trajan, the privilege of forming workmen into fire companies, that astute potentate fear-

ing that any combination of the labor element would be a sure foundation for "conspiracy."

In the time of Queen Elizabeth the matter of wages was fixed by "justices," so called. These gentlemen were not by any means unbiased in their judgment, for they, being always employers, were interested in seeing that the rates of remuneration for labor should never reach a very high standard. They fixed not only the rate of wages, but they made it a criminal offense for an employer to pay more than the established amount, and caused the imprisonment of any workman who dared to ask for an advance.

Only for about sixty years have trades-unions been permitted to exist in England. For many years previous to 1820 the rates were fixed by law, but the employers were allowed to pay full legal rates for labor, or not, as they pleased, and an artisan traveling from place to place, seeking work, was an object of very grave suspicion.

Early in the present century, the trades-unions were allowed to exist, and they, with similar organizations in this country, have become useful and powerful factors in bringing about a better condition of wage-workers.

Strikes are feared by employers and by the more thoughtful and conservative of the workingmen also. To the employer they mean the interruption of business and the entailment of a greater or less financial loss. Many times they have resulted in riot and bloodshed, and have been fierce menaces to person and property. To the workingmen strikes mean a period of idleness, with all the attendant evils provided for idle hands, the dissipation of savings of frugal watchfulness of good housewives through long years, and often the loss of cozy homes and deprivation and hunger to families.

Even when successful the strike brings a sacrifice of something to both sides of the controversy.

But, that strikes have been useful as a last resort, in adjusting differences between employer and employé, is conceded by many who have participated in them. The position of workmen has been at times like that of a nation, which, after every effort for compromise and arbitration failed, has been obliged to resort to arms as the only means left for the settlement of difficulties. As a rule, the striking workmen have, in the past, been left entirely to themselves for support and sympathy in their struggles. Upon this point the Commissioner of Labor Statistics for the State of New Jersey, in his report for 1883, said:

“ But not alone the law and the courts, but the public, outside of the workmen themselves, have been in entire accord, in respect to the nature and utility of strikes. In vain did the workman appeal to the newspapers for hearing. The press, the pulpit, and the stage all united to condemn them as absolutely wrong and unjustifiable. The public could not be made to understand the reason or justification for their occurrence. Occasionally, some writer would declare that such things might be unavoidable in European countries, but should be confined there, and find no countenance among workmen here. It is curious how all these disinterested advisers should, with one accord, pronounce against the resort to strikes by workmen. The universal advice was, ‘Workmen, whatever you do, never strike.’ It mattered not what the provocation was, or how much there might be to condemn in the course pursued by employers; the conclusion was the same, in condemnation of strikers. The opinion advanced was that they were instigated by men too lazy to work themselves, and who wished to live off of the money contributed by those they duped. Every utterance of the leaders was distorted in endeavors to show the wicked intentions of those who engaged in them; every failure was manifested to prove the utter hopelessness of gaining anything by striking; the lost time was computed in figures to show the pecuniary

damage sustained by workmen while idle. The utmost commiseration was expressed for the 'dupes,' (as they styled the mass of workmen), because of the sad condition into which they had been falsely led by their wicked leaders. When a strike was successful, it was usual to attribute the result to other causes, for nothing could convince the public mind that anything good could come of striking. The heroic devotion displayed, the self-sacrifice and suffering endured by men and women, in the maintenance of what they considered right, excited no sentiment of admiration outside. The universal verdict was that strikes were wrong every way. The economist taught it, reformers persisted in maintaining it, the law made it criminal, and the public was blindly prejudiced in relation to both the causes and the effects of this mode of adjusting wages and other disputes.

"It matters but little what abstract thinkers may say as to the wisdom of strikes. Experience has taught workmen that, as individuals, they have but little power to enforce a claim for better pay when they feel that they do not receive a fair share of the proceeds of productive industry, or where, as frequently happens, employers attempt to encroach upon long established privileges without any justifiable reasons; or where a co-employé, such as a foreman, becomes overbearing and domineering, treating the workmen with incivility, and acting as a spy upon them in order to stand well in the eyes of the employer, and especially where, through their meddlesomeness, individual workmen are discharged for having acted as committee-men or representatives before the firm in a matter of dispute. All of these causes have led to controversy between employers and workmen, and become causes for strikes."

The strike is employed by labor organizations only as the last resort in adjusting differences between employer and employed, the constitution of nearly all of the organizations providing for the appointment of arbitration committees in case of disagreements in any matter between their members and their employers. The largest of all labor organizations of to-day, the Knights

of Labor, in its preamble, declares one of its objects to be :

“To persuade employers to agree to arbitrate all differences which may arise between them and their employés, in order that the bonds of sympathy between them may be strengthened and that strikes may be rendered unnecessary.”

As a rule, the employing elements have never favored the organization of workingmen. While they themselves have formed combinations, they have not properly considered the expediency of their employés doing the same thing. While the old Knights of St. Crispin, the printers, the carpenters, the railroad workmen, the masons, the plasterers, brick-makers and other artisans have formed small societies, many of whose members are also enrolled in that great phalanx known as the Knights of Labor, the employers or “capitalists,” as they are commonly designated, have united in railroad and telegraph combinations, brewers’ and whisky distillers’ associations, coal, oil and cotton pools; the iron manufacturers, the woolen mill owners, the glass and pottery manufacturers, and nearly every branch of productive industry has been joined and pooled by those in control, with the object of establishing systems of prices, uniform rates of wages, hours of work, and to create and control what are designated as monopolies. So far as organization goes, matters to-day are about evenly balanced. The results are yet to be seen. So far, the evils of “strikes” and “boycotts” on the part of employés are fully offset by those of the “black-lists” and “lock-outs” of the employers.

The essence of a strike is simply a practical refusal to work under certain circumstances. A lock-out is a refusal to have work done by certain persons for the employer’s own reasons. The wisdom of inaugurating either a strike or a lock-out depends upon the circum-

stances governing each individual case. All thoughtful people believe that it is better for both sides to make concessions. The history of various strikes shows a possibly equal amount of wrong-doing upon each side. Often, unnecessary strikes have been precipitated by hot-headed, injudicious men, utterly devoid of foresight. Sometimes they have been caused by the overbearing or tyrannical conduct of employers or their agents. Many times they have been the result of poverty and discouragement of workmen, who saw no other means of relief from a life of toil which allowed no period of rest or recreation and only a pittance to recompense them, pecuniarily, for other losses. Again, they have been caused by employés who have unreasonably desired to dictate as to the conduct of another's establishment. No wage-worker would consider it just or right for an employer to require of him that which was unreasonable, therefore, no employer should be expected to accede to unreasonable claims made by employés. All persons have a spirit of resentment aroused within them when required to submit to unfair demands.

Submission which is enforced through superior power or fear, by either party to a controversy, does not inspire respect and confidence either on one side or the other. The benefits, if any derived, can be but of temporary duration. It is necessary for the success of business enterprises, that feelings of respect and confidence between employer and employé should be cordial and reciprocal.

The National Bureau of Labor Statistics instituted investigation into strikes occurring between January 1, 1881, and January 1, 1887. The results of the inquiry have been published very recently, and the following tables having reference to the strikes in Colorado, within that period, are taken from that report, and appear as printed therein:

TABLE No. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	LOCALITY.	CAUSE OR OBJECT.
1881.		
BUILDING TRADES.		
Masons	Denver	For semi-monthly payments
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.		
Moulders, iron w'ks	Denver	Against employment of non-union men
1882.		
BRICK.		
Employés	Denver	For increase of wages
BUILDING TRADES.		
Masons	Cañon City	For increase of wages
DOMESTIC SERVICE.		
Waiters, hotel . . .	Denver	For increase of wages
MINING.		
Miners, coal	Erie and Louisville	For increase of wages
TELEGRAPHY.		
Operators	Denver	For increase of wages
1883.		
CLOTHING.		
Tailors	Denver	Against reduction of wages
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.		
Laborers, smelting works	Pueblo	For increase of wages
MINING.		
Miners, etc., silver and lead	Telluride	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Coal Creek	For employment of check-weighmen . .
TELEGRAPHY.		
Strike of July 19 . .	(In connection with	the telegraph operators strike through-

TABLE No. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES.

Order'd by La- bor Or- gani- zation.	ESTABLISH- MENTS.		Begin- ning.	END.	Dura- tion (d'ys)	Suc- ceed- ed.	EMPLOYEES'		Employ- ers' loss.
	Num- ber.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assist- ance.	
Yes . .	1	...	Apr. 6	June 6, '81	61	Yes.	\$ 9,100	\$. . .	\$ 1,000
Yes . .	1	1	Aug. 15	Nov. 15, '81	92	No .	1,950	...	25
No . .	32	10	July 3	July 17, '82	14	No .	20,250	...	4,050
No . .	1	2	Oct. 2	Oct. 4, '82	2	No .	48
No . .	3	...	Aug. 1	Aug. 8, '82	7	No .	420
Yes . .	2	61	Nov. 1	Jan. 1, '83	61	Yes.	52,000	...	4,000
No . .	1	...	Aug. 2	Aug. 9, '82	7	No .	261	...	50
Yes . .	1	14	Mar. 12	May 12, '83	61	No .	1,500	500	100
No . .	1	...	July 31	Aug. 2, '83	2	No .	800	...	200
No . .	4	5	Nov. 1	Nov. 6, '83	5	Yes.	3,775
Yes . .	1	4	Nov. 17	Nov. 21, '83	4	Yes.	3,300	...	200
out the	coun	try

TABLE NO. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	LOCALITY.	CAUSE OR OBJECT.
1884.		
GLASS.		
Boys, glass works .	Denver	For increase of wages
MACHINES AND MACHINERY.		
Employés railroad machine shop .	Denver	Against reduction of wages
Employés railroad machine shop .	Denver	For restoration of wages of thirteen men
Employés engine works	Denver	Against reduction of wages
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.		
Charge wheelers, smelting works .	Denver	For additional helpers
MINING.		
Miners, etc., silver and lead	Silverton	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Coal Creek and vicinity	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Rockville	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Erie and Louisville	For increase of wages
Miners, coal	Boulder, Weld and El Paso counties .	For increase of wages and employment of check-weighmen
Miners, coal	Eagle and Walsenburg	Against reduction of wages
1885.		
BRICK.		
Setters	Denver	Against increase of hours
Moulders	Denver	Against extra work without extra pay .
CLOTHING.		
Tailors	Denver	Against reduction of wages
MACHINES AND MACHINERY.		
Employés, engine works	Denver	For discharge of foreman
Employés, railroad machine shop . .	a Denver	Against discharge of ten union men . .
MINING.		
Miners, coal	El Moro and Walsenburg	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Boulder county . .	For employment of check-weighmen . .
Miners, coal	Boulder county . .	For re-instatement of a driver

a Strike extended to Alamosa, Grand Junction, Gunnison, Pueblo and Salida.

TABLE No. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES.

Order'd by La- bor Or- gani- zation.	ESTABLISH- MENTS.		Begin- ning.	END.	Dura- tion. (d'ys)	Suc- ceed- ed.	EMPLOYES'		Employ- ers' loss.
	Num- ber.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assist- ance.	
No . .	1	3	Oct. 3	Oct. 6, '84	3	No.	\$ 106	\$. . .	\$ 60
No . .	1	2	May 1	May 3, '84	2	Yes.	2,700	500
Yes . .	1	3	Aug. 13	Aug. 16, '84	3	Yes.	6,000	1,000
Yes . .	1	14	Dec. 5	Dec. 19, '84	14	Yes.	1,620	500
No . .	1	Aug. 6	Aug. 7, '84	1	No.	50
No . .	1	2	Jan. 15	Jan. 17, '84	2	Yes.	400
Yes . .	3	176	July 1	Dec. 24, '84	176	No.	147,000	35,000
Yes . .	1	149	July 28	Dec. 24, '84	149	No.	160,000	40,000
Yes . .	2	81	Oct. 27	Jan. 16, '85	81	Yes.	78,750	16,200
Yes . .	13	11	Oct. 28	Nov. 8, '84	11	Yes.	45,000	5,029	8,000
Yes . .	2	57	Oct. 28	Dec. 24, '84	57	No.	98,000	24,000
Yes . .	1	3	Jun. 25	Jun. 28, '85	3	Yes.	562	225
Yes . .	1	21	July 20	Aug. 10, '85	21	Yes.	900	5,000
Yes . .	4	14	Jun. 29	July 26, '85	27	Yes.	3,746	500
Yes . .	1	7	Mar. 10	Mar. 17, '85	7	Yes.	810	225
Yes . .	6	21	May 4	June 3, '85	30	No.	68,640	2,310	10,000
Yes . .	2	7	Jan. 1	Feb. 1, '85	31	No.	9,000	2,000
Yes . .	1	7	Mar. 13	Mar. 20, '85	7	Yes.	1,125	175
No . .	1	2	Mar. 18	Mar. 20, '85	2	No.	500	100

TABLE No. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES—Concluded.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	LOCALITY.	CAUSE OR OBJECT.
1883.		
BRICK.		
Employés	Denver	For equal pay for all employés
CLOTHING.		
Tailors	Denver	For adoption of new bill of prices
MINING.		
Miners, coal	Denver	Against introduction of machinery
Miners, coal	Boulder county	For increase of wages
Miners, coal	Erie and Denver	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Denver	For increase of wages
Miners, coal	Marshall	Against reduction of wages
Miners, coal	Denver	Against reduction of wages
TOBACCO.		
Cigar-makers	Denver	For increase of wages

TABLE No. VI.

STRIKES BY YEARS, AND INDUSTRIES.

Order'd by La- bor Or- gani- zation.	ESTABLISH- MENTS.		Begin- ning.	END.	Dura- tion. (d'ys)	Suc- ceed- ed.	EMPLOYEES'		Employ- ers' loss.
	Num- ber.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assist- ance.	
Yes . .	1	4	Jun.23	June27,'86	4	Yes.	\$ 750	\$. . .	\$ 300
Yes . .	2	21	Jun.30	July 21,'86	21	Yes.	1,296½	662	450
No . .	1	13	May12	May 25,'86	13	No .	1,050	1,500
Yes . .	1	7	May14	May 21,'86	7	No .	1,500
No . .	8	18	Nov. 1	Nov. 19,'86	18	Yes.	17,928	1,350
No . .	1	26	Nov. 5	Dec. 1,'86	26	Yes.	5,900	1,500	5,000
No . .	1	20	Nov. 8	Nov. 28,'86	20	Yes.	3,000	3,000
No . .	1	2	Nov. 9	Nov. 11,'86	2	Yes.	525
Yes . .	1	1	May 3	May 4,'86	1	Yes.	45	32	15

TABLE No. VII.

STRIKES BY YEARS AND INDUSTRIES.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	NUMBER OF EMPLOYES.						AVERAGE DAILY WAGES			
	Before strike.			After strike.			Before strike		After strike.	
	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
1881.										
BUILDING TRADES.										
Masons	50	...	50	50	...	50	\$3.50	...	\$3.50	...
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.										
Moulders, iron w'ks	75	...	75	75	...	75	2.50	...	2.50	...
1882.										
BRICK.										
Employés	675	...	675	675	...	675	2.50	...	2.50	...
BUILDING TRADES.										
Masons	6	...	6	6	...	6	4.00	...	4.00	...
DOMESTIC SERVICE.										
Waiters, hotel . . .	64	...	64	63	...	63	1.00	...	1.00	...
MINING.										
Miners, coal	400	...	400	400	...	400	2.50	...	2.75	...
TELEGRAPHY.										
Operators	15	...	15	15	...	15	2.90	...	2.90	...
1883.										
CLOTHING.										
Tailors	15	...	15	15	...	15	2.50	...	2.00	...
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.										
Laborers, smelting works	200	...	200	200	...	200	2.00	...	2.00	...
MINING.										
Miners, etc., silver and lead	200	...	200	200	...	200	3.78	...	3.78	...
Miners, coal	300	...	300	300	...	300	2.75	...	2.75	...
TELEGRAPHY.										
* (Strike of July 19)

* (In connection with the Telegraph Operators' strike, throughout the country.)

TABLE No. VII.

STRIKES BY YEARS AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES.						AVERAGE DAILY WAGES.			
	Before Strike.			After Strike.			Before strike		After strike.	
	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
1881.										
GLASS.										
Boys, glass works	27		27	27		27	\$ 1.31		\$ 1.31	
MACHINE AND MACHINERY.										
Employés, railroad machine shops	600		600	600		600	2.25		2.25	
Employés, railroad machine shops	800		800	800		800	2.50		2.50	
Employés, engine works	60		60	60		60	2.25		2.25	
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.										
Charge wheelers, smelting works	300		300	300		300	2.33		2.33	
MINING.										
Miners, etc, silver and lead	50		50	50		50	4.00		4.00	
Miners, coal	590		590	590		590	2.50		2.35	
Miners, coal	500		500	500		500	2.50		2.35	
Miners, coal	500		500	500		500	2.25		2.75	
Miners, coal	2000		2000	2000		2000	2.25		2.50	
Miners, coal	800		800	800		800	2.50		2.35	
1885.										
BRICK.										
Setters	75		75	75		75	2.50		2.50	
Moulders	20		20	20		20	2.50		2.50	
CLOTHING.										
Tailors	67		67	67		67	2.33		2.33	
MACHINES AND MACHINERY.										
Employés, engine works	60		60	60		60	2.25		2.25	
Employés, railroad machine shops	1320		1320	1320		1320	2.00		2.00	
MINING.										
Miners, coal	600		600	600		600	2.50		2.00	
Miners, coal	75		75	75		75	2.50		2.50	
Miners, coal	100		100	100		100	2.50		2.50	

TABLE No. VII.
STRIKES BY YEARS AND INDUSTRIES.

EMPLOYEES STRIKING.			EMPLOYEES STRIKING AND INVOLVED.			NEW EMPLOYEES AFTER STRIKE.			Em- ployés Brought from Other Places.	WEEKLY WORKING HOURS.	
No.	Daily Pay.		Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total		Before strike.	After strike.
	Before.	After.									
20	.75	.75	27	.	27	54	54
600	2.25	2.25	600	.	600	52	52
800	2.50	2.50	800	.	800	52	52
60	2.25	2.25	60	.	60	60	60
20	2.50	2.50	20	.	20	20	.	20	.	72	72
50	4.00	4.00	50	.	50	60	60
590	2.50	2.35	590	.	590	60	60
500	2.50	2.35	500	.	500	60	60
500	2.25	2.75	500	.	500	60	60
2000	2.25	2.50	2000	.	2000	60	60
800	2.50	2.35	800	.	800	60	60
14	2.50	2.50	75	.	75	45	45
4	2.50	2.50	20	.	20	45	45
67	2.33	2.33	67	.	67	60	60
60	2.25	2.25	60	.	60	60	60
1320	2.00	2.00	1320	.	1320	875	.	875	.	60	60
200	2.50	2.00	600	.	600	400	.	400	400	60	60
50	2.50	2.50	75	.	75	60	60
100	2.50	2.50	100	.	100	60	60

TABLE No. VII.

STRIKES BY YEARS AND INDUSTRIES—Concluded.

INDUSTRIES AND YEARS.	NUMBER OF EMPLOYES.						AVERAGE DAILY WAGES			
	Before strike.			After strike.			Before strike		After strike	
	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
1886.										
BRICK.										
Employés	75	. . .	75	75	. . .	75	\$2.50	. .	\$2.50	. . .
CLOTHING.										
Tailors	32	. . .	32	35	. . .	35	2.25	. . .	2.25	. . .
MINING.										
Miners, coal	50	. . .	50	30	. . .	30	1.75	. . .	1.75	. . .
Miners, coal	100	. . .	100	100	. . .	100	2.50	. . .	2.50	. . .
Miners, coal	498	. . .	498	498	. . .	498	2.25	. . .	2.25	. . .
Miners, coal	150	. . .	150	100	. . .	100	1.73	. .	2.25	. . .
Miners, coal	100	. . .	100	100	. . .	100	1.75	. . .	1.75	. . .
Miners, coal	150	. . .	150	150	. . .	150	1.75	. . .	1.75	. . .
TOBACCO.										
Cigar-makers	18	. . .	18	10	. . .	10	2.50	. . .	2.75	. . .

TABLE NO. VII.

STRIKES BY YEARS AND INDUSTRIES.

EMPLOYEES STRIKING.			EMPLOYEES STRIKING AND INVOLVED.			NEW EMPLOYEES AFTER STRIKE.			Em- ployés Bro'ght from other places.	WEEKLY WORKING HOURS.	
No.	Daily pay.		Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total		Before strike.	After strike.
	Before.	After.									
75	\$ 2.50	\$ 2.50	75	. . .	75		45	45
32	2.25	2.25	32	. . .	32	3	. . .	3	. . .	60	60
50	1.75	1.75	50	. . .	50	30	. . .	30	30	60	60
100	2.50	2.50	100	. . .	100	50	. . .	50	50	60	60
498	2.25	2.25	498	. . .	498	60	60
130	1.73	2.25	148	. . .	148	60	60
100	1.75	1.75	100	. . .	100	60	60
120	1.75	1.75	150	. . .	150	60	60
14	2.50	2.75	18	. . .	18	54	54

TABLE No. VIII.
ALL INDUSTRIES FOR ALL YEARS.

INDUSTRY	Ordered by organization.		ESTABLISHMENTS.				DURATION (days).		RESULTS.			EMPLOYEES			NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES.						Employees striking.	Employees striking and involved.			New employes after strike.			Employes brought from other places.			
	Yes.	No.	Num-ber.	Num-ber closed.	Aggre-gate days closed.	Aver-age days closed.	Aggre-gate	Aver-age	Suc-ceeded	Partly suc-ceeded	Failed.	Loss.	Assist-ance.	Employers loss	Before strike.			After strike.				Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total		Male.	Fem.	Total
															Male.	Fem.	Total	Male.	Fem.	Total											
Brick	3	32	35	35	348	9.9	476	13.6	3		32	\$ 22,462	\$.	\$ 9,575	845		845	845		845	768	845			845	50			50		
Building trades	1	1	2	1	2	2.0	63	31.5	1		1	9,148		1,000	56		56	56		56	56	56			56						
Clothing	7		7	7	112	16.0	211	32.1	6		1	6,542	1,662	550	114		114	117		117	114	114			114	18			18	5	
Domestic service		3	3				21	7.0			3	420			64		64	63		63	60	60			60	59			59		
Glass		1	1	1	3	3.0	3	3.0			1	106		60	27		27	27		27	20	27			27						
Machines and machinery	9	1	10	10	152	15.2	206	20.6	4		6	79,770	2,310	12,225	2,840		2,840	2,840		2,840	2,840	2,840			2,840	875			875		
Metals and metallic goods	1	2	3	1	1	1.0	95	31.7			3	2,800		225	575		575	575		575	245	295			295	185			185		
Mining	28	18	46	46	1,479	32.2	1,527	33.2	35		11	628,753	6,529	140,525	7,163		7,163	7,093		7,093	6,588	7,161			7,161	480			480	480	
Telegraphy *		1	1				7	7.0			1	261		50	15		15			15	15	15			15	5			5		
Tobacco	1		1	1	1	1.0	1	1.0	1			45	32	15	18		18	10		10	14	18			18						
Totals	50	59	109	102	2,98	20.6	2,610	23.9	50		59	\$ 750,307	\$ 10,533	\$ 164,225	11,717		11,717	11,641		11,641	10,720	11,431			11,431	1,672			1,672	485	

* In connection with general strike of telegraph operators, July 19, 1883.

The following strikes and lock-outs occurred since the compilation of the foregoing tables:

1887.

April—Strike of tailors in Leadville. Ordered by organization. Cause, refusal of firms to pay union pay scale. Eight men involved. Result, loss of one establishment and gain of another.

April—Strike of the brick-makers of Denver for increase of wages. Was not ordered by organization. Six hundred men engaged. Ended unsuccessfully. Continued twelve days.

June—Strike by the switchmen on the D. & R. G. Ry, at Pueblo. Not ordered by organization, and unsuccessful. Lasted about six days. Cause of strike, several minor grievances.

June—Strike of brakemen on second division of the D. & R. G. Ry. Not ordered by organization. For increase of wages and protest against an obnoxious order. Successful. Lasted two days.

July—Strike of coal miners at Baldwin, Colorado. Cause, several minor grievances. Not ordered by organization. One mine and one hundred men involved. Unsuccessful. Duration of strike twelve days.

December—Lock-out and strike of printers in one establishment at Aspen, caused by employment of a "rat" printer. Men left office, after which employer declined to allow any of them to work. The lock-out successful.

1888.

February—Strike of locomotive engineers and firemen on the Burlington railway system. Cause, classification of men and regulation of wages. Ordered by organizations. Entire Burlington system and all engineers and firemen involved. Results unsuccessful.

April—Lock-out and strike of brick-makers in Denver. Lock-out ordered by brick-makers and contractors' association. Caused by strike on refusal of increase of pay to "brick-lackers" in one establishment. Lock-out ordered in twenty yards. Two hundred and fifty men involved. Lasted about six weeks. Lock-out unsuccessful.

May—Strike of hod-carriers in Denver. Ordered by organization. Cause, strike for increase of wages. Continued about three weeks. Partially successful.

June—Strike of coal miners at Louisville. Cause, adjustment of wages. Not ordered by organization. Involved one establishment and seven men. Unsuccessful.

July—Strike of switchmen in the yards of the Union Pacific railroad in Denver. Cause, question of re-instating two discharged men. Not ordered by organization. About twenty men involved. Unsuccessful.

July—Lock-out of tailors in one establishment in Denver. Cause, refusal to pay union scale of prices. Seventeen men involved. Results still in doubt.

July—Strike of plasterers in Denver against a reduction of wages. Ordered by organization. Continued for six weeks and was unsuccessful.

RECAPITULATION.

Total number of strikes from Jan. 1, 1881, to Aug. 1, 1888 . . .	119
Ordered by organizations	63
Not ordered by organizations	56
Number of successful strikes	53
Number of unsuccessful strikes	66
Ordered by organizations—	
Successful	35
Unsuccessful	17
Not ordered by organizations—	
Successful	18
Unsuccessful	49
Total	119

The two lock-outs and strikes combined, and the one lock-out, are not included in the summary given.

It will be seen in the tables prepared by the National Bureau, that figures are given purporting to show the money losses caused by the strikes, to employers and employés. Another footing assumes to give the amount of assistance received by strikers.

These figures can be based, to say the least, but on very rough estimates, and on that account, and for other reasons, cannot be considered reliable.

Take, for instance, a strike of any dimensions on a railway, and a partial or entire embargo on traffic, how can the loss to the company be determined? The simple, usual method of averaging may furnish certain figures, which, however, are mere guess work. A strike or a snow blockade will place an embargo on traffic, yet, when the latter is resumed, the carriage of accumulated freight, for instance, increases the receipts of the road for the time, and until business reaches its normal condition. Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain how the company's loss can be computed.

In a coal mine strike, lasting any length of time, how are losses to be gotten at? So many thousands of tons of coal which might have been brought to the earth's surface are still in the mine. Had they been produced, is there any certainty that they would have been immediately marketed, and, if so, that the price might not have declined or advanced?

The tables show that some of the strikes were for increase of wages, and were successful, yet, losses sustained by employés are given. The wages sacrificed may be regarded as capital invested, and the increase in wages obtained may be looked upon as dividends arising from the investment. Therefore, any real money loss

to employés cannot be ascertained, nor even guessed at with any degree of accuracy.

As to the question of assistance received by strikers, any attempt to compute totals is absurd. Sums contributed by various organizations are not proclaimed to the world, and very seldom are named outside the lodges of either contributing bodies or the beneficiaries. Sometimes pecuniary assistance is contributed privately, of necessity, by persons belonging to no particular organization, but who extend substantial sympathy and aid to strikers in this manner.

This bureau, for these reasons, has not attempted to name either money losses to employers or strikers, or the amount of assistance received by the latter.

Four strikes have occurred in this State of such proportions as to entitle them to more notice than is accorded in the table.

These were respectively, by the Leadville ore-miners, the coal-miners, the employés of the Denver and Rio Grande Railway, and by the locomotive engineers and firemen on the "Q" system.

THE LEADVILLE STRIKE.

A strike which attracted a great deal of attention and caused no little excitement in labor and other circles, occurred in the early part of the summer of 1880.

The mining region at Leadville was the scene of the troubles which were attributable to various causes. The sparks of discontent were first ignited at the Chrysolite mine, the spirit of unrest among the miners of this mine being stirred up by the putting into practice of a number of petty rules, among which were the prohibiting of smoking and conversation during working hours.

These and other rules were calculated by their nature to annoy and irritate the workmen. Then, rumors were put into circulation to the effect that it was intended to reduce the scale of wages. Following these rumors came notices to the shift-bosses from the manager of the mine, that the men under them must daily perform a greater amount of work than they had been doing. The bosses refused to enforce this demand, and communicated the whole information to the already discontented employés. The shift-bosses quit work and, having the sympathy of the miners, the latter followed their example and left the mine.

Natural and inevitable results followed. The men were not prepared to encounter a season of idleness. After brooding over their wrongs, whether real or imaginary, they sought the sympathy of fellow miners, and, going from mine to mine, called upon the men to desist work. Their requests were immediately responded to, and between 4,000 and 5,000 miners turned out.

An organization known as the "Miners' Co-Operative Union" was in existence, but had nothing whatever to do with ordering the strike. It was virtually a Knights of Labor organization, working in secret. The miners finding this the nucleus of an organization, joined it in large numbers, and it consequently became involved in the troubles as the "Miners' Union."

So many thousands of men being idle gave rise to a great deal of excitement. The strikers held meetings at which they expressed their views, while the managers on the other side exhibited real or affected contempt for the strike and its consequences.

After the strike had become fairly inaugurated, the miners in the camp considered the occasion a good one to consolidate their grievances and, generally, to make a demand on the managers for a pay scale of \$4.00 per

day of eight hours. This demand being presented, was refused, and the action of the managers caused considerable additional excitement. Mine owners, under the assumption that their refusal to accede to the miners' demands, together with their putting a number of non-union men at work in their mines, would prompt violence on the part of the strikers, professed great alarm. They organized and placed armed guards over the mines, suggested the formation of vigilance committees by citizens and, by other demonstrations, wrought the excitement of the people to fever heat. This was not all. Although the striking miners had not committed one single act of violence, the mine managers exaggerated the situation to such an extent as to result in a requisition being sent to the Governor of the State for military protection. The soldiers were furnished, martial law was proclaimed, and vigilance committees were organized.

It is but due to the then Governor to state that he acted, as he subsequently discovered and acknowledged, on gross misrepresentations made to him by the mine managers and their friends.

To this day the calling in of the soldiers on that occasion is regarded by the miners and others as a most unwarrantable proceeding. It was then and still is considered a strangely partial act to bring an armed State force to bear in a dispute between workingmen and employers, when, on the memorable occasion of hostilities between the Denver and Rio Grande and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé railways, wherein lives and property were imperiled and destroyed, military interference was not considered necessary.

When the strike had continued about a month, an open meeting of the strikers and others interested was held, and, after a full discussion of the matter, the miners voted to declare the strike "off" and to resume work. Thus the troubles ended.

THE COAL MINERS' STRIKE.

During the summer of 1884, dissatisfaction existed among the coal miners concerning the wage question. Particularly was this the case in the southern part of the State, where wages had been reduced by the "Colorado Coal and Iron Company," and the "Cañon Coal Company." In August, the miners working for those two corporations struck, and men in some of the other mines went out at the same time.

The production being thus cut off in the southern part, the coal-mine operators in northern Colorado, and in Wyoming and Utah, undertook to supply the customers of the southern mines with coal. The miners in that section, considering this unfair to their striking southern brethren, went out also on a strike, in October of the same year. Only a very few small mines remained in operation.

In November, the coal miners of Colorado, Wyoming and Utah formed a central organization, and created a "Conciliation Board," the object being to effect a general settlement of the coal mine troubles and establish a uniform wage-scale. A rate of wages was agreed upon, and, at all the northern mines except two, after a week's suspension, work was recommenced; the gain to the miners being an increase in the wage-scale of from twelve and a half to twenty-five per cent. The southern mine operators refused to recognize the board, but treated with their men directly. The latter acceded finally to a lower scale. It was not until the end of December that the troubles terminated.

During the strike, which was a bitter struggle while it lasted, the northern miners contributed the amount of increase of wages gained by them to aid their southern brothers.

Every means was resorted to by the mine operators at the time of the strike to defeat the men. Non-union men were brought to the mines and negroes were imported from the southern States to work. Armed detectives protected the men employed by the companies while engaged at work. The colored men who were imported were not given to understand the condition of affairs previous to their coming, but when they arrived at the mines and realized the situation, most of them refused to work.

It was officially estimated that the loss to the miners, mechanics, laborers and operators alone, arising from the strike, was \$540,500. These figures, it should be understood, represent only the value of 230,000 tons of coal at the mines, that quantity of mineral being lost to commerce by the strike.

THE DENVER AND RIO GRANDE STRIKE.

In the Spring of 1885 an ill-advised, unfortunate and notable strike occurred on the Denver and Rio Grande Railway. The success attending the strike of the Union Pacific employes against a reduction of wages in April and May, 1884, animated the working people of the State with a desire to form labor organizations. Among those who formed such organizations were the Denver and Rio Grande employes. During the fall and winter of 1884 the coal miners were on a prolonged strike. Particularly was their struggle with the Colorado Coal and Iron Company long and bitter. The close relationship of this company with the D. & R. G. Ry. Co., led to the impression that the officers of the two corporations intended to crush out certain organizations then in existence among their employes.

These impressions were moulded from words dropped by officials of the companies, from time to time, in con-

versation with each other and within the hearing of certain men who reported them to leading members of the labor organizations. The acts of some of the subordinate officers, along the line of road, were construed, later, so as to confirm the suspicions already entertained.

Suspicious once aroused had the effect of creating great distrust and no little excitement among the workmen, and, rather than submit, it was urged by many of the more restless of them that a strike be inaugurated. The cool-headed and more conservative used every influence possible to avert any precipitate action.

Personal acts or utterances of any of the minor officials or foremen were now construed by the men as originating with, and expressing the sentiments of, the chief officers of the corporation, as incidental to a plan to wipe out the workmen's organizations.

The report then reached the workers that the subordinate officers in departments, under pretense of cutting down expenses, intended to reduce the working forces, and would consequently discharge those who had been active in organizing the men.

Finally, came the discharge of employés, the time-honored rule of seniority in service being ignored by the officials, who selected, in some cases, men who had been in the service for years, while others, who had been employed there but a short time, were retained.

Desirous of securing a peaceful solution of the impending troubles, a committee representing the employés waited upon the officials of the road to confer about the matter. But the officials declared they would not recognize any labor organization. A copy of a written contract entered into, and signed by the officers of the road, with another labor organization, was produced to show the inconsistency of their present position. The com-

mittee urged that it simply desired that the men whom it represented be placed on equal footing with other employés of the company in such matters.

The subject was laid before Judge Hallett, of the United States District Court, who had appointed the receiver of the road. This was considered a good opportunity, by the employés generally, to present all their grievances for consideration, and secure, if possible, adjustment of them. Among these grievances may be mentioned alleged favoritism shown in promotion of apprentice boys in the shops, the working "over time" by the freight-handlers without extra compensation, and charges of petty tyranny against obnoxious foremen, and asking their discharge.

A request was also made that discharged employés be re-instated, with offer on the part of the men that, should it be necessary to discharge men to lessen the operating expenses of the road, they were willing that the number of hours of labor should be reduced, rather than that any persons should be discharged, with the understanding that wages should be reduced proportionately.

The judge listened patiently to the committee, but decided against the men, and intimated that the receiver could reduce the expenses by discharging such men as he thought proper. In answer to a question as to whether or not the offer of the men involving a reduction of the hours of labor, instead of the discharge of any for the purpose of reducing expenses, would receive consideration, the court replied that it would be unjust to those "who may be retained" to expect them to work less than the number of hours they were then working—nine and ten—even though they themselves requested it.

This decision of the court caused considerable feeling among the more active of those interested, who

expected that they would be discharged in due time on the ground of a desire to reduce expenses. It excited a feeling of restlessness among other employés, and on May 5, 1885, a strike of all the shop-men occurred along the entire line. By an understanding with some of the train-men, they were induced to leave their posts. Freight trains were consequently stopped, the train-hands excusing themselves by saying they were afraid of being molested by the strikers. United States marshals were then appointed, detectives were also engaged, and arrests were made at several points along the road. The men arrested were charged with contempt of court, and were brought to Denver for trial for having "interfered with the receiver in the management of the railway property." Some were arraigned before Judge Hallett, others before Judge Brewer. During the hearing the train-men declared in court that they had been "intimidated." After trial, those found guilty received sentences varying from ten days to six months imprisonment. A few were discharged, and still some others, who had been arrested, but not brought to trial, were released.

In deciding the cases of some of the defendants, Judge Brewer said:

"Ordinarily, you know, when a company has property, it has absolute liberty; it may dismiss whom it pleases and employ whom it pleases; but when the courts take possession of property in this way, that liberty is abridged, and the company cannot say—Mr. Jackson, the receiver, cannot say—'I will discharge all of these men, I will pay them only so much a day, I will require so many hours work, I will require this and that of them,' for there is no one in the employ of the company but who has the right to come and say to this court, 'Mr. Jackson is making an unreasonable requirement, it is more than he has fairly and reasonably a right to require of us,' and the court is bound to listen to that complaint, and to see that justice is done between

the receiver and any employed. But this party of strikers, not coming into this court, tried to prevent the engineers from running out the trains, tried to prevent the train men from working; and while, as I say, they touched no property to injure it, yet, I think there was no one that heard the testimony but felt that that demonstration was made with the intent to overawe these engineers, to make them feel that it was not personally prudent to run those trains, that there was a risk to themselves in attempting to continue the operations of the road there; and that these engineers acted under a reasonable sense of personal danger accruing from the demonstration that was made in their presence."

The strikers, hearing this decision, came to the conclusion that the judge knew nothing of the causes leading to the strike, and concluded that should the case be presented to him in a proper light he would see justice done "between them and the receiver." This was done, and after the judge had given the subject mature consideration, he, to their surprise, decided against them.

Among the remarks made in rendering this decision, which was on May 22, 1885, Judge Brewer, addressing the receiver, said:

"The court has placed you in charge of that property. You have the responsibility and you must make the selection. You have to employ men, and there is the responsibility resting upon you for employing good men. Legally, the responsibility is with you, the court places it with you, and, in the nature of things, the court could not make any selection. So the responsibility of selection is cast with you. But I do want to say, and I want to say it to you in the presence of these men, that I do not want to see you shut the door down absolutely and say, 'I won't take any man that went out on the fourth of May.' I said to them that they were mistaken, and I say it again. But I think some of them are bad men; but they went out viciously, and feel ugly toward the road, and ought never to be in its em-

ploy; but at the same time I think some of the men made a mistake; that they are fair men and mean to do what is right; that they did as multitudes do—act with their associates, go because they went—and, having simply done that, I think that you should not lift up the barriers against them. If they want work, and if you have work for them, then such men as you select I should be glad to see you take back.”

Immediately after this decision was rendered a meeting of the strikers took place in Denver, and the question of returning to work was discussed. It was decided to continue the strike. The excitement increased. Dynamite, or some other explosives, were placed along the track; locomotives were disabled; cars were demolished; yet, no personal injuries were received by any one. Members of labor organizations were accused of plotting the outrages, and newspapers advocated a resort to lynch law. It was reported to the strikers that a vigilance committee had been formed, and the names, even, of some of its members were given. Upon this, the sympathizers with the strikers organized a “counter vigilance committee,” members of which shadowed the men who were supposed to be connected with the “citizens’ ” committee. While all this was going on, companies of the Colorado National Guard were under orders to be ready for active duty at a moment’s notice.

Such was the feeling at this time that an injudicious act on the part of any hot-headed person would have precipitated a conflict, which, doubtless, would have resulted in the destruction of both life and property. Large rewards were offered for the apprehension of perpetrators of the outrages. The offering of the rewards induced detectives to use extraordinary efforts to ferret out the criminals. One man was arrested by United States deputy marshals, who, with others, testified that they saw him place dynamite upon the track. Notwithstanding their positive testimony, the jury before which

he was tried returned a verdict of "not guilty," after only a few minutes deliberation.

During the troubles some explosive was placed against the side of a stable in West Denver. An explosion occurred which blew off one corner of the barn and slightly injured some horses, but doing no further damage. A neighbor was arrested on suspicion and was tried, but was found "not guilty."

After quite a protracted season of excitement, the strikers began to seek employment wherever they could, some being taken back in their old positions, others finding work elsewhere. Gradually, the excitement abated, the marshals and detectives were withdrawn, and no more explosives "were found" on the company's premises.

Had the officers of the railway and the employ  s talked over the matter in the spirit of patience exhibited by the court itself, in listening to the grievance of the latter, exaggerated statements which had been put in circulation, and which caused a great many suspicions to be entertained on either side, would have been examined into and their true character discovered. It is asserted that, had this been done, the strike would not have occurred, and its attendant evils would have been averted.

In course of gathering information concerning the strike, the following letters have been received at this office. They show how unjustly labor organizations were charged with aiding and abetting in the "dynamite outrages" which occurred at that time:

ROCKY MOUNTAIN DETECTIVE AGENCY, }
DENVER, COLORADO, August 3, 1888. }

C. J. DRISCOLL, Esq.,

*Deputy Commissioner,
Bureau of Labor Statistics:*

DEAR SIR—In reply to your request for information relative to the outrages perpetrated on the Denver and Rio Grande Railway during the strike of 1885, I would say that my agency was employed to

discover and arrest the persons who were placing dynamite or other explosives on the tracks of that railway, and, after two months' close investigation, we came to the conclusion that none of the parties interested in the strike or connected with the labor organizations were concerned in perpetrating the outrages.

Respectfully yours,

D. J. COOK,
Chief R. M. D. A.

OFFICE OF GRAHAM & WEBER, }
DENVER, COLO., August 3, 1888. }

C. J. DRISCOLL, ESQ.,
Deputy Commissioner,
Bureau of Labor Statistics:

DEAR SIR—In reply to your communication relative to my knowledge of facts concerning the use of dynamite or giant powder during the strike of the Denver and Rio Grande Railway employes during the summer of 1885, I desire to say that I was sheriff of Arapahoe county at that time, and considered it my duty to use every exertion to ferret out and arrest and obtain the conviction of the parties perpetrating the outrages. For that purpose I employed a man said to be one of the best detectives in the east. After a month of careful search he gave it as his opinion that the labor organizations were not responsible for the outrages, and had no knowledge of the plots.

Respectfully yours,

GEO. H. GRAHAM.

KEITH'S DETECTIVE AND GUARD SERVICE, }
DENVER, COLO., August 6, 1888. }

C. J. DRISCOLL, ESQ.,
Deputy State Labor Commissioner,
Denver, Colorado:

DEAR SIR—In reply to your questions propounded, as to the dynamite depredations during the D. & R. G. strike of 1885, I will say that, as you are well aware, I made a careful study of that strike—being on the ground during the whole struggle; and that ever since, I have been on the watch for new developments as to the outrages committed upon the company's property during the progress of that strike.

I have at last become, in a measure, convinced that the wrecks and attempted wrecks incident upon that strike, were not the work of any one combination of men, but that several separate parties, having no knowledge of or connection with each other, and under separate leadership, committed those dastardly depredations.

From pointers gleaned at the time and developments since, I am of the impression that one set of men were members of a leading labor organization, and that some of them were strikers and sympathizers, being in the same division of labor; but I have failed to gather any facts which would connect these dynamiters with the regular and acknowledged officers of the organizations to which they belonged, though it will be remembered I at one time thought otherwise.

I am also convinced that the set of men who did the most damage, belonged to the radical socialistic element of our city; men who would, if they were in Chicago or New York, be allied with the Anarchists. It was these men who, in my opinion, put the charges of giant powder on the track, which were exploded by the passing trains.

Perhaps it will be remembered that several kinds of giant powder were at times found placed on the track of the D. & R. G. Ry. The kind found most frequently was of a poor quality and badly rotted. Then there were a few charges found of an excellent quality of giant. These charges were so arranged with giant caps, as to render it absolutely certain that a passing train would explode them; and it is my belief that the explosions which took place were of this same kind of powder and placed by the same men.

Of course, when an explosion takes place, all evidences of the kind of powder, fuse, and caps used, are destroyed.

In addition to these two sets of depredators, I am strongly convinced that there was yet another class of persons, who were not strikers, and who had no known connection with any known labor society, who in a few instances placed giant powder upon the track, and so placed it as to render it certain that it would not be exploded by a passing train, merely wishing to create a scare or work some other end.

Permit me to say that there is one element attendant upon all strikes that it seems to me labor leaders and conservative labor in general, should not only take into consideration before ordering a going into a strike, but that the public at large have a right to insist that they should be responsible for, and it is this: In all bodies of men there are sure to be quite a large number of brutal and reckless men, whom it is almost impossible to handle, and that it is almost a certainty that in times of excitement they will break over all bounds and commit depredations. More than this, we have in all towns and cities a fair sprinkling of Anarchists who side in with laboring men on a strike, and who take advantage of the then naturally turbulent times to wreak their imagined wrongs on society in general.

Yours respectfully,

ED. S. KEITH,
Manager.

DENVER, COLORADO, August 8, 1888.

C. J. DRISCOLL, Esq.,

Deputy Commissioner of Labor, Denver, Colo.:

DEAR SIR—In answer to yours relative to the dynamite outrages on the Denver and Rio Grande Railway, would say that at the time of the occurrence, I, with many others, believed that workingmen generally took part in, or endorsed the dynamite outrages. Later we became satisfied that these suspicions were not well founded, and that the workingmen were being blamed for the possible acts of a mere handful of hot-headed, irresponsible persons, unfortunately for the workingmen's organizations, connected with them.

When recognized and responsible leaders of the labor classes came forward, and protesting against the outrages, volunteered to exert every endeavor to aid me in hunting down, and bringing these men to justice, I was convinced that the great mass of working people were not in sympathy with violence of any character.

I further believe that outsiders, desirous of fomenting trouble to further their own ends, took advantage of the prevailing excitement to place explosives on and near the company's tracks and premises.

Between this and other bad, unprincipled men, the strikers came to be blamed for acts, which, in my judgment, they neither countenanced nor had any knowledge of.

Yours truly,

A. W. HOGLE,
Ex-Chief of Police.

An incident, not altogether devoid of romantic features, which occurred in connection with the strike, is worth relating briefly. It goes to show fraternal devotion on one side, and the genuine "blindness" of justice on the other:

One Monday morning, when it was proposed by the railway company to re-open the Denver shops, a great crowd of workmen gathered on the street near by, ostensibly for the purpose of ascertaining who would seek employment, but really with intent to deter any men accepting jobs.

Among the people was a man armed with his dinner pail, whom the crowd commenced "guying," as they supposed he intended to obtain work. The shouting and commotion attracted the attention of the United States deputy marshals, who approached the scene, separated the crowd and attempted to pass the man with the dinner pail into the yards.

While the officers were thus engaged, some women who were present threw sand in the officers' faces, while the crowd jeered. Some prominent participants in the demonstration were afterwards arrested. Among the crowd was one of two brothers, named —, who lived some distance away, and who bore slight resemblance to one another. The brother who was in the throng had been "spotted" by the officers, but on the people dispersing, had gone off with the rest. The deputies went in quest of him, and instead of arresting him, picked up his brother and took him before the court, charged with "contempt." The deputies swore he was the man who had been one of the crowd. Witnesses for the defense swore to the opposite, and his own testimony was an effort to establish an *alibi*, but to no purpose. He was sentenced to six months' imprisonment, and, rather than betray his brother, went to jail and served out the entire sentence.

THE BURLINGTON STRIKE.

The great strike of the year 1888 was that involving the entire Burlington system, and its locomotive engineers and firemen. This strike was inaugurated February 27, and was ordered by the organizations to which the engineers and firemen, respectively, belonged. Over four thousand miles of railroad, eight hundred locomotives and two thousand enginemen were drawn into it. It was the most extensive strike in which the

Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers have been engaged.

The cause of the strike was the refusal of the company to adopt a revised schedule of wages which the men wanted, and the attempt to enforce a classification of engineers and firemen, to which the employés objected. No compromise could be brought about, and every engineman left his post at 4 a. m., on the date named above.

The order issued for the strike to take place caused widespread excitement, more especially brought about by the prevailing idea that traffic along the line would be entirely suspended, and the greatest inconvenience and delay result on connecting lines. For some time it looked as if these expectations would be permanently realized, but, as time went by, men were found who supplied the places vacated by the strikers, and the company was enabled, after experiencing some difficulties, to resume full traffic on all its lines.

Notwithstanding this situation, the strikers claim to have won a moral victory, and declare that one of the results will be a federation of the railroad organizations, embracing engineers, firemen, brakemen, switchmen and such Knights of Labor organizations as comprise railroad employés. They claim that the scheme has been acted upon favorably by several local lodges, and only needs ratification at a general convention of their representatives to insure its success.

The strike has been conducted in a peaceable manner, although the officers of the road, fearing violence in this State, imported a large number of detectives, whose presence greatly irritated the striking employés and their sympathizers. During the entire time of the strike the enginemen engaged in it have received about fifty per cent. of their wages, the money being contributed by those at work.

PART IV.

Arbitration.

PART IV.

Arbitration.

SECTION I.

REASONS FOR ESTABLISHING STATE BOARDS.

The numerous strikes and lock-outs that have taken place in this country within the last few years have caused people, who are solicitous for its welfare and prosperity, to inquire whether some method cannot be devised, whereby conflicts between employers and employés can be avoided, and their injurious effects, not only to the parties directly concerned, but also to the commercial interests of the State, be thereby averted.

There is a way by which these labor disputes can be settled without a resort to brute force, and that is through arbitration. War between nations has been averted by the mediation of friendly powers and the questions over which they were so ready to sacrifice life and treasure, were amicably settled by arbitration. If intricate questions that could involve nations in war can be adjusted, surely the troubles that are constantly arising between capital and labor can be settled in the same peaceful manner, and the evils resulting from strikes and lock-outs be thus avoided.

It must always be borne in mind that capital and labor are inseparable. Neither can exist without the assistance of the other, and since they are so closely linked it is but reasonable to expect that the differences

arising between them should be settled in an amicable way, so that they may continue together, not in jealousy and hate, but in friendship and peace.

The chief obstacle to the success of arbitration in labor troubles is the aversion to it by large employers, who consider it to be an intrusion upon a right which they claim to be exclusively theirs—the right to employ and discharge whomsoever they please, and to conduct the affairs of their respective establishments as they think proper, without dictation from any source whatsoever. They therefore reject arbitration, believing that its acceptance would be a surrender of their inalienable privileges. The way in which blanks issued by this office have been filled out and returned to it, show that there are many persons who have misconceived ideas concerning this subject.

Employers do not possess the right to regulate the operations of their establishments according to their own notions, or to employ whom they choose. It is a right assumed by them which a moment's reflection will show to be an ill-founded assumption. The laws of several States declare that children under a prescribed age shall not be employed at named occupations, nor at certain other occupations, except for a specified length of time each year; nor shall women be employed in manufactories more than a stated number of hours in each week, neither shall they be employed at other described work for any period of time.

The operating of mines, railroads, steam-boilers, steamboats, powder mills, slaughter-houses, etc., are all regulated by law, which also regulates the manufacture of various described articles, as well as the sale of liquors, poisons, drugs and adulterated food, and, it is provided, that employers who violate any of the provisions of these laws, shall be punished by fine or imprisonment.

Employers, or other persons, have not the right to erect buildings according to their own notions or wants; they must conform to the requirements of the law. The laws of Colorado confer upon the City of Denver the exclusive privilege to "license, tax and regulate any or all lawful occupations."

Individuals have not the right to engage in every calling for which they may consider themselves fitted. Persons can not engage in either law, medicine or pharmacy without passing rigid examinations and receiving certificates setting forth the fact that they are qualified to practice in either of these professions. The law likewise forbids the employing of school teachers, unless they are equipped with a certain amount of knowledge.

In many States it is unlawful to employ anyone as a stationary engineer, unless he be a person having practical experience in that line of business. Expressmen, peddlers, auctioneers, pawnbrokers, hackmen, employment agents, insurance solicitors and chimney-sweeps, are all regulated by law. Even a clergyman can not preach on the commons in Boston without permission from the city authorities.*

Were the foregoing deemed insufficient, other instances could be cited to show that the right to regulate business enterprises and individual occupations or callings, belongs exclusively to the people; that they exercise that right through their municipal, State and National governments, and, that they are restrained from extending their regulating powers to other industries and employments only by the dictates of wisdom.

When the interests of a community are being jeopardized by labor troubles, arising from whatever cause they may, the right of interference by the State can not be

* For preaching on the Boston commons, without permission from the Mayor of that city, a clergyman was sentenced to, and served a term of imprisonment in the Charles Local Jail, this year.

denied. The only question is, how far should the interference extend? This question should be answered by the willingness of employers and employed to adjust their differences so that arbitrary interference will never be necessary. There can be no question, however, but that a way or means should be made available by law, whereby adjustment of differences may be enforced.

Industrial history is not greatly burdened with the records of successful arbitration, yet the results of efforts made in that direction in several countries, are well worth all the trouble that they have cost, and justify the belief that conciliation and arbitration are the best methods yet devised of solving vexed labor disputes.

SECTION II.

Arbitration in the Old World.

BELGIUM.

Tribunals for arbitration have been established in Belgium, which have been instrumental in settling many labor disturbances in that country. However, they have not met with the success expected of them. The reason assigned for their being only partially successful is, that their jurisdiction extends to some criminal cases, an arrangement which is considered detrimental to their influence in the settlement of industrial questions.

ENGLAND.

Early in the present century the contentions between "masters and workmen" in the mining and manufacturing districts of England so disastrously affected particular industries, that prudent men earnestly sought a way by which they could adjust their differences more satisfactorily than by strikes and lock-outs. Although being close neighbors, conditions, widely differing from those in France, were presented for conciliation and arbitration in England. So very different were they that the provisions of a law similar to the French one, which was engrafted upon the English statute books in 1824, were totally disregarded, and the law practically became a dead letter, for "its compulsory features seemed especially obnoxious to employers and employed."

Speaking of the failure of "compulsory" arbitration, Mr. Rupert Kettle, the champion of arbitration in Great Britain, says: "It is agreed that, according to the spirit of our laws and the freedom of our people, any procedure to be popular, must be accepted voluntarily by both contending parties."

Employers and workmen recognizing the necessity of having a better understanding, established permanent voluntary "Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration," which settled disputes arising in their respective trades. In regard to trades in which such boards were not generally established, informal arbitration was frequently employed with satisfactory results. The difficulties which had to be overcome in forming the first boards, are described by Mr. A. J. Mundella, member of Parliament for Sheffield. He says:

"I had heard of the '*Conseils des prud' Hommes*' in France, and with one or two others, I built up a scheme in my imagination of what I thought might be done to get a good understanding with our men and regulate wages. At a meeting of manufacturers a committee

of three was appointed to invite the workmen to a conference, which they accepted. We three met perhaps a dozen leaders of the trades-unions. We consulted with these men, told them that the present plan was a bad one, that it seemed to us they took every advantage of us, and we took every advantage of them. Well, the men were very suspicious at first; indeed, it is impossible to describe how suspiciously we looked at each other. Some of the manufacturers also deprecated our proceedings, and said that we were degrading them, and humiliating them, and so on. However, we went on, and the result of our action was the formation of the "Board of Conciliation and Arbitration" in the glove and hosiery trade."

Thus was established, in the manufacturing district of Nottingham, comprising Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire and Leicestershire, the first continuously operating conciliation and arbitration board in England. Its process was simple, yet systematic and effective, and, for nearly thirty years, its operations have been fairly satisfactory.

The lace trade of Nottingham instituted a board soon after the one in the glove and hosiery trade was established. It was somewhat different in its formation, and for many years was a complete success. Latterly, owing to various reasons, its success is not so marked. However, it is stated by the American consul at Nottingham, that the feeling now existing there between employer and employé is fairly good, and that the labor troubles occurring there have generally been of minor importance.

In Wolverhampton, arbitration boards were formed about three years after they were put into operation in Nottingham. These boards were constituted on a plan since known as "The Wolverhampton System." The efforts to settle disputed questions through them have been so successful, that their mode of procedure has been followed by many trades in other parts of Great Britain.

The most notable effects of the good accomplished by continuous arbitration, have been seen in the pottery trade of Tunstall, where, for a period of forty-five years, all labor troubles have been settled through some method of arbitration. From 1836 until 1881, no serious strike occurred in this trade, while others have been greatly disturbed by contentions and riots. In nearly every trade and district throughout the kingdom, the peaceful methods of arbitration have been called into successful operation in adjusting disputes between "masters and workmen." Particularly have their success been experienced in the larger coal and iron districts in the north. The benefits derived from this way of settling grievances are well described by Hon. Robinson Locke, the American Consul at Newcastle-on-Tyne, in the following language:

"Employers are always accessible to even the humblest of their men. If any one has a grievance he may state it clearly and plainly, without any fear of prejudice, and it will be investigated. All questions affecting the rights of workingmen are discussed in the most friendly manner by representatives of workmen and the employer, and, if they can not arrive at an understanding, arbitration almost invariably follows, thus doing away with the long and disastrous strikes that were formerly used to force a settlement of differences. * * * The north of England is particularly free from strikes; that is to say, free from those great contests between labor and capital which entail great misery and suffering on the one hand, and great pecuniary loss on the other. Of course, there are in some trades occasional differences of opinion between master and men, when the men decline to work until such differences are adjusted, but, for the past eighteen years, there has been no great strike here. This fortunate state of affairs has come about through the masters and men learning, after long and expensive lessons, that there is as much business method to be observed in treating the labor question as in any purely commercial transaction. Hence, when there is a disagreement between the purchasers of labor and the dis-

posers thereof, the matter is treated as similar difficulties in other branches of business would be. Instead of following the old plan of attempting to force a settlement of the trouble by long and costly strikes, an entirely different method of procedure is now resorted to. * * *

“The benefit both to employers and workmen, of this system of arbitration by which all their disputes are settled, is incalculable, and it is to this system alone that the great coal and iron industries, the base of the weighty commercial power of the north of England, are so free from the demoralization invariably attendant upon labor strikes.”

To persons studying the effects of arbitration upon industrial interests, it is noticeable that, in large trade-centers where it has not been called into operation, or where its principles have been but indifferently applied, the feeling on both sides is one of bitterness and suspicion. Although serious ruptures may be infrequent and peace maintained by an ill-kept truce, yet, there are smouldering embers which ill-advised, hasty action on one side, or premeditated action on the other, may at any time fan into a blaze, to the great injury of a community.

On the other hand, where arbitration has been successfully employed in settling labor disputes, “the relations existing between employers and employés are of the most amicable nature.” The blessings of arbitration are highly appreciated in several districts of England, where the records of the labor troubles, previous to its introduction, are replete with accounts of machine-breaking, riot, arson and even murder.

FRANCE.

Industrial arbitration began in the city of Lyons, France, in the year 1806, at the request of many workmen, [silk-weavers and others]. Napoleon I., who

was then Emperor, established arbitration tribunals, which are continued to this day, and are entitled, "*Conseils des prud 'Hommes.*"* These councils, or tribunals, are established at commercial centers, upon petition of a certain number of persons belonging to any trade, and are authorized to act under the authority of the Minister of Commerce. They are composed of equal numbers of employers and employés, the government appointing a president and a vice-president. They have powers to adjust every contested question arising between employer and employed, or between foremen and other workmen or apprentices, excepting the question of future wages. Even that question they can determine, if the representatives of both parties are fully agreed upon it. Compulsory arbitration can be employed at the call of either party, and the findings of these tribunals can be enforced in the same manner as if they were decisions of courts of law.

The results of the work of these courts have been most satisfactory, and have probably done more, judicially, to aid French industries in a long career of prosperity than any other cause. Fully ninety per cent. of all cases brought before them have been settled by mutual agreement, thereby avoiding trial and formal judgment, these courts having judicial as well as conciliatory functions.

Sixty-nine councils during 1847 had before them nearly 20,000 cases, of which only 529 required trial and judgment to settle. Of 28,000 cases in 1850 but 1,200 required trial and judgment, the balance being settled amicably before coming to trial. During the year 1856 a like number of cases were before them, and were decided with equally satisfactory results.

*"*Conseils des prud 'Hommes.*"—Councils of discreet men officially selected for some equitable duty in their neighborhood.

The report of these tribunals for 1886 shows their beneficial operations. During that year 42,016 cases were brought before them for adjustment, an increase of 2,136 over the year 1885. They were classed as follows: Apprentices, 839; discharges, 4,039; wages, 30,516; misbehavior, 1,311; sundry affairs, 5,311. Of these difficulties, 16,409 were conciliated by private hearing, and 8,959 were withdrawn before receiving action. There were 16,469 cases which could not be amicably adjusted, therefore "compulsory" arbitration was applied to their settlement. One hundred and eighty-nine cases not finally disposed of were carried over to 1887. The report shows one hundred and twenty councils to have been in active operation during the year. The decisions of these councils exert such an influence, that, notwithstanding the excitable temperament of the French people, strikes or lock-outs, such as disturb industrial relations in Great Britain and America are of rare occurrence in that country.

The laboring classes appear to be so well satisfied with their surroundings that but very few of them emigrate. During a period of fifty years, ending June 30, 1888, the number of emigrants arriving at the several ports in this country from France were 320,893, while, during the same period, there arrived from England 1,489,898; Scotland and Wales, 335,166; Ireland, 3,208,684, and from Germany, 4,289,325.

GERMANY.

In the Rhenish provinces of Germany there exist courts, or tribunals, called "*Gewerbes-Gericht*," for the arbitration of labor differences. Each court is composed of twelve men, three of whom, sitting at one time constitute a "Board of Arbitration." When the conclusion of the board of three is not accepted by the parties to the controversy, then seven members are called upon to

investigate and render formal judgment. Their decision is final, unless the matter in dispute involves interests exceeding one hundred francs, when an appeal to the "*Handels-Gericht*" is permissible. These institutions have proven highly satisfactory in amicably settling many of the intricate questions brought before them.

ITALY.

The American Consul-General, in a communication to the State department dated at the capital of Italy, Rome, January 15, 1885, writes concerning strikes and arbitration in Italy, as follows:

"Strikes are rare, and are seldom or never marked by violence. The workmen nominate a committee to treat with the masters or the authorities. The latter never interfere except to keep order and promote arbitration, and, in some cases, the operatives resume work while their grievances are being discussed. Strikes have always been of short duration. They have sometimes taken place to compel the retirement of a tyrannical overseer or foreman, and in this they generally succeed. Advancement in wages is effected by mutual agreement, which is sometimes promoted by the conciliatory intervention of the authorities."

SPAIN.

The Spanish government has promulgated a plan for the formation of provincial congresses, to be composed of employer and employés, for the purpose of arbitrating any and all questions that may arise between them. The government was induced to take such action because of the effects of labor conflicts in portions of the country.

SWITZERLAND.

The Minister of Switzerland, at Washington, kindly procured for this bureau a copy of the law establishing "*Conseils des prud 'Hommes*" in the canton of Ge-

neva, Switzerland, which has been translated by Henry Himber, Esq., of Denver. This law went into effect October 5, 1883. It contained sixty-five sections. The first section declares that "the differences which may arise between employers and their workmen and apprentices, relating to hire or service, or contract of apprenticeship, will be adjusted or tried by tribunals of "*Prud' Hommes.*"

Section two divides the several industries into ten groups, and provides a council for each group.

Section three describes who are eligible as members of the council. The persons so eligible are manufacturers, merchants, directors of societies, bosses and employés who are possessed of political rights.

Section four provides that the State shall furnish an electoral list of each group, and, also, that persons can not belong but to one group.

The other sections provide for the election of members of the councils, and their manner of organizing, and describe their functions, provide for their division into boards of conciliation, tribunals, and courts of appeal. The modes of procedure, the manner of enforcing judgments, and the compensation of members are all provided for. There is no expense attached to the proceedings before the boards of conciliation, or the tribunals. The cost of litigation before courts of appeal are set forth in section sixty, under the title of "special tariff." The law is very elaborate in its details, and believed to be highly beneficial in its operation.

The report of these councils for the year 1885, shows that there were seven hundred and thirty-seven cases brought before them for adjustment during the year. Of these, twenty were withdrawn; four hundred and thirty-seven were settled by boards of conciliation, and two hundred and eighty were taken before the "tribu-

nals." Of the two hundred and eighty cases, thirteen were withdrawn, forty-five went by default, and two hundred and twenty-two required formal trial and judgment. The report also shows that, of the seven hundred and thirty-seven cases brought before these councils, seven hundred and twenty-nine were amicably adjusted without cost to the parties to the controversies; and but eight required settlement by the "courts of appeal."

SECTION III.

Arbitration in the United States.

COLORADO.

The Constitution of the State of Colorado, article 18, section 3, reads:

"It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to pass such laws as may be necessary and proper to decide differences by arbitrators, to be appointed by mutual agreement of the parties to any controversy, who may choose that mode of adjustment. The power and duties of such arbitrators shall be as prescribed by law."

The workingmen believing that arbitration boards, having the power of courts, could be established under this section of the Constitution, prepared a bill for an act, and were about to present it to the Legislature at its session in 1885, but discovered that other provisions of the Constitution virtually annulled section 3.

An amendment to the Constitution was then prepared and submitted. The "House" referred it to the Committee on Constitution, where it was "killed."

During the legislative session of 1887, a bill to establish a State Board of Arbitration was presented to the Senate. Certain features of the bill were referred to the Supreme Court for its opinion as to their constitutionality, and the court decided them to be unconstitutional.

There is no doubt, but that the prevailing sentiment in this State is greatly in favor of settling labor disputes by arbitration; and, that should a proposition to amend our Constitution be submitted to a vote of the people whereby arbitration might be made "compulsory," it would be adopted by a large majority vote.

The law establishing the Bureau of Labor Statistics contains the following:

"SECTION 9. If any difference shall arise between any corporation or person, employing twenty-five or more employés, and such employés, threatening to result, or resulting in a strike on the part of such employés, or a lock-out on the part of such employer, it shall be the duty of the commissioner, when requested so to do by fifteen or more of said employés, or by the employers, to visit the place of such disturbance, and diligently seek to mediate between such employer and employés."

Labor commissioners are unanimously of opinion that, to connect them with boards of arbitration, or to place them in a position where they may be obliged to decide differences between employers and employés, is detrimental to the efficiency of the work of labor bureaus; because, should either party to the dispute take exception to a commissioner's decision, they would not be inclined to give information concerning subjects which are within the proper scope of the bureau's investigations. These persons would not only refuse to answer his interrogatories themselves, but would induce others to do likewise. As all information given under the present law to this office is given voluntarily, it will be readily seen that

there should exist friendly feelings between it and all classes of citizens. Many of the labor disputes occurring in this State, have been settled by the formation of informal arbitration boards, consisting of representatives of both parties to the controversy.

KANSAS.

There is a law creating boards of arbitration in Kansas. It was copied from the Ohio law. Concerning its operation, the Labor Commissioner of Kansas, writes:

"Our arbitration law has been almost a dead letter so far, but I think its moral effect has been good. My idea is that a State Board would exercise larger influences, but of course would prove more expensive if an independent set of officers were expressly appointed. If such a board could be created from among the salaried officers of the State, so as not to increase the number of State officials, the expense would not be very great, and would probably prove efficient."

MASSACHUSETTS.

Many efforts to obtain a settlement of points in dispute between employers and employes in several of the industries of Massachusetts, met with varying success. In the cotton factories, spinners and weavers were nearly always obliged to concede to the terms dictated by mill-owners.

The vast army of shoe-makers also suffered from a constant pressure to lower their wages. From 1865 to 1875, a great revolution was taking place in the boot and shoe business, incidental to the employment of steam instead of hand or foot power, and the introduction of labor-saving machines for cutting, stitching, pegging, etc., etc. Immense factories displaced a multitude of small shops, and skilled workmen had to give way to machine attendants. The making of a boot or shoe was

divided into thirty or forty branches, of course, with more rapid and economic results.

The order of the Knights of St. Crispin, which was formed in 1867, sought to protect the working people employed in this industry against these innovations. It established formal or informal boards of arbitration, which met with fair success until 1872, when the large employers united and crushed the order out of existence. After several years of agitation, the Legislature, in 1886, was induced to enact a law establishing a State Board of Arbitration. This law provides that "the Governor, with the advice and consent of the council, shall appoint two persons, one of whom shall be an employer, or selected from some association representing employers of labor, and the other shall be selected from some labor organization and not an employer of labor. The third shall be appointed upon the recommendation of the other two. If the two appointed do not agree upon the third man before thirty days, then the Governor shall appoint him."

The board was organized about the first of September, 1886, and in its first report, made January 31, 1887, it is claimed that the experience of 1886 had proved highly satisfactory. Many public hearings had been obtained, and much valuable information had been gained from manufacturing establishments, employing nearly 300,000 operatives, or two-thirds of the whole number of the same class in the State.

The second annual report for 1887 throws a great deal of light on this question, and sustains, by facts, the value of arbitration in labor disputes. That year the law was so amended as to confer upon the State Board of Arbitration powers that established it as a potent factor in the settlement of disputes. Prior to this the board had no power vested in it warranting interference

in the name of the State, excepting when application was made for such interference by either or both of the parties to disputes. It might happen that the temper of either would be such as not to brook interference, however well meant, and the board said that to be of any real practical use in such emergencies, and to be enabled to prevent prolonged and disastrous quarrels, its powers and functions should be increased.

As before stated, last year the previous act was amended, and many most salutary changes were made in its provisions, the principal being that it shall be the duty of the board, when a strike or lock-out has actually occurred, to put itself in communication with the parties, and endeavor, by mediation, to effect an amicable settlement, or to persuade them to submit the matters in dispute to arbitration. This done, in the name of the State or Commonwealth, had the desired effect, and the results have been most beneficial.

It was discovered, as was naturally expected, that either one or the other of the disputants declined any interference. Under the provisions of the new act, the board could compel arbitration, and did so in a manner that caused disputants to appreciate the idea that "if an untenable position has been assumed for the time being, it can in no way be abandoned with so little disturbance of self-respect as by conforming to the recommendations of an impartial board, acting in the name of the State."

The methods put in practice under conditions of this official interference, were as follows:

To induce the employés to resume work.

To induce employers to take the men back under previous existing conditions, or under any conditions mutually agreed upon by the disputants.

To secure understanding that the disputed questions are to be arbitrated.

Conciliation having been thus brought about, the board proceeds to ascertain the nature of grievances on either side; then, to calmly discuss these grievances and differences and announce its decisions.

Of such value have the kindly offices of the board proven to be that it has been frequently consulted on "test cases," made up amicably between employers and employed, in regard to differences which have sprung up; and it has been able, without any publicity, to arbitrate quietly, and without resort to formal adjudication.

In the two years during which the board has been in operation, it has been called upon to investigate some of the most minute details of the manufacture of pianos, organs, boots, shoes, paper, cotton-spinning, wool-sorting and spinning, stone-cutting and other trades; and, although in some cases the inside workings of factory establishments were thoroughly investigated, and the price-lists of labor adjusted in detail, often on a higher basis than those formerly arranged and worked upon, still, ready compliance with the decisions of the board became the rule.

The board says that the once expressed doubt, as to the ability of a permanent State Board to deal with various industries in such a manner as to inspire confidence has, so far as its members are concerned, failed of a scintilla of confirmation. Courtesy has been extended to the members of the board wherever they went, and the active co-operation of the press was exercised. In all cases, regularly submitted, the recommendations of the board have been abided by, even beyond the statutory compulsory limits of six months. Although disputants had the power under the law to choose a local

board to arbitrate, only in one instance was that privilege availed of, and the outcome of that case was, that after several ineffectual attempts to arrive at a solution of the difficulties, both parties appealed for the intervention of the State Board.

In summarizing the reports of the board's experience, the following suggestive facts are advanced:

First—To secure belief in the efficacy of conciliation, mediation and arbitration, as contemplated by the State law.

Second—Discovery among workingmen of an increasing aversion to strike, and a more ready willingness to adopt methods which appeal to the sense of justice and reason.

Third—The appreciation of the existence of a board, ready to act impartially in the furtherance of peaceful methods to the averting of strife.

Fourth—The enforced necessity of employers and employed choosing their positions more carefully, being more reasonable in their demands and being on the alert to make fair concessions.

Fifth—The influence of the board has been used to bring about these settlements, it existing as a possible board of appeal, without formal call for arbitration.

Sixth—The system of arbitration tending to establish more kindly relations between citizens and neighbors, and to uphold justice and right as standards, by which questions must be adjusted, can not fail to meet due appreciation.

The reports contain a great number of cases in which it has been called upon to interfere, either by employers, employés, or both; also, at the instance of citizens to take steps, by official arbitration, to end long existing strikes and lock-outs. Many of these matters required

the exercise of most careful and intricate research and study, and extreme patience and deep wisdom in their settlement; yet, these requirements were met, and disputed questions adjusted to the satisfaction of all concerned.

Would it be too much to hope, that, ere long, every State and Territorial legislative body in the Union will profit by the experience of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and enact arbitraion laws, the execution of which, based on beneficence and benevolence, confer such inestimable results?

NEW JERSEY.

The arbitration law of New Jersey, approved April, 1886, is modeled after the Pennsylvania and Ohio laws. Its provisions have not been taken advantage of; it has, therefore, practically been of no use, and the labor disputes in that State have been settled by other methods than that of State arbitration.

NEW YORK.

In the third annual report of C. F. Peck, commissioner of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, he says that "the distribution of the products of industry are unequal and inequitable," had been the burden of the remarks of too many witnesses for him to longer doubt that wage-earning classes had not solid basis for dissatisfaction.

After discussing causes and adverting to the fact that almost every witness before him, in an investigation which had covered three months' time, had expressed the sentiment that "strikes are to be deplored," and that, in reply to the question put as to what remedy they would suggest, the answer was "arbitration."

Prior to 1885 there had been several forms of arbitration, so called, in practice in the State, but the basis or

principal form was one of conciliation. This, the commissioner says, is but the beginning of arbitration. Even this form met with approval, and it became evident that all trades were desirous of adopting some mode of settlement based on amicability, rather than plunge into strikes.

The first real attempt at forming a board of arbitration was made in 1879, in the great cigar establishment of Straiton & Storm, New York City, the firm and their workmen agreeing to organize a board to which were to be submitted all questions in dispute. The constitution and workings were complicated, and, in 1880 they were somewhat amended, the board continuing until about the middle of 1885, when it was voted a failure. The secretary of the Cigar-makers' Union of New York, in answer to a letter from this office, says, after reporting the board to be a failure:

"Arbitration can only be a success where a trade is well organized. Employers, as a rule, will not submit to arbitration unless they think that they may be defeated. Straiton & Storm's is now a union shop and arbitrates with the Cigar-makers' organization."

In 1886, an act was passed creating a State Board of Arbitration. On the very first occasion of its services being called in requisition, it was found that the State board had the right only, to act when appeals were taken from decisions of local boards. Nevertheless, such was the demand for mediation, owing to numerous disastrous strikes, that the members were called upon to act as "peace-makers," which they did, in each instance, with signal success. In order, however, that the board might be invested with additional powers, and, in accordance with the suggestion of the Knights of Labor, the act was amended in March, 1887, and the board was made one of "mediation and arbitration."

From the report of the board for 1887, it would seem that the operation of the law was not by any means as successful as that in Massachusetts. There was evidently a hitch somewhere, but without the possession of more *data* than can be gathered from this report, it would be unfair to attempt to fasten the responsibility. The report deals in arguments rather than in facts. The board says:

“Neither mediation, nor arbitration, nor investigation, is of much use to effect settlement in cases where the struggle is for the mastery in controlling and putting a limitation upon the labor of a manufactory or other business enterprise. The evidences of the past year indicate, not only that the chief labor disturbances are now upon the line mentioned, but that employers have, during the past year, perfected organization among themselves, to a greater extent than ever before, and that their objective point is to break down the combinations of the trades as controlling powers over labor employed, and deal directly with their employés, each in his own establishment. The contest is one of combinations of employers on one side, and of the employed on the other.”

Concerning railroad strikes, the board uses the following language:

“No dispute between the *quasi* public officers about the price of labor, or any kindred thing, should be permitted to jeopardize the lives, or interrupt the transportation of property of citizens, to whom the use of a railroad daily has become a matter of necessity, as well as of convenience. * * * * The State should lodge somewhere a power, with ample means of law to make its intervention effective, for the speedy settlement of all disputes between the officers of railroad corporations and operatives of railroad property.”

OHIO.

There has been for many years a very broad law concerning arbitration, in force in Ohio. Its first section reads as follows:

“All persons who have any controversy, except when the possession of title of real estate may come in question, may submit such a controversy to the arbitrament or umpirage of any person or persons to be mutually agreed upon by the parties, and they shall make such submission a rule of any court of record in the State.”

It would seem that all labor disputes could be settled in the manner indicated by the first section of this act, but the second section provides that a bond must be first filed with a court of records before action can be taken under its provisions. The financial condition of employés is usually such as not to enable them to file bonds for large amounts, and, whether it is that or some other cause, the law has not been employed to arbitrate labor disputes.

Governor Bishop, recognizing the failure of this law in adjusting differences between employers and employés, in his message, in 1880, urged upon the legislature the necessity of establishing other abitration boards in these words:

“Boards of arbitration and conciliation are a simple, inexpensive and complete plan by which labor troubles may be avoided, to the great benefit of employer and employé, as well as the great consuming public, which is at times a great sufferer from strikes over which it in no manner exercises control. There are certain prejudices that must be overcome before the plan of amicable adjustment will be generally adopted.”

In February, 1885, the legislature adopted an “arbitration act,” similar in its provisions to the Pennsylvania law, and which, like that, has fallen into disuse. The differences arising in many of the industries of the State, have been settled amicably by informal arbitration boards.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania has been first and foremost in the matter of industrial arbitration. Especially has arbitration

been a well chosen method of settling many contesting claims in the coal and iron industries of the State.

The first attempt at arbitration in the coal industries took place in the anthracite regions in the year 1871.

The whole history of this coal industry at the points of production is a terrible record of labor troubles and wrong doing. The market for the product suffered the most unreasonable fluctuations, and the miserable miner had to bear the burden imposed by every depression and disaster. At times the demand for labor was very great, drawing men from many other trades, and at the period above referred to production had increased five hundred per cent. in twenty years, employing about fifty thousand laborers.

About this time the "Workingmen's Benevolent Association" was formed, which voiced the plans and wishes of the coal miners, and represented them in the adjustment of scale and prices. Their conferences were with the railroad coal companies and "Anthracite Boards of Trade." After two years of successful and unsuccessful attempts at thorough conciliation of interests, arbitrators were chosen from the "Anthracite Boards of Trade," and from the "Miners' and Laborers' Benevolent Association," and, convening at Mauch Chunk, April 17, 1871, attempted a settlement of difficulties. It was understood that workmen should not interfere with the deliberations of the board, and must continue at their labor until after the announcement of the decision of the board.

The wage question had yet to be adjusted. It was settled for Schuylkill on May 11, 1871. The other mining sections resumed work by mutual agreement. Although the basis of settlement was not altogether satisfactory to some of the men, yet at most of the collieries there was rejoicing that peace had come and all

differences were settled, at least for a year. A strike by the loaders in one coal company, however, in less than five months, overturned the whole arbitration agreement, and then followed the terrible "Molly Maguire" outrages and the hanging of nearly a score of the alleged perpetrators, all of which was owing to a repudiation, by one party, of the decision made by the umpire, Mr. Elwell. Had there been faithful adherence to his decision by all concerned, in the opinion of Governor Hartranft, these calamities might all have been avoided.

In 1858, a few iron-puddlers, having in view the disastrous strike of 1849 and the injuries bequeathed to them by it, organized the "United Sons of Vulcan." This organization grew in strength and numbers, and in February, 1865, its representatives and the representatives of the employers met in conference at Pittsburg for the purpose of fixing the scale of prices for work. The prices to be paid the workmen were adjusted upon a graduated scale of selling prices received by the manufacturer, and it is probably the first time that a sliding or graduated price-list for work was ever allowed to operate in favor of workingmen. In subsequent months and years, however, prices of iron and steel were constantly shifting, and the scale was frequently altered, notice of change to take place being two or three months ahead of the change agreed upon.

In 1876 all the small societies, composed of persons employed in the several branches of the iron industry, merged into one, called the "Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin-Workers of the United States." The representatives of this organization and of the employers have been successful in arranging scales of wages for nearly all the different kinds of

skilled workmen employed in the rolling mills of the State.

After the terrible experience had in the riots of 1877, both the legislative and executive branches of the State government gave the subject of arbitration the most practical attention.

Mr. Joseph D. Weeks was appointed by Governor Hartranft as special commissioner to inquire into the successes and failures of arbitration as a means of settling labor troubles. His report contains an interesting account of the workings of arbitration in England, to which we are indebted for many facts concerning the same.

In April, 1883, the legislature enacted a law generally known as the "Wallace act." It is entitled "The Voluntary Trades-Tribunal Act, A. D. 1883." It authorizes the creation and provides for the regulation of voluntary tribunals to adjust disputes between employers and employed in the iron, steel, glass, textile fabrics and other coal trades. In its preamble it recognizes the long and grievous record of strikes and lock-outs, which have occurred to these industries in the State for want of courts of arbitration, and states that such courts are in general accord with the practice and policy of the administration of law in the Pennsylvania commonwealth.

Although the law is liberal in its provisions, the instances in which it has been called into operation are few. This may be accounted for by the fact that both parties to a dispute must agree to the mode of arbitration provided by the law before a tribunal can be created, and another reason for its disuse is, that, in cases wherein its provisions have been applied, the results have not always been satisfactory to employers—hence, their refusal to further arbitrate according to its provisions.

Therefore, the settlement of labor and capital, so far as the adjustment of disputes is concerned, continues about the same as before the passage of the "Trades Tribunal Act," and strikes and lock-outs still disturb the great industries of Pennsylvania.

There are many trades in the State not contemplated in the provisions of that act, which still continue to settle their differences by informal arbitration—notably, the boot and shoe-makers, cigar-makers and printers.

It has been the object to give, in the foregoing pages, a description of the several methods employed in arbitrating differences. It will be noticed that the law, by which official boards are established only upon application of both parties to the matter in dispute, has been almost a failure, and that informal boards, chosen from the trades involved, had to be called into operation whenever it was decided to arbitrate the difference in dispute. The objection to choosing boards in this manner is the difficulty experienced in inducing desirable and prudent workingmen to serve on them. They know that to be prominent in this way is only to mark themselves for the displeasure of the employer or his foreman, who, in a hundred ways, persecute men that show any activity in labor matters, notwithstanding their frequent expressions of friendship and good will.

In order that employés may not be victimized, the services of outside persons have frequently been enlisted, but, many times, employers refuse to allow them to interfere. State boards, having official sanction, are what appear to be required. They can proceed to investigate, hear evidence and render decisions. Public opinion is usually formed according to the conclusions arrived at by these boards, and, as neither employers nor employés wish to run counter to public opinion very long, general acquiescence in the decision of the boards

is obtained. These boards can also be given power to enforce their decisions, as if they were courts of law.

Mr. Weeks, in the concluding chapter of his report to the Governor of Pennsylvania, uses the following language:

"I do not claim for arbitration that it is a wonder-worker. It is not perfect. It is used by men who are very human, and who, under the present condition of things, are extremely selfish. For these reasons it will fail to accomplish all that is expected. Though it may fail at times, when it is fairly and honestly tried, it will in most cases succeed; and under its action, wherever established, an intelligent co-operation between employers and employed will be effected, and steady employment secured at those rates of wages which the industrial conditions of a competitive market enable capital to buy.

"As before stated, differences between capital and labor must constantly arise. They are here. Now, it is for our workmen and manufacturers to say how these differences shall be settled. Whether by reason or by brute force. Decide they must, and, in some cases, soon. The solicitude to discover some more rational way of settling these differences than by the barbarous methods of strikes and lock-outs is shared equally by workmen and employers, and probably most of all by the on-looking public. While this end may be the immediate object of the solicitude of these classes, underneath it lies an earnest desire to find a permanent, honorable, reasonable solution of this and other phases of that most important of all human problems, the labor question. We are greatly in the dark on this subject. I believe we are moving toward the light. Looking back a hundred years, we can see the gradual brightening of what was then the darkest of all social problems, and need have no fears of the result. It may be delayed, but reason will rule, and determine the nature of the relations of capital and labor.

"There are certain facts that we may refuse to acknowledge, and, refusing to own, may go on in the old way; but the new way of reason and a respect for

the rights of each other will win. I believe that arbitration and conciliation will aid in bringing about the recognition of these rights. It is not an end nor a solution of the problem. It is on the way to the end, and is much nearer it than a strike or a lock-out. It will be a day of the greatest promise, when in our State we shall put aside our pre-conceived prejudices and the notions of the past; when we shall realize that something higher than brute force has come into the affairs of men to adjust and harmonize them; and when, acting on this belief, we shall urge forward an industrial re-organization on the basis of reason and right. There can be no nobler or more sacred work for men to do."

SECTION IV.

VIEWS OF EMPLOYERS.

In order to ascertain from Colorado employers their opinion as to the best method of settling labor disputes, this office caused to be inserted in the blanks sent to them, the following question:

"What, in your opinion, is the best method of arbitrating questions of wages and other differences between employers and employes?"

Of the 181 employers who replied to this question, 70 desired arbitration in some form; 18 did not want interference of any kind—"no arbitration," is what they answered; while 93 declared themselves not prepared to express an opinion on the question.

The employés who have written to this office concerning the subject, are unanimously in favor of some method of arbitration.

The following are some of the ideas expressed by employers upon this subject, in their answers:

FAVOR ARBITRATION.

Arapahoe County, No. 1—One representative of employes, one representative of employer, and one other agreeable to both; their decision to be final.

No. 3—Arbitration by selecting men from each side, under control and advice of, say, your bureau, or any other competent authority, whose findings should be made final and binding by legislative enactments, but subject to appeal by either party to some higher court.

No. 13—We think arbitration by three disinterested parties a good mode of settlement.

No. 17—Get together and talk the matter over.

No. 24—Arbitration by persons chosen from a class, not employers nor employes, and sworn to try the case justly.

No. 35—Arbitration. Three commissioners appointed by the State, one representative of the employes, one of employer, and one judge; their decision should be binding.

No. 36—Am strictly in favor of arbitration by parties affected.

No. 41—By coming together and ascertaining differences.

No. 45—Each party to choose an arbitrator, and the two chosen in turn to choose a third.

No. 50—With corporations, arbitration; with individuals, agreements between themselves.

No. 53—Direct arbitration between employer and employe.

No. 55—Let employer in person talk with employe and not through superintendent or manager.

No. 57—Each side take a man and these two men choose a third, to arbitrate.

No. 59—Create a tribunal which may consist of an arbitration judge and clerk. In every case of any importance and involving any serious interests, impanel a jury of 12 or 24. Select another juror (to avoid tie vote), entire panel to be satisfactory to both parties and to state under oath that they can and will form an impartial verdict. Keep out all lawyers and let witnesses be brought forward on either side and questioned by the judge, the clerk, or the jurors only. Then let the judges retire, vote upon the matter and the majority vote shall be final.

No. 63—Each party choose good reliable men to arbitrate questions in dispute.

No. 65—Any method of arbitration is preferable.

No. 72—Arbitration. One person each to be elected by employer and employe; they two to elect a third. An advisory committee of two to be appointed by the Governor of the State, with power to vote together with the arbitrators, only by unanimous consent of the said three arbitrators.

Bent County, No. 170—Let the employers and employes each select an arbitrator. If those two fail to agree then let them select a third. We doubt that any method of arbitration is needed for small business concerns, at least as would be practicable. We think it a right and good policy to pay a good skilled man in any business good wages. Some system of arbitration is, perhaps, needed in large manufacturing concerns, but we cannot suggest an opinion as to the best system.

Chaffee County, No. 203—By giving both sides an impartial and just consideration; by ascertaining the actual facts in dispute, and a decision rendered by a jury.

No. 204—I know of no way, except that of discussion between employer and employe, or leaving the work if dissatisfied.

Clear Creek County, No. 197—Perhaps a court of three referees, or commissioners, would be best, each side choosing one of these, and the two thus chosen selecting the third; before these, under agreed rules, each interested party would argue his or their case alone, and without any legal advising or assistance from lawyers.

No. 198—By a committee equally represented by both sides.

No. 199—By submitting the differences to some tribunal that will do justice both to employer and employe.

El Paso County, No. 290—If employer will state the most important and honest facts about his business and profits, the sensible employes will arbitrate with satisfactory results.

Fremont County, No. 310—By three arbitrators; each party choosing one, and the two thus chosen selecting a third. I think that employes should be paid weekly. First, because employes are thus protected against loss on account of bankrupt or dishonest contractors. Second, because everything would thus be brought to a cash system and many failures would be thus prevented.

No. 311—I suggest the establishment of a National Board of Arbitration, to be composed of employers, employes and a government referee.

Hinsdale County, No. 373—Yes. Select three disinterested men that could not be bought for money.

Huerfano County, No. 382—By amicable settlement between employer and employe.

Jefferson County, No. 391—Have a distinct understanding in the beginning, and when differences arise, talk them over and use common sense in arranging a compromise.

Lake County, No. 417—Place matters in dispute before a committee composed of employers and employes for settlement. Then let both parties abide by the decision of the committee.

No. 414—Leave matters in dispute to disinterested parties.

No. 247¼—By arbitrators selected from both sides, and who shall take as a basis for decision and judgment the amount of capital invested in a business, its profits, the cost of living for the employe, the skill of the employed, and the physical effects of the employment.

No. 246—Through the courts of law and justice, or by committees appointed for the purpose.

No. 420—Establish the arbitration method by disinterested parties.

No. 429—In well settled, *i. e.*, mature localities, by an incorruptible commissioner of equal intelligence, both practical and judicial. It should be outside of politics and faction.

No. 247—An arbitration committee appointed conjointly by employer and employe, so that they, the arbitrators, will be men familiar with the peculiar condition and circumstances that may exist in that particular locality or district.

No. 431—First closing down the works and then a fair arbitration of the difference, representing equally the interests of both labor and capital.

No. 246—Through the courts, by law and justice, or committees so appointed for the purpose.

La Plata County, No. 251—Fair discussion between working-men and superintendents or employers.

No. 441—Let the disputed matters be left to a committee of three. Let the employer choose one member, the employes the second, and the two thus chosen, select a third member of the committee.

No. 442—Create a board of arbitrators in each county by elective franchise, to consist of one or three members, then the employer select one man, and the employe one, which would constitute a board

of either three or five. Give them power to send for persons. By making it an elective office in each county, I think it would bring out the best men.

Larimer County, No. 454—By three disinterested parties who are, or have been employers or employes in the business in which the dispute has arisen.

Las Animas County, No. 473—Let the employer select a man from his own line of business, the employes select an employe, and the two select a third man out of another line of business, and let a verdict of a majority of this committee be the basis for a settlement of questions in dispute.

Pueblo County, No. 552—Arbitration is the best method, provided the arbitrators know something about the questions in dispute.

Washington County, No. 631—Create a State board of arbitration to which all differences shall be submitted.

OPPOSED TO ARBITRATION.

Arapahoe County, No. 2—Common sense agreement has always prevailed with me, and I believe it impossible for labor unions to make general laws which will be practical for all special cases.

No. 4—Wages should be determined by the employer according to the employes' ability.

No. 7—We believe employers should have the privilege of employing or discharging whom they please, and that the employes should be paid according to what they are worth to the business. Amount of remuneration for service should be a question to be settled between the employer and each employe, without outside interference.

No. 11—Since wages enter into the cost of goods, same as any and all other constituents, they are governed by what the goods will sell for.

No. 12—Employes should conform strictly to the rules known to both parties at the time of beginning.

No. 18—Don't believe in arbitration, railroad pools, nor combinations of any kind.

No. 20—Do not believe in arbitration or other artificial means of adjusting such differences. The law of supply and demand is sufficient.

No. 29—Avoid monopolies and labor societies and use reason.

No. 30—If employers and employes cannot settle their own differences, they should part company.

No. 31—Let employer and employe settle their differences between themselves. Arbitration can never do all parties justice, as a good workman will not get justice and a poor workman will get more.

No. 38—A dissatisfied person is of no use whatever in our business. There is no satisfactory work done, so when he loses interest we let him go.

No. 40—No method can be made practical for a third party to dictate what a man should receive for his labor, as the skill of the laborer will regulate that; neither is it practical for a third party to say what the employer should pay, as the employer knows best what the employe is worth to him.

No. 51—A good mutual understanding between both, without the aid of outside parties interfering.

No. 58—Let every firm run their own business.

No. 64—When we have anything to arbitrate, will talk with the individual direct.

Boulder County, No. 181—Always settle troubles directly with my men, pay them the highest wages, demand loyalty and no interference with my policy. Have no trouble.

Chaffee County, No. 205—If employer and employe cannot agree, let each go his way in peace. No arbitration.

Clear Creek County, No. 195—When an employe does not suit, I discharge him. When he wants to leave, he gets his money. No arbitration.

No. 196—The employer and employe should arrange all differences themselves.

No. 196½—Pay each employe the amount which you can afford, and if he does not wish to work for that, let him get out of the way for some one that will work for it.

Custer County, No. 230—I find that the best plan is to have an understanding with each man, and if he cannot perform his part, pay him and let him go.

Gilpin County, No. 340—If an employe does not wish to work for the wages offered him, it will be optional with him to work or let it alone.

No. 342—Don't know. We pay all that we can, and if that does not suit, we get some one else to do the work. I do not think that the mountain towns ought to be placed side by side with the manufacturing towns, for the men who live here get a job and stick to it for life. I might say that there is no one here to take their places. Their homes are here, and they work for the interest of their employers. In our shop we have men who have worked there for twenty years. We have never had, and never expect to have, any trouble. We employ sober men, and men who have homes and are trying to get homes for themselves, and we always help them to get homes of their own.

Hinsdale County, No. 374—Arbitration amounts to nothing more than outside advice. If forced to arbitrate it is easy to avoid compliance by quitting and shutting down. The essence of ownership is control. We keep good men and pay good wages monthly. No Chinamen, misers, nor drunkards, nor a gang of Irish, Germans, Cornish or Welsh—all too tricky to be trusted alone.

Jefferson County, No. 390—If an employe does not like his position, he should have the privilege of calling for and getting his money, and if the employer sees fit, he should have the privilege of paying employes what is honestly due them, and let them hit the high spots in the road.

Lake County, No. 410—We don't trouble about the matter. If men are not satisfied with us they can go elsewhere.

No. 415—Bounce all dissatisfied men.

No. 428—I believe the greatest good to the greatest number would accrue *by each man attending to his own business*, and making his own bargains.

No. 432—If the men don't like the wages I pay, they can quit. If I am unwilling to pay the wages they demand I can shut down. I will not permit interference in the management of my business or the use of my money.

Las Animas County, No. 474—Pay what you can afford, and if the men don't like that, let them quit.

No. 472—Pay employes according to agreement, and if that does not suit them, let them out and hire others.

Pueblo County, No. 555—If the wages do not suit, let the men leave, and if the men do not suit us, we discharge them.

San Miguel County, No. 611—My opinion as to the best method of arbitrating differences between employer and employe is to pay him and discharge him immediately.

No. 617--Discharge the discontented men, and shut up shop if other men are not willing to work, or cannot be protected to go to work.

The foregoing embrace the opinions in but a few of the blanks returned from employers. Others, being almost repetitions, it was not deemed necessary to publish them. The majority of the employers, it will be seen, favor arbitration, while the minority advance no good grounds for opposing it.

The great advantages of arbitration over any yet known method in settling, amicably, the differences that are constantly arising between employers and employed, are so apparent that argument for its adoption would seem to be unnecessary. When men are forced to a settlement of disputed questions, there remains within them an unconquered spirit of rebellion, waiting and watching for an opportunity to be avenged for what they consider to be an injury, but when their better nature is appealed to they are reasonable.

Arbitration is an appeal to reason; it brings the employers and employed together so that there may be a proper understanding concerning their differences, and the results of these meetings generally are amicable adjustments of the questions in dispute, and the promotion of respect and confidence between them.

One of the most potent arguments in favor of adopting some method by which a quick settlement of disputes arising between employers and employes, which can be adduced, is by instancing the critical condition in which several important industries in the State were placed during the coal-miners' strike in Colorado, in October, 1884.

Particulars of this strike are given in the section relating to "Strikes."

It will be remembered that at that time every coal mine in the State, excepting a very few small ones, was closed for a week. Should a strike of similar magnitude occur in mid-winter—and which might possibly be of months' duration—the manufacturing, mining and other industries of the State would not only be completely crippled, but the suffering from lack of fuel on all sides would reach such vast proportions as are frightful to contemplate.

In view of the possibility of such a strike occurring, the State should surely be provided with a remedy compelling a settlement of the difficulty, in order to prevent such dire calamity.

Does not arbitration, which can be enforced by law, suggest this remedy? Should it be found that the State Constitution prohibits enactment of any legal measures by which arbitration boards can be established, it would not be unreasonable to expect that, in the face of popular demand for arbitration, our Constitution should be so amended as to sanction their formation. Should this be done, there can be but little doubt but that benefits, similar to those derived from the operations of boards where the system obtains, would as be fully felt and enjoyed by the people of Colorado.

The subject of arbitration is considered of so much importance that it has attracted the attention of Congress. A bill for an act, "to create boards of arbitration or commission for settling controversies and differences between railroad corporations and other common carriers, engaged in inter-state and territorial transportation of property or passengers and their employés," has received the sanction of the House of Representatives, and, at this writing, is before the Senate, having been favorably reported on by the committee to which it was referred.

PART V.

Employers' Liability.

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SECTION I.

“DOCTRINE OF COMMON EMPLOYMENT.”

The wonderful discoveries made during the last fifty years have completely revolutionized the workings of many of the industries of this country. The use of steam, electricity and machinery have made certain employments extra hazardous. The frequency of railroad catastrophies, of mine and mill disasters, and of other accidents, incidental to the “improved order of things,” have caused thoughtful people to ask: “Should these extra risks of employment, imposed by recent inventions, be borne solely by employ  s who are the persons least able to sustain such additional burdens, and who are receiving the least benefits from them?”

This question is now being agitated in several states, and recent legislation in some of them has compelled the employer to assume a part of these new risks, thereby somewhat lightening the laborers’ burden in this respect.

The Legislature of Massachusetts, in 1882, directed the Bureau of Statistics of Labor to inquire into the necessity of changing the rule of law relating to the responsibility of employers to employ  s, for injuries received while in discharge of their duties. The bureau

made an exhaustive report in 1883, written by Charles G. Fall, Esq., of Boston, a gentleman to whose extraordinary efforts is due the legislation by which some of the risks of employment are now imposed upon the employers of Massachusetts. To the work of Mr. Fall, we are indebted for much of the information contained in the following pages relating to this subject.

When people are agitated by any important public question, and are desirous of settling it in a just and equitable manner, the proper way to begin is by "returning to first principles." Therefore, in the treatment of this subject, we should ascertain what were the first principles governing it, and when and how they were departed from.

When God gave the commandments to man and said, "Six days shalt thou labor, and do all thy work; but the seventh day is the Sabbath day of the Lord thy God; in it thou shalt not do any work; thou, nor thy son, nor thy daughter, thy man-servant, nor thy maid-servant, nor thy cattle, nor the stranger that is within thy gates," He then established that principle of law which holds the master, or those in authority, responsible for the acts of servants or persons under their control.

As an outgrowth of the relations of master and servant, it has been held in every land that the authorized acts of agents, or servants, make the employer, or master, responsible for such acts.

The first recorded exception to this rule is said to have been made by an English court, in 1837, in the case of *Priestly vs. Fowler*. [3 M. & I.] In this country the first exception to this rule was made in Massachusetts, in 1842, in the case of *Farwell vs. The Boston and Worcester Railroad*. [1 Met., 49.] These are the first reported cases in which the doctrine of common employment is interposed and established, as a reason

why an employer should not be held responsible for injuries received by an employé while in the discharge of his duties, when such injuries were caused through the carelessness or negligence of a fellow-workman. Since that time English and American courts have almost universally adopted the rule of common employment as a bar against the recovery of damage by employés for injuries sustained.

In the report of the Massachusetts bureau, several decisions are presented for the purpose of showing who are considered co-employés. We find that the following have been declared such by the courts:

A superintendent of a railroad and a locomotive engineer, the latter bound to obey the orders of the superintendent; a switchman and an engineer; a brakeman and an engineer; a conductor of a railroad train and a laborer, the latter riding to his work on the train; a foreman employed by a city and a laborer under his control; a superintendent of a cotton manufacturing company and a female operative; a hod-carrier and a carpenter, by the carelessness of whom the former was injured; a brakeman and a gate-tender; a baggage-master and a draw-tender at a bridge; a factory girl and the superintendent who gave the order that caused her death; a painter and a freight-handler who upset the ladder on which the former was working; a miner and sub-contracting engine-builder; the employé of a brewer and a person who gratuitously made a plan for a malt-bin, which fell in and injured the employé; a miner and an overseer, the carelessness of the latter, while at work four miles away, causing an explosion.

The terrible disaster at Ashtabula, Ohio, which occurred a few years ago, well illustrates the rule of common employment, as held by the courts. A number of workmen in the employ of a railway company were

riding on one of its trains to a point on the line; when the train was crossing a bridge the structure gave way, and many of them were killed and injured.

Neither employés who were injured, nor the legal representatives of those who were killed, had remedy in law against the company, because the engineer whose blunders in the construction of the bridge caused the accident, was a co-employé, although he might have never been known or seen by any of the killed or injured.

It is said that courts are construing the rule of law concerning employers' liability more favorably to employés than they formerly did, but the following decisions, rendered during the past year, and which have been obtained with but little research, do not convey that impression:

DUFFY VS. PITTSBURG FOUNDRY CO., PITTSBURG, PENN.

Plaintiff in this case, while working in a car shop, had an eye burned out by a splash of molten metal. It was shown in evidence that the manager was not present when the accident occurred. In an action for damages the court ruled that an employer is not liable for an accident occurring during the absence of his authorized representative.

"*Held*, where the evidence showed that the manager of the mill was absent when the accident occurred, there could be no recovery." [Spr. C., Pittsburg, Feb., 1888.]

HAND VS. ROGERS L. AND M. WORKS.

One Lair was employed in the blacksmith's shop of the company's works, and John Hand was employed at another part of the works as a machinist. Hand pointed out a defect in a chain which was being used in raising locomotive driving-wheels. The chain was repaired by

Lair, under the direction of an officer of the company. When repaired, the chain was used by Hand, who was injured by its breaking at the link where it had been repaired. The court declared:

“That Hand and Lair were in the service and under the control of the same master—were engaged in work tending to a common purpose; and Hand, in engaging therein, was able to foresee the risk of injury from any person employed by the company to do such repairing as Lair did. Under the circumstances, I find no escape from the conclusion that Hand and Lair were fellow-servants in a common employment.” [N. J. Sp. C., July, 1888.]

In the case of *Shea vs. Pennsylvania Railway Company*, the court held:

“That a master is not liable for the negligence of his servant, the foreman of a gang of servants, one of whom was injured in consequence of the negligence of the foreman in failing to warn them of a danger of which he was cognizant.” [Penn. S. C., March, 1888.]

KRANZ VS. LONG ISLAND RAILROAD CO.

In an action for alleged negligence, whereby plaintiff's decedent was killed, where it appears that the deceased was in the employ of defendant, by whom he was directed to assist in cleaning out some pipes at the bottom of a trench which defendant had dug to uncover the pipes, and which was from eight to ten feet deep, about six feet wide at the top, and from two to three feet wide at the bottom, and, that while engaged therein, the earth caved in and suffocated the deceased, the court held that the company was not liable, because:

“The deceased was the servant of the defendant; and, while it was the duty of the defendant to provide a safe place for the performance of his duty, yet the trench into which he was directed to perform the duties assigned to him was as open and plain and visible to

him as to the agents of the company. There was nothing hidden or concealed, and no danger that required skill or experience for its detection. There was no apparent danger. While it is claimed now on the part of the plaintiff that the sides of the excavation should have been shored and protected or braced, yet it does not appear that any visible danger suggested such safeguards and protections at the time. Neither the defendant nor its agents were in possession of any information beyond that possessed by the deceased." [N. Y. Sp. C., 2d div., June, 1888.]

JOHNSON VS. P. & W. R. R. CO.

"*Held*, that an employé cannot recover against his employer for injuries caused by the negligence of a fellow-servant who was sick or overworked and fatigued, though this be known to the employer." [Penn. S. C., March, 1888.]

In the case of *Van Avery vs. Union Pacific R. R. Co.*, Judge Brewer stated that he would be governed by the ruling of the United States Supreme Court, which held:

"That an engineer employed on one train, and a brakeman employed on another were co-employés, because—they are employed and paid by the same master, the duties of the two bring them to work at the same place at the same time, so that the negligence of one in doing the work may injure the other in doing his work. Their separate services have an immediate common object—the moving of trains; neither works under the order or control of the other; each by entering into a contract of services takes the risk of the negligence of the other in performing his services." [U. S. Cir. C. Colo., May, 1888.]

SELL VS. CHARLES REITZ & BROS.' LUMBER CO.

Sell was an old man employed at odd jobs, mostly gardening and piling, or carrying slabs in the mill-yard. The day on which he was injured he had been at work in the garden, and after finishing, he went to the com-

pany's warehouse to ascertain from Frank Reitz, the superintendent, what next to work at, and while passing under an elevator, was struck by it and received serious injury therefrom.

He knew nothing of the danger from the elevator. He had not seen it before; it was a new piece of machinery, and it had not been in operation before the day upon which he received injury. One of the men running the elevator had never seen Sell before he was injured, although both had been in the company's employ a long time. The men running the elevator were under the control of one superintendent, Sell was under the control of another. In rendering the opinion of the court, the chief justice said:

"I hold, as a matter of law, that the plaintiff, at the time of the injury complained of, was a fellow-servant of those in charge of the elevator, and no recovery can be had or sustained at law on the ground of neglect of those in charge of the elevator."

Morse, J., dissented from the views taken by a majority of his associates, and gave his reasons for doing so in the following language:

"I cannot ascertain upon what theory the plaintiff was considered a fellow-servant of the men operating the elevator, except that he was such because he worked for and was paid by the same employer. This doctrine of fellow-servant has certainly been extended far enough by this court, but I do not understand that any case has gone so far as to declare that the mere fact of being employed by the same man makes the employ  s fellow-servants without any regard to the nature or extent of the employment. If A. is engaged in the business of selling dry goods in town, and has a farm a few miles out in the country, I hardly think the clerk in the store is a fellow-servant of the hired man on the farm, and yet the plaintiff had no more connection with the men running this elevator, as to his labor or employment, than has

the clerk in the case supposed with the farm laborer. [Mich., S. C., June, 1888].

In an action for damages against a railway company, because of the death of an engineer which was caused by the negligence of a switchman, who left a switch open:

"*Held*, that the engineer and switchman were co-employés." [Naylor *vs.* N. Y. Cent. R. R. Co., 33 F. 501].

In an action brought by the legal representative of an employé, who was killed by the breaking of a rope through an imperfection in it:

"*Held*, that if it was the duty of a fellow-servant to get a new rope, the employer was not liable." [Daley *vs.* B. & A. R. R. Co., Mass. 16 N. E. 690].

A telegraph wire extending over defendant's tracks broke by reason of coming into contact with a brakeman standing on a flat car of a moving train. The wire coiled around deceased, and caught by a brake-handle of the train, dragging deceased and inflicting injuries causing his death. The flat car was above average height, and this brakeman, as well as others, had passed under the wire many times, standing on cars. The breakage occurred by reason of the lowering of the wire, of which defendant had no notice:

"*Held*, that it was an unforeseen accident, for which defendant was not liable." [Wabash, St. L. & P. Ry. Co. *vs.* Locke, Ind., 14 N. E., 391].

"A railroad company is not responsible to its section or track-men for the negligence of the engineer or brakeman of a train, they being fellow-servants." [Connelly *vs.* Minneapolis E. Ry. Co., Minn., 35 N. W].

"Each person who enters the service of another, takes on himself all the ordinary risks of the employment in which he engages, and the negligent acts of his fellow-workmen in the general course of his employment are within the ordinary risks.

“To constitute fellow-servants, the employés need not be at the same time engaged in the same particular work. It is sufficient that they are in the employment of the same master, engaged in the same common work, and performing duties and services for the same general purpose. The rule is the same, although the one injured may be inferior in grade, and is subject to the direction and control of the superior, whose act caused the injury, provided they are co-operating to effect a common object.” [Lewis *vs.* Seifert, Pa., 11 Atl. R., 514].

From the foregoing decisions, it will be seen that the term “fellow-servants,” embraces nearly all persons in the employ of a corporation or company, who may be paid out of a common fund.

SECTION II.

THE LAW IN DIFFERENT STATES AND COUNTRIES.

The law of States and countries, where the rule of non-liability has been modified by legislation, is here given in order that it may be seen to what extent the rule yet prevails:

ENGLAND.

After the English people began to realize the effect of the new rule as laid down by their courts with regard to the liability of employer to employé for injuries that they might sustain, agitation began against this innovation on old established law. Writers in magazines and newspapers, orators and agitators united in condemning this new “judge-made” law.

The subject was finally introduced into Parliament. Large employers organized to defeat any measure that might be presented, which would abridge the operation of the new rule. However, the discussions became so important that at the session of 1875-6 a committee was appointed to inquire into the subject. This committee reported that they were unable to complete their work during that session, and recommended further investigation.

Another committee was appointed, and the final result of their work was the adoption, in September, 1880, of the "Employers' Liability Act." [43. and 44, Vic. C. 42].

This act contains ten sections. Sections one and two provide that common employment shall not be a defense 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 employé 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 three limits the sum recoverable as compensation.

Section four limits the time for recovery of compensation.

Section five makes any penalty received by any other act part payment.

Section six relates to the trial of actions.

Section seven provides for the service of a notice of any injury received.

Sections eight, nine and ten, 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.

In 1886 a parliamentary committee was appointed to ascertain the effects of the operation of the law. Many persons appeared before this committee at its hearings. The most important thing developed at these hearings was, that the liabilities which the law placed upon employers were found not to be as burdensome as anticipated, in fact, scarcely any complaint was made, and proposed amendments by which the law is to be rendered more effective, met with but little opposition.

FRANCE.

The law of France bearing upon this subject is contained in three sections of the civil code, which read as follows:

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.

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 children who live with them.

Masters and employers are responsible for any injury caused by their servants or employés in performing the duties in which they have been employed.

Under this law the courts of France have held that "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."

In describing the effects of this law the American consul at Marseilles, says:

"The law holds an employer responsible for the lives and safety of his employés, and his personal interests, if no higher motive, constrain him to impose no unnecessary risks. The solid, permanent, fire-proof buildings, floored and roofed with tiles, and provided with stone stairways, present no opportunity for sudden fires. The very scarcity of timber precludes inflammable buildings and makes life and property nearly secure from fire.

"Europeans shudder over the statistics of employés slaughtered annually on the railroads of the United States, and say that such a wholesale sacrifice of life and limb is barbarism. There is a great deal of truth in this. Over here, where labor is cheap and human life so abundant, all this is far better managed. The brakeman, for instance, instead of shivering on the roof of a freight car, or scrambling over the top of a train, at the peril of his life, to reach the 'caboose' at the rear, rides in a glazed, and often cushioned cab, or box, at the end of the car, where he manages his brake in comfort and safety. The apparatus by which railway cars are connected is a ponderous, complicated affair, very slow in operation and costly in construction, but it involves no such risk of crushed and mangled brakemen as prevails with the 'automatic couplings' in the New World.

"I once asked a German railway manager the cost of one of those brakemen's cabs which are universally used on the railways of western Europe. 'Well,' said he, 'about ten dollars; but how else would you do it?' He had probably never heard that in America, the freight car brakeman usually rides on the wheel of his brake, and makes long journeys, exposed to the weather, in positions where a slip or misstep may entail certain death. France pays her soldiers only a cent per day, but even here human life is not cheap enough to justify the use of the American freight car brake and 'automatic coupler.' "

GERMANY.

By the law of Prussia, owners of railroads, mines, quarries, pits and factories, are made liable, in certain cases, for the negligence of employés. The following is the substance of the law:

Article 1. 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 the default of the person killed or injured himself.

Article 2. 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 one and two, may not exclude or limit the application of the rules contained in the article 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.

In Germany, the law also makes the establishing of insurance associations, by employers, for the benefit of the employed, obligatory. The employés are compelled to pay a small per-centage of the weekly wages to the insurance fund. Employers are compelled to contribute to this fund, three times the amount contributed by employés. During sickness, or when an accident occurs, the employé receives a stated amount each week.

ITALY.

The law of Italy is contained in Article No. 1153, of the Italian code, which was modeled after the French code; the portions of it relating to the subject of employers' liability are almost literal translations from the French.

SWITZERLAND.

The factory law of Switzerland, which was enacted by the Federal Congress, in 1877, holds the employer liable for all damages received by the workman while in his employ, unless it can be shown that the injuries were received through the workman's own carelessness. The law is full and comprehensive. It contains twenty-one sections. The portions which relate to the liability of employers are contained in sections one and five, as follows:

Section one makes it obligatory upon the owners of manufactories and workshops to keep an official record of all injuries, and deaths from injuries, occurring in their establishments, and report the same to the local authorities, whose duty it will be to investigate the cause and report them to the cantonal authorities.

Section two provides that owners of factories shall be responsible for all damage by reason of injury or death met by their employés while engaged in their line of

duty, unless it can be proven that the injury or death resulted from the carelessness of the employé, or was occasioned by higher power.

CALIFORNIA.

1970. "An employer is not bound to indemnify his employé for losses suffered by the latter in consequence of the ordinary risks of the business in which he is employed, nor in consequence of the negligence of another person employed by the same employer, in the same general business, unless he has neglected to use ordinary care in the selection of the culpable employé."

1971. "An employer must, in all cases, indemnify his employé for losses caused by the former's want of ordinary care." [Civil code].

COLORADO.

Section 1030, of the Statutes of Colorado, would seem to give protection to employés, against the carelessness or negligence of fellow-workmen, when in the discharge of their duties.

It would also seem that employers would be held responsible for any damage resulting from such carelessness or negligence, yet our courts hold that employés are not within the pale of this provision of the law. The section reads as follows:

Section 1030. Whenever any person shall die from any injury resulting from, or occasioned by, the negligence, unskillfulness or criminal intent of any officer, agent, servant or employé, whilst running, conducting or managing any locomotive, car, or train of cars, or of any driver of any coach, or other public conveyance, whilst in charge of the same as a driver, and when any passenger shall die from an 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 stage coach, or other public conveyance, the corpo-

ration, individual or individuals in whose employ any such officer, agent, servant, employé, 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 such injury is received, and resulting from or occasioned by defect or insufficiency above described, shall forfeit and pay for every person and passenger so injured the sum of not exceeding five thousand [5,000] dollars, and not less than three thousand [3,000] dollars, which may be sued for and recovered.

In an action for damage brought against the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railway, under this section of the law, by the mother of an employé who was killed through the carelessness of a fellow-workman, the Supreme Court of this State held:

“That the words ‘any person,’ do not include servants of the same master injured by the negligence of a fellow-servant while acting in the common employment.” [6 Colo., 498].

GEORGIA.

Injury by co-employé. “If the person injured is himself an employé of the company, and the damage was caused by another employé, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to the recovery.” [Code of 1873].

IOWA.

“Every corporation operating a railway shall be liable for all damages sustained by any person, including employés of such corporation, in consequence of the neglect of agents, or by any mismanagement of the engineers or other employé of the corporation, and in consequence of the wilful wrongs, whether of commission or omission, of such agents, engineers or other employés, 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." [Revised code, 1880].

KANSAS.

"Every railroad company, organized or doing business in this State, shall be liable for all damages done to any employé of such company, in consequence of any negligence of its agents, or by any mismanagement of its engineers or other employés, to any person sustaining such damage." [Revised law, 1879].

MASSACHUSETTS.

The Massachusetts law is embraced in "An act to extend and regulate the liability of employers to make compensation for personal injuries suffered by employés in their service."

This law was passed in May, 1887, after many years of effort on the part of friends of the laboring classes, and is here given in its entirety because of its interest:

SECTION 1. Where, after the passage of this act, personal injury is caused to an employé, 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 charge or control

of any signal, switch, locomotive, engine or train, upon a railroad, the employé, or in case the injury results in death, the legal representatives of such employé, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the employé had not been an employé of, nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in its work.

SEC. 2. Where an employé 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 death of such employé dependent upon the wages of such employé 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.

SEC. 3. The amount of compensation receivable under this act, in case 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. 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.

SEC. 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 employés 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.

SEC. 5. An employé, 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 employé 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 superior to himself in the service of the employer, who had entrusted to him some general superintendence.

SEC. 6. Any employer who shall have contributed to an insurance fund created and maintained for the mutual purpose of indemnifying an employé 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 employé under this act, such proportion of the pecuniary benefit which has been received by such employé 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.

SEC. 7. This act shall not apply to injuries caused to domestic servants or farm laborers, by other fellow-

employés, and shall take effect on the first day of September, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven.

MISSOURI.

The law of Missouri provides as follows:

“Whensoever any person shall die from injury resulting from, or occasioned by the negligence, unskillfulness or criminal intent of any officer, agent, servant or employé, whilst running, conducting or managing any locomotive, car or train of cars; or of any master, pilot, engineer, agent or employé, 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 driver; * * * * for every person or passenger so dying, the sum of \$5,000, which may be sued for and recovered.”

It would seem that this law applies equally to employés as well as to non-employés, but the Missouri Court of Appeals has decided that the phrase “any person,” does not include a fellow-servant; therefore, employés do not receive any advantage from this law.

MISSISSIPPI.

“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.” [Revised Code, 1880].

RHODE ISLAND.

“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, 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." [Statutes of 1882 .

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 agent or servant 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." [Law of 1875].

SECTION III.

REASONS AND ARGUMENTS.

There are usually two reasons advanced in support of the law as it exists in States where it has not been modified by statute. The first is, that employes know the dangers of the employment, and consequently take the risks when they enter into it. The second reason is that wages are proportionately higher, according to the risks of the employment.

The question arises as to whether either of these arguments is based upon facts, or upon unsupported

theory. In the discussion of the first argument, Chas. G. Fall, Esq., says:

“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 the well known maxim, is presumed to know the law. But argument rests, not upon this presumption of law, nor upon the fact that a servant, if injured, can not under the law recover damages of his employer. It must rest, in order to have any force, upon another presumption, a presumption of facts—that the employé, at the time of entering into the contract of service, actually thinks of the question of damages, and actually decides to take his own risks. In order that this argument may have full force, it is necessary to presume that the employé at such a time actually stops to think of the question of liability for damages in case of injury; that he realized, 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 in 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 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 accident; but never quite expect that a similar fate will ever 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 employé? Does he stop to think that he may be injured, that he may be in need of compensation in damages, that he can not 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 the same persons, when entering into a contract of employment, stop to think that they do take their own risks? The argument that the employ  takes the risks of the employment with his eyes open seems to be open to exceptions."

The second argument, that wages are proportionately higher, according to the risks of employment, does not seem to be as well founded as the first. It is frequently stated, and accepted as a fact, that wages are regulated by the rule of supply and demand, as well as by the state of trade and the cost of living, and surely it can not be denied but that ability and experience, also, have something to do in deciding the rate of wages to be paid the laborer.

From the returns made to this office we find the average daily rates of wages paid to be as follows. A glance at the list here given will suffice to show that those engaged in some of the most hazardous occupations do not receive the highest pay:

Blacksmiths	\$ 3 10
Baggagemen, railway	1 95
Boiler-makers	3 25
Boiler-makers' helpers	2 50
Brakemen, railway	2 21
Brick-layers	5 00
Brick-makers	3 50
Carpenters	2 29
Clerks, railway	2 60
Conductors, freight	3 26
Conductors, passenger	3 55
Engineers, locomotive	4 08
Express messengers	2 50
Firemen, locomotive	2 40
Hod carriers	2 62
Machinists	3 04
Painters	2 45
Plasterers	3 75
Switchmen, railway	2 31
Tin-smiths	2 85

NOTE.—The daily wages of railway train men and messengers have been computed by reckoning thirty days to the month's service, and all in the table have been averaged from those paid to railway employ s, as far as possible.

In concluding this part of the report it may not be amiss to give the number of persons killed and injured by railway accidents in this State during the years 1884-5-6, as compiled from official returns:

KILLED.

	1884.	1885.	1886.	Total.
Employés	15	18	20	53
Others	26	21	15	62
Totals	41	39	35	115

INJURED.

	1884.	1885.	1886.	Total.
Employés	322	238	340	900
Others	66	81	44	191
Totals	388	319	384	1,091

An effort was made to ascertain the number killed and injured during the year 1887, but this office not receiving returns from all the railway companies, it was deemed best not to embody in this report the partial returns sent in.

In view of the frequent accidents that occur through carelessness, or negligence, in the various industries of the State, many of which accidents would be avoided were employers held accountable, no other conclusion can be reached by reasonable persons, than that the laboring classes seek but simple justice when they ask that the present rule of liability be changed by legislation, so that they may be relieved, if only, of a part of the burdens which the law now imposes upon them.

SECTION IV.

VIEWS OF EMPLOYERS.

In order to ascertain the views of employers on the question of liability, blanks were sent from this office to a number of employers in this State, containing the following question:

"In your opinion, should employers be responsible to employes for injuries sustained by them to the extent, and in the same manner, that they are to persons not employes?"

Of the replies received, sixty-six answered "yes," and thirty-four "no." Appended are some of the remarks of employers:

AFFIRMATIVE.

Arapahoe County, No. 1—Yes; provided injuries received by an employe were not due to his or her negligence or carelessness.

No. 4—If all due precaution is taken by the employes, yes.

No. 7—Yes; if the employes be injured in the discharge of their duties owing to neglect of employers in any manner.

No. 10—Yes; if injuries are through fault of employer.

No. 13—Yes; unless special agreement releasing the employer is made by the employer and employe.

No. 25—Not as to personal acts of co-employes, but the same as to anything for which employer is personally responsible. Employers should be responsible for acts of all they put in authority, but as to those not in authority, they should not be.

No. 36—The employer should be responsible for injuries sustained by employes only when caused by his negligence or by his fault.

No. 41—Most certainly, as they are trying to do the best they can for employer.

No. 47—We have had two accidents during the past year, we paid the men full wages during their sickness; also their doctor bills.

We find this the best, as accidents in our business are scarcely ever of a serious nature.

No. 49—If the injuries are not obtained through carelessness or negligence on the part of the employe, yes.

No. 61—Yes; unless caused by carelessness of the party injured.

No. 68—We think so, when employers' liability is clearly established.

Bent County, No. 170—Yes; when employers' neglect is the cause.

Boulder County, No. 181—Mine owners should be liable for damages for injuries resulting from defective machinery, timbering, ventilation, but not for carelessness or recklessness on part of employes. Dangerous practices should be prohibited. All mines should have two places of exit, so that in case of burning shaft-house, men could escape.

Chaffee County, No. 204—Yes; if injured through the negligence of employers. If through the carelessness of the employes, the employers should not be held responsible.

Clear Creek County, No. 196—If employers are negligent and indifferent to the health and life of other men, then they ought to suffer.

Fremont County, No. 313—Employers ought to share risks.

Garfield County, No. 331—To a certain extent.

Hinsdale County, No. 373—Employers should be responsible when it is the fault of bungling foremen, clap-trap gearing, or where houses or works are in the wake or range of snow-slides, and no protection is afforded.

No. 374—Certainly; we always do. Of course, when it is the result of persons' own culpable carelessness, there would be no responsibility in either case.

Huerfano County, No. 380—If caused by the employers' negligence or poor provisions. If by employes' carelessness or foolhardiness, no.

Lake County, No. 416—Employers should be responsible if caused by their carelessness or neglect.

No. 426—Have paid wages and kept situation open to miners injured in mine, although injuries resulted from their own carelessness. Small and unproductive mines cannot afford to be as generous as this one.

No. 246—Employers should be responsible to employe for injuries sustained when the same occurs by reason of carelessness on the part of the employer or his agents.

No. 427—Yes; when employes are not surrounded with sufficient protection.

Larimer County, No. 450—I do not see why they should not be responsible.

Pueblo County, No. 540—Yes; and just compensation awarded.

No. 541—Under certain circumstances, they should.

No. 542—I should think employers responsible to employes more than to strangers. I mean in a general way.

San Juan County, No. 604—If by reason of the negligence of mine owners and no contributory negligence of employe, yes.

San Miguel County, No. 617—Most certainly; when the injuries are sustained in executing in a rational manner orders given by the employers, or the cause of injury coming to the employe so occupied, from the acts of other employes executing orders in a rational manner.

NEGATIVE.

Arapahoe County, No. 6—No; we are not responsible for injury to any person, whether employes or not, unless the injury is caused direct by us.

No. 11. No; when employers use all reasonable means in keeping their furnaces, machinery, etc., in good repair, suitable for the purposes for which they are used. Any employe has sufficient notice of such liability to accident or injury as is inherent therein, so soon as he accepts work therein, and employers should not be held responsible for injuries occurring under such circumstances.

No. 12—No; because hazardous business will always command high price, which is one reason why one who undertakes and engages to perform this kind of work is daily receiving his pay for assuming the liability. As accident is, in most instances, the result of carelessness, the liability should in all cases fall upon the neglectful and careless person.

No. 17—No; don't think they should. But, should it be known by the employer that certain things were traps, and then were not caused to be fixed, he ought to be responsible, in my mind.

No. 21—No; every man for himself.

No. 24—No; employes being at work are cognizant of the danger around them as well as employers. They are careless enough, and employers being responsible makes them doubly careless.

No. 35—Commissioners should have power to determine the question involved.

No. 40—No one should be held responsible for the carelessness of employes. If a man is employed at hazardous work, he is paid for the risk by increase of wages, the same as insurance is increased according to the hazard of the risk.

No. 45—No; because when a person accepts a situation for a specific work, he assumes the risk incident to such labor.

Boulder County, No. 182—Employers should not be held responsible for accidents in mining, as all in mines arise from carelessness or negligence of miners and not employers.

Chaffee County, No. 205—No; extra wages paid for hazardous service. The miner knows the work and takes it for an agreed consideration.

Clear Creek County, No. 190—No employer should pay for injuries caused by the carelessness of the man himself.

No. 194—No; because most employers in engaging men to work about machinery, caution them to be very careful. Nearly all of the accidents which have come under my observation have been through carelessness of employes.

No. 195—If through negligence of the company, the company should be held responsible, but if through the carelessness of his own or a fellow-workman he is hurt, the company should not be responsible.

No. 196—If employes are careless and ignorant of their business, they ought to suffer.

No. 197—No; that would be making the employer responsible for his employes' carelessness and ignorance, which would not be right. Let the employe have his wits about him as he should have, and labor intelligently and carefully, for it surely goes without saying, that the intelligent workman is careful, and, if careful, is usually better at his labor or trade, than he who is not.

No. 198—Mining being at all times hazardous, men must take the risk, the company, of course, using all precautions on their part to keep everything in good and safe condition.

Delta County, No. 211—If I hire a man by the day and pay him for his work, that ends business between me and him.

El Paso County, No. 292—Do not think so.

No. 298—Every man employed in a place where an injury is likely to occur, should be compelled to take out accident insurance and hold the employer free from responsibility, providing an accident does not occur through the employer's fault.

Hinsdale County, No. 373—If men go into dangers and cause injury to themselves, employers should not be held responsible.

Huerfano County, No. 383—They should not, for the reason that the employes are not compelled to work if they do not wish to.

Jefferson County, No. 390—Not unless caused by the willful neglect or carelessness of employer.

Las Animas County, No. 472—Employes should take care of themselves unless there is a contract otherwise.

San Jan County, No. 602—No; every man knows of the dangers incident to his occupation, and when he chooses the occupation he assumes the risks. It is the duty of employer and employe to use precaution to avoid accidents, and if the employer is negligent in his duties, it is the employes' privilege to call for their time.

No. 603—No; excepting through neglect of the employer to provide proper safeguards.

PART VI.

Employers' Returns.

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Employers' Returns.

The blanks returned from employers at ore mines, coal mines and from employers generally, were not of such a character as to warrant their being presented in this report in tabulated form.

This line of investigation was virtually abandoned, for reasons already advanced in the first part of this report. But, in order that the public generally might understand the manner in which the information sought for was to be used, such facts and figures as appeared, on very close examination, to approach correctness, were compiled and are embodied herein.

SECTION I.

ORE MINES AND SMELTERS.

Early in December, in 1887, circular letters of inquiry were sent to all the owners, superintendents or managers of mines, mills and smelting works in the State. The object of the questions asked was to learn the number of people engaged in mining, and treatment of ore; the wages paid in the different departments of labor; the number of hours constituting a day's work in each department; the effect of a reduc-

tion of the number of hours constituting a day's labor; the frequency of payment of workmen; the increase or decrease in the rate of wages during the year; the opinions of employers concerning the best method of adjusting differences between employer and employé; and the extent to which employers should be responsible to employés for injuries sustained by the latter while in the performance of their duties.

In addition to these questions, others were included in the circular, having for their object the elicitation of information which, it was thought, would be of value to all who are interested in mining, or who may desire to become interested in that department of industry. These questions were concerning the amount of capital employed in mining and ore treatment; the number of tons of ore mined during the year; the number of tons smelted; the number of tons milled; the number of tons concentrated, and the contents per ton of each class; the cost per cubic yard, or foot of shafting, drifting and stoping; the cost per ton of hoisting; the amount, kinds and cost of fuel used; the number of tons, and value of ore produced in other States and treated in Colorado, and the ounces and pounds of gold, silver, lead and copper produced in the State.

The circular letter stated that:

"The mining and smelting of gold, silver and lead ores being the most important of our industries, it is the desire of the Commissioner that the *data* concerning the same, which will form a part of his next report, shall be as reliable as possible. To that end the hearty co-operation of all who may be engaged in these industries is essential.

"Lest there should be any apprehension on your part that answering the questions in this blank may be prejudicial to the interests of your firm or company, it is distinctly understood that the bureau will preserve the

strictest confidence with all correspondents and informants."

Out of a total number of six hundred and fifty mines, which produced value during the year, replies were received from thirty-eight, or about five per cent. of the whole. Of the fifteen smelting works which were in blast a portion, or the whole of the year, replies were received from six, or forty per cent. of the whole. Of the hundred or more mills, of various kinds, in the State, replies were received from but two sampling mills, three concentrating mills, conducted in connection with mines, and one stamp mill.

Some of the replies were evasive, and many of them were so incomplete that it would be useless and misleading to attempt to base any conclusions upon the *data* supplied.

All that can be done with justice towards this department of industry, is to give a synopsis of the replies received.

Twenty-eight mines or companies reported a total of 1457 men employed, and the six smelting companies reported 1180 employés. Eighteen mining companies reported their capital stock, while only two reported the actual amount of capital employed. There is a great difference in the two items; the capitalization of a company usually being several thousand times greater than the actual capital employed. There appears to have been a general misunderstanding regarding the meaning of this question, but there is no good reason why there should have been. The words "amount of capital employed," can mean nothing more nor less than the amount of money invested in the business. It would be information of great value in an effort to determine the profitable or unprofitable character of the business of mining, if this could be obtained. Five of the six

smelting companies reported \$2,950,000 as the amount of capital they employed.

Reports from thirty mines gave the total number of tons produced as 229,918, and twenty-seven gave the average value per ton. The highest value reported was \$1,020, but the mine which produced it yielded only 4 tons. The lowest average value was \$5.50. The average value per ton of the product of four mines was less than \$10; four gave a value between \$10 and \$25; four between \$25 and \$50; seven between \$50 and \$100; and eight over \$100. One which produced over a quarter of a million dollars reported an average value of over \$300 per ton. The cost of shafting, drifting or stoping was reported from ten mines. Some gave the cost per cubic yard, as requested, and others gave the cost per linear foot or fathom, without giving additional information from which the cost per cubic yard could be calculated. The highest cost per cubic yard of shafting was \$15, and the lowest \$2.50; the highest cost per cubic yard of drifting was \$4.00, and the lowest \$1.25; the highest cost for stoping was \$8.00, and the lowest fifty cents. Most of those reporting stated that their accounts were not kept in such a way that the cost of different portions of their work could be determined.

The utmost confusion exists in the thirty-one answers received concerning the character of ore produced. Some reported iron, some pyrites, some sulphide or carbonate or oxidized ore, without saying what kind of sulphide, carbonate or oxidized ore it was. There were only three answers to this question which were definite enough to give accurate information regarding the character of ore produced.

Four of the smelting companies gave the number of tons of ore treated, both from Colorado mines and from

mines outside of the State. They also gave the number of ounces of silver and gold and pounds of lead and copper produced. Partial reports concerning the quantity of bullion contained in the ore produced were received from only seven mines.

Reports of the number of hours constituting a day's labor were received from twenty-nine mines and four smelting companies. Two reported eight hours only as a day's labor, while five others reported eight hours as a day's work in some portions of the mine, or mill, or smelting establishment. In wet places in mines, and in very heavy labor in the other establishments, eight hours usually constitute a day's labor. In ordinary work ten hours constitute a day, and in fifteen mines ten hour "shifts" only are employed. Engineers and foremen usually work twelve hours.

The wages paid are given as follows:

	Highest.	Lowest.
Miners	\$ 4 00	\$ 2 50
Foremen	6 00	4 00
Timbermen	5 00	3 50
Carpenters	4 00	3 00
Pumpmen	5 00	4 00
Engineers	5 00	4 00
Firemen	3 50	2 00
Blacksmiths	5 00	3 50
Ore-sorters	3 00	1 70
Laborers	2 50	1 50

To the question, "Would a reduction of the number of hours constituting a day's work injure your business?" thirty answered "yes," and seven "no," while only twenty-four gave reasons. All who answered "no," based their opinions upon the supposition that the price

of labor would be reduced in the same proportion that the hours were reduced. Of those who answered "yes," and gave their reasons, one said he "would get less work for the money." Seven gave answer "that it would increase expenses by requiring more clerical help." To the question, "If your firm or company do not pay employés weekly, would it be any injury to do so?" eleven replied that weekly payments would be an injury to the workmen, while others answered that monthly payments are the custom of the district, that the men are satisfied with them, or that the mines are so situated above timber line that it is inconvenient to visit them oftener than once a month to pay the men.

The following are typical answers to this question:

"Many men go on a spree when paid, and would lose more time, and there would be much more work in making pay-rolls and paying. The best men do not care to be paid oftener."

"Too much time occupied in the city visiting friends."

"They would get drunk oftener."

"It would make pay days too frequent, and increase whisky drinking, and interrupt work four times per month instead of once."

"A vote taken among employés gave monthly instead of weekly."

It was noticeable that the companies giving the whisky drinking habits of the men as the reason for not paying oftener than once a month, are those which employ a large number of men, where it is not so practicable to discriminate in the character of those employed as it is where but few men are worked.

The reports of the days when payments are made are as follows: Twenty-five the first of the month; one the

first Saturday in each month; five on the fifth; two on the tenth; one on the fifteenth; one on the seventeenth, and one semi-monthly.

Eight were in favor of a settlement of difficulties between employers and employés, by arbitration, and six were opposed to arbitration. Four favored a fair discussion between the interested parties.

To the question, "In your opinion, should employers be responsible to employés for injuries sustained by them, to the same extent and in the same manner that they are to persons not employés?" Seventeen answered "yes," and six answered "no." Nearly all who answered "yes," emphasized the reply by stating that employers should clearly be responsible if the cause of injury is the fault of the mine owner or foreman. Most who answered "no," gave as a reason, that mining is an extra hazardous occupation, and the men are paid extra wages to compensate for the extra risk.

It may be that the few replies received are a fair representation of what they would have been had they been received from every mine manager or owner, smelting establishment or mill in the State. But the fact that they are so few makes it impossible to draw any conclusions from them that will surely represent the facts in relation to the mining industry, or the opinions of those engaged in it. The same difficulty in getting answers to replies sent to men engaged in different departments of mining labor was experienced by officers of the United States Census Bureau in 1880, and the officers of the State Census in 1885, as well as the Mint Bureau each year.

To obtain all the desired information relating to this industry it will be necessary for an officer of the bureau to visit each mining camp and town in the State, and to personally solicit the information from those alone who

can give it. Intelligent and prominent mine owners state that if men who have the confidence of the mining community were to personally solicit this information, giving the assurance that it would be kept confidential, it could be obtained; and when once it was tabulated and published, it would be found so exceedingly valuable that all would, in the future, feel it to be to their interest to give the facts requested without personal solicitation.

Such facts as those sought have never yet been collected and published in relation to mining and ore treatment in any State or country in the world, though all who appreciate the importance of statistics know that they would be almost invaluable in forming conclusions regarding this industry, about which there is so much misrepresentation.

SECTION II.

COAL MINE OPERATORS.

In the latter part of 1887, blank forms were mailed to all the coal mine operators in the State, of which there were thirty-five at that time. Of these only eight made returns to this office, notably large operators, the smaller ones ignoring the matter almost entirely. The eight returned fourteen blanks.

As it may be of interest to know the contents of the form drawn up and forwarded to operators, it is reproduced here. Examination of it will convince every one that no information is sought for, the imparting of which could in any way compromise operators or managers:

TO THE COAL OPERATORS OF THE STATE.

Gentlemen—By the law establishing the Bureau of Labor Statistics, a copy of which is herewith transmitted, you will perceive that the duties of the Commissioner are to “collect, systematize, and present in biennial reports to the Legislature, statistical details relating to the several industries of the State.”

The mining of coal being one of the most important of our industries, it is the desire of the Commissioner that the *data* concerning the same, which will form a part of his next report, shall be as reliable as possible. To that end, the hearty co-operation of all who may be engaged in this industry is essential.

You will, therefore, please fill the accompanying blank as fully as possible, and return the same to this office by January 15, 1888, thereby aiding the Commissioner in the manner contemplated by the law, as well as rendering valuable service to the State.

Lest there should be any apprehension on your part, that answering the questions contained in this blank may be prejudicial to the interests of your firm or company, it is distinctly understood that the bureau will preserve the strictest confidence with all correspondents and informants.

The information and *data* collected by the investigations of this department will be classified and grouped in totals, and names of persons or establishments will not be made public, except by their special permission.

Yours respectfully,

JAMES RICE, *Secretary of State,*
Commissioner ex-officio.

C. J. DRISCOLL,
Deputy Commissioner.

NOTE.—If you are unable to answer all, answer THOSE QUESTIONS YOU CAN. No answers will be lost, but all will be used in considering the questions to which they apply.

If you can not, or DO NOT WISH TO ANSWER any of THESE QUESTIONS, please RETURN THIS CIRCULAR, so that we may know that you can not, or do not wish to reply.

Extended answers to any question are solicited and may be written upon the page headed REMARKS, or upon extra sheets if necessary.

1. Name of mine
2. Name of operator
3. Location of mine
4. Number of days in operation during the year ending 1887
5. Average number of employes for year ending 1887
6. Number of employes at date of making this return
7. Please give average weekly wages, etc., of the different trades and callings of labor at which persons are employed in and about your mine, as named below:

Number of each class employed.	EMPLOYES.	Average weekly wages when fully employed.	Hours of labor weekly when fully employed.
.....	Mining boss
.....	Miners
.....	Inside day laborers
.....	Outside day laborers
.....	Mule drivers
.....	Engineers
.....	Blacksmiths
.....	Carpenters
.....	Weigh-masters
.....	Dumpers
.....	Boys
.....	
.....	

8. Has the price of labor advanced or decreased the present year?
State what per cent.
9. State the amount of capital invested in operating this mine.
.....
10. Capacity of mine in tons
11. Product of the mine in tons for the year ending January 1, 1887
12. Value of the gross product at the mine for the same year
13. State price per ton you pay for mining: summer
winter

14. Give date of any advance in wages, per ton, or day, made
from December 31, 1887
How much was the advance?

REMARKS:
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The returns sent back were from two mines in Boulder county; two in Fremont county; one in Garfield county; two in Gunnison county; four in Huerfano county; one in La Plata county; one in Las Animas county, and one in Weld county. It will be observed that only in two instances did the fourteen who returned the forms to this office, answer any one question, collectively.

To question No. 4, only six sent answer. The highest number of days operated in the year was 310, and the lowest 20.

In giving the average number of employés for the year, seven only, replied; the figures ranging from two to two hundred, while the number of employés at a given date in the mines runs from one to two hundred and seventy-eight, each of the fourteen operators replying.

The question relative to average weekly wages drew replies as follows:

Mining boss, in eleven mines, from \$19.50 to \$25.00; miners in thirteen mines, \$15.00 to \$21.00; inside day laborers, in twelve mines, \$10.50 to \$19.25; outside day laborers, in thirteen mines, \$10.50 to \$15.75; mule-drivers, in twelve mines, \$12.00 to \$18.00; engineers, at eleven mines, \$17.25 to \$22.50; blacksmiths, at eleven mines, \$13.50 to \$21.00; carpenters at ten mines, \$16.50 to \$18.00; weigh-masters, at twelve mines, \$10.00 to \$25.00; dumpers, at eleven mines, \$12.00 to \$18.00; boys, in nine mines, \$5.25 to \$9.30.

Other wages paid to employes not named in the blanks, were returned as follows: Check-weighman in one mine, \$18.00; brakeman in one mine, \$19.50; car-loader in one mine, \$15.00; cook in one mine, \$16.85; fire-boss in one mine, \$21.00; firemen in three mines, \$15.00 to \$16.50; trackman in one mine, \$18.60; and trimmer in one mine, \$15.00.

How many other mines employ workingmen of these latter classes, or what wages they are paid, can not be stated in the absence of information.

In regard to the number of hours men are employed in the mines at work, twelve operators stated the time, from which it appears the hours range between fifty-four and sixty per week.

Only six responded to the question asking how much capital was invested in their respective mines. These answers ran from \$1,000 to \$150,000.

Fourteen replies were received in answer to question No. 10, relating to capacity of mines, in tons, and the range shown was from five to one thousand two hundred per day. As to annual product, thirteen answered, the figures running from one thousand three hundred and fifty-nine to three hundred and four thousand six hundred and forty-two tons. Six returned the value of the gross annual product, in figures, ranging between \$1,000 and \$100,140.

In regard to the price per ton for mining paid, respectively in summer and winter, eleven replies showed there was no great difference. A uniform rate of 50 cents was paid in one mine; 75 cents in four mines; 92 cents in one mine; \$1.00 in one mine; \$1.12½ in one mine, and as high as \$1.25 in one mine. In only three mines was a difference in the price of summer and winter labor reported. In one mine the summer rate was 85

cents, and the winter rate \$1.00; in another they were respectively 90 cents and \$1.15; and, in a third, 90 cents and \$1.10.

In response to question No. 14, concerning advance in wages per ton or day, etc., nine operators replied in the negative, while one gave the figure at ten per cent., and another at 15 cents. The remaining three of the fourteen did not answer.

It will be observed from these returns of employers, that but one check-weighman is reported as being employed, although, judging from remarks made by miners, which will be found under the section devoted to employes' views, it would seem that a check-weighman should be a necessary adjunct to every coal mine of any dimensions.

SECTION III.

EMPLOYERS IN GENERAL.

In order that generally interesting and useful information relative to employers, their capital, products and other matters, embracing among them the number of employes working in establishments, wages paid, hours of labor, etc., could be obtained, blank forms, containing appropriate questions, were circulated in the State by this bureau.

Of the number of forms thus sent out, two hundred and twenty-six were returned, or about one-fifth. These documents afford some information, from which subjoined facts and figures are taken. In this case, as in

others wherein inquiry has been made in a similar manner, persons to whom these forms were mailed were careless about filling them with answers.

In only two instances were responses made to all the propositions.

One hundred and seventy-three gave the amount of capital employed; ninety-four, the value of raw material used for the year; seventy-six, wages for the year; eighty-seven, product for the year, and one hundred and eighty-six, the number of their employés.

But forty-four answered, fully, the questions relating to capital employed, value of raw material, wages paid, other expenses incurred, and value of products.

The totals of these items in the forty-four blanks are as follows:

Amount of capital employed	\$ 1,145,643 17
Value of raw materials used for the year . . .	\$ 588,001 86
Wages paid for the year	436,078 29
Other expenses for the year	235,665 37—1,259,745 52
Value of product for the year	1,520,888 64

The total value of the raw materials, wages and other expenses as shown is \$1,259,745.52. Deduct this amount from that of the total product and a net profit of \$261,143.12 is given, or very nearly twenty-three per cent. on the capital employed.

The total number of employés, given by one hundred and sixty-eight respondents, was 2,510.

Two hundred and five answered the question as to how many hours constituted a day's work in their respective establishments. The time given ranged between eight and fourteen hours.

Only one hundred and seventy answered the interrogatory as to whether a reduction in the hours of working would injure business. Of these, one hundred and sixteen answered "Yes," and fifty-four "No."

The question, "At what periods are wages paid?" was answered by one hundred and ninety-three employers, and showed that in one hundred and fifty-five establishments salaries were paid weekly, and in thirty-eight others, monthly. In reply to the question as to whether weekly payments would or would not work disadvantage to firms, twenty-seven replied in the affirmative, and seventy in the negative; only ninety-seven persons making rejoinder.

Other questions in the form referring to the employment of women and child workers, wages paid the same, wages paid in each class, grade or occupation, nature of such occupation, etc., were so scantily and imperfectly responded to, as to be valueless for production in this report.

PART VII.

Wage-Workers.

PART VII.

Wage-Workers.

SECTION I.

EMPLOYÉS' RETURNS.

Among the first things undertaken by this bureau was the preparation of a blank form for distribution among individual employés. When completed it contained thirty-one questions, each being essential to the obtaining of information valuable in compiling one of the most interesting portions of this document.

Among these questions were those relating to nativity, citizenship, social condition, occupation, by whom, when and where employed; hours of work daily, number of days of work each week, earnings, cost of living, ownership or otherwise of a home; cost and value of same, rent paid, membership in organization, if any; bank savings, insurance, earnings of wife and children, prices paid this year for household commodities, such as flour, grain, tea, coffee, cheese, butter, eggs, potatoes, sugar, molasses, soap, starch, meats, fresh, salted and smoked; coal, and some kinds of dry goods in common requisition.

Another part in the blank invited wage-workers to express views on various topics of interest to them and their fellow-workmen. These remarks will be found

either among the particular subjects to which they relate, or in the section devoted to wage-workers' views, generally.

In tables numbers IX and X, which are given herewith, are found answers to questions alluded to.

It has been already shown, in the first part of this report, that a great deal of difficulty was experienced in obtaining information for the respective departments of inquiry, by this bureau, owing, undoubtedly, mainly to the natural disinclination of persons to communicate, what they consider to be private matter, to every one asking for it, and the ignorance of the purpose for which it was to be used when obtained, this being the first report of the kind compiled in this State.

Again, it must be borne in mind that, in the mining districts, and other parts of the State outside of the larger cities, where extensive works are often in progress, a large proportion of the toilers are foreigners, some having been in the State quite a time, while others are of only recent arrival. Many of these know nothing of the English language, while those who may have acquired knowledge of it, just enough to enable them to express what they wish to say in every-day phrases of speech, have not arrived at that intelligent condition which would enable them to comprehend, intelligently, the meaning of such inquiries as might be made among them. Nevertheless, blank forms were sent for distribution, it being the wish of the officers of this bureau to obtain as many answers as possible, even from the more improbable sources.

All these difficulties being considered, it must not be wondered at that but few blanks, comparatively, of the number sent out, were returned with information. Those which were received were evidently from the most intelligent of the toilers. This is exhibited in the

character of the views expressed on various topics, and which are given in their respective places.

In order that the readers may, without undue trouble, the more readily comprehend the contents of the following table, an analysis has been prepared, which contains a synopsized explanation of it.

A large percentage of persons to whom blanks were sent, returned replies, either in whole or in part, on the forms distributed. Those which were considered most worthy of being tabulated, numbered one hundred and thirty-eight. Of these, eighty-four were married men. The answers came in from five clerks, four painters, three harness-makers, seventeen laborers, one brick-moulder, three teamsters, one agent, nine stationary engineers, one butcher, one cracker-baker, one wire-man, one broom-maker, two shoemakers, fifty miners, two mine-managers, one jack-of-all-trades, two blacksmiths, five carpenters, two printers, one mason, one boiler-maker, one furnace man, six railroad employés, four machinists, one watchman, five farmers, one tailor, two stone-cutters, one car-repairer, two plasterers, one steel-worker, and one foundry employé.

The wage questions were answered evidently according to the understanding each man had of their meaning, though simple and calling for but one kind of reply, and that a direct one. Some failed to name the rate at which they were paid per day, some gave the rate per week, some the monthly scale, some named all three, while others failed to answer either. Where discrepancies appear as between the rates named and the amounts of total earnings returned for the year, in some instances, reference to the lost time column will explain them, while in others, the apparent inaccuracies may be accounted for by the failure of the person making out the return to insert further information, for reasons of his

own. In fact, this applies to other apparent discrepancies in the table, the figures presented being as sent in.

The wage rate per day ranged from \$6.00 down to 75 cents. Of the number who furnished rates, three only received \$6.00; four, \$5.00; two, \$4.50; twelve, \$4.00; twenty-two, \$3.50; eighteen, \$3.00; and ten, \$2.50; the remainder scattering down to 75 cents, one man only, however, returning that figure.

From the column giving the monthly scale, it seems that the highest wages paid is \$165.00, and the lowest is \$21.00. Of those receiving over \$150.00, there is but one; from \$100.00 to \$150.00, fourteen; between \$80.00 and \$100.00, nineteen; between \$50.00 and \$80.00, twenty-five; below \$50.00, six.

Only sixty-nine gave the total earnings for the year, which range from \$2,000.00 down to \$125.00. These show that two earned sums from \$2,000.00 to \$1,500.00; three, \$1,500.00 to \$1,200.00; nine, \$1,200.00 to \$1,000.00; eight, \$1,000.00 to \$800.00; twenty-four, \$800.00 to \$500.00; twenty-one, \$500.00 to \$200.00, and below \$200.00, two.

In seventy-two instances, "lost time," from various causes, was sent in, and the number of days ranges between two and two hundred and seventy-five. The principal cause given was inability to obtain work, this being especially the case in the mountain or mining regions, and probably frequently occasioned by the overcrowded condition of the labor market, owing to the causes assigned by the workers.

In only nine cases are amounts earned by wives given, and in only one instance those by children, for the year. In the former, the sums ranged between \$30.00 and \$400.00, and in the latter the amount was \$96.00.

As to periods of payment of wages, from the ninety-seven answers sent in, it appears that one establishment paid quarterly; seventy-two, monthly; three, bi-weekly, and twenty-one, weekly. In reply to the question, "Would weekly payments help?" ninety-three replied, fifty-two in the affirmative and forty-one in the negative.

One hundred and forty answered the questions as to membership in labor, benefit or insurance organizations. From this it appeared that eighty-three belonged to labor organizations, thirty-three to benefit associations, and twenty-four carried insurance. An examination of these figures showed that there were seventeen who belonged to both labor and benefit associations, eight to both labor and insurance associations, nine to labor, benefit and insurance associations, and two to benefit and insurance associations.

As to the questions regarding savings, one hundred and sixteen replied for 1887, fifty-four in the affirmative and sixty-two in the negative. For the present year, one hundred and eleven replied, of whom forty-three said they were saving money, while sixty-eight answered "no." The bank account inquiry was replied to by one hundred and twenty-one persons, twenty-six of whom said they were depositors, and ninety-five stating the opposite.

The following is the table:

TABLE No. IX.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF EMPLOYEES

	Married or single.	OCCUPATION.	Hours em- ployed daily.	Days per week	WAGES.			Actual earn- ings for year.	LOSS OF TIME, DAYS.			EARNINGS		No. you sup- port.
					Day.	Week.	Month		Sick	No Work	Total	Wife	Child- ren.	
1	Single	Clerk	9½	6	\$	\$ 15 00	\$	\$ 575 00		25	25	\$		
2	Married	Painter	8	5½	3 00	18 00	74 00							3
3	Single	Harness-maker	10	6	2 50	15 00			30	25	55			
4	Single	Laborer	9			10 50								
5	Single	Laborer	8		2 00									
6	Single	Harness-maker	10	6	2 50	15 00								
7	Single	Brick-moulder.	7½	6	3 50	21 00	89 00	470 00		150	150			
8	Single	Teamster	10	6	2 00									
9	Single	Laborer	10	6	1 75									
10	Single	Agent	6			8 00								
11	Married	Engineer, stationary	10	3½	2 00	7 00	30 00							5
12	Single	Butcher	15	6½		45 00	400 00		70	20	90			
13	Married	Cracker baker	10	7		30 00								1
14	Single	Wireman	8	6	1 25	8 75	35 00		14	46	60			
15	Single	Broom-maker	10	6	2 00	12 00	50 00		3	23	26			
16	Married	Shoe-maker				12 00								3
23	Single	Miner	9	7	3 00	21 00	98 00							
29	Married	Teamster	8	7		35 00								5
49	Married	Shoe-maker	12	6	2 00				60		60			2
50	Single	Miner	9	6	3 00			700 00	1	64	65			
51	Married	Miner	9	6	3 00	18 00	78 00							2
52	Married	Laborer			2 50									2
53	Married	Miner	8½	6				140 00	2	1	3			5
114	Married	Mine manager					100 00					200		2
115	Single	Miner	10	7	3 50				4		4			2
116	Married	Jack of all trades			7 00	42 00	165 00							4
117	Single	Blacksmith	10	6	2 50	15 00			15	15	30			
154	Single	Miner	10	7	2 00	14 00	60 00	350 00	30	120	150			2
155	Single	Miner	10	4	2 75									
156	Single	Carpenter	10	6	4 00	24 00	96 00			150	150			
157	Single	Clerk	12	7		80 00								2
158	Single	Miner	8	6	5 00					150	150			
159	Married	Printer	15	6		25 00		1,150 00	7	53	60			4
160	Single	Mason			5 00			600 00		150	150			3
161	Single	Laborer	10	6		10 00	40 00			185	185			3
168	Married	Miner	10	6	2 50	15 00	60 00	600 00	14	31	45			3
169	Married	Miner	9	6	2 50		65 00	680 00		55	55		96	5
170	Married	Boiler-maker	10	6	3 25		81 00							5
171	Single	Miner	8	7	2 75	19 25	82 50							
186	Married	Furnace-man	12	7	3 00	21 00	90 00	726 00	40	65	105	60		6
187	Single	Railroad-man	10	7			99 50	1,194 00						
188	Married	Engineer, stationary	10	6			80 00	960 00						3
189	Married	Miner	10	3½	3 50			400 00						1
190	Married	Machinist	11	7	3 50	21 00						75		3
191	Single	Machinist	10	6				866 00						
192	Single	Miner	10		3 00									
193	Single	Miner	10		3 00			300 00						
194	Single	Miner	10		3 50									
204	Married	Watchman	12	7	2 50	12 50	50 00	600 00						3
205	Single	Miner	14	7	3 50									
225	Married	Miner	10	6	2 00									2
248	Married	Miner	16	7	4 00	28 00		800 00	2	93	95			4
249	Single	Miner	10	7	3 25	15 00		300 00		140	140			
250	Single	Ranchman	16	7				200 00		65	65			2
236	Married	Miner	10	6	3 00	18 00	78 00	546 00		147	147			7
237	Single	Miner	8	7	3 00	21 00	84 00			35	35			
238	Single	Blacksmith	10	6			90 00		10	15	25			
239	Single	Engineer, stationary	10	7	4 00	28 00	120 00	1,440 00						
240	Single	Miner	10	7	3 00	21 00	90 00	540 00	180		180			
241	Single	Tailor	10		3 50	21 00	84 00	1,000 00		300	300			
242	Single	Clerk	12	6				2,000 00						
243	Married	Machinist	10	7	4 50			1,300 00	4	24	28			3
244	Married	Engineer, stationary	12	7	4 00	28 00	120 00							2
245	Single	Engineer, stationary	8	7	4 00	28 00	120 00							
259	Married	Laborer	10	6	2 25			500 00		90	90			2
260	Married	Stone-cutter	10	6	3 00	18 00	75 00	1,000 00	21	6	27	200		7
261	Single	Farmer	12	7	75		21 00							6
262	Married	Farmer												
263	Single	Stone-cutter	10	6		25 00		1,100 00		15	15			
264	Married	Carpenter	10	6	3 00	18 00	78 00	800 00				150		2
265	Single	Painter	8	6					42	18	60			
266	Married	Laborer	10	4			30 00	270 00	90		90	125		8
276	Single	Miner	10	6	3 00					100	100			
277	Married	Miner	10	6	3 00	18 00	75 00							4
278	Single	Miner	10		1 50			367 00	61	43	104			

TABLE No. IX.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF EMPLOYEES.

No. in your family.	HOME CONDITIONS.						Wages paid, when.	Would weekly payments help?	Are You a Member of any Association			Have you bank acct?	Have you accumul't'd		Run in del past year	
	Cost of living.	Own a home	Its value	Mort-gag'd	Rate of Int	No. rms	Rent per mon.		Lab'r	Benefit	Ins.		In past year	Present year		Am
...	\$ 400	No.	\$.	\$.		1	\$ 6 00	Weekly	No.	Yes	No.	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	\$
4		No.				1	5 00	Weekly	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	25
		No.				1	6 00	Weekly	Yes	No.	No.	Yes	No	Yes	No	
		No.				7	20 00	Weekly	Yes		No.	No				
	280	Yes	1,600	550	8%	1	10 00	Weekly	Yes	No.	No.	No	Yes	Yes	No	
		No.				1	4 00	Weekly	Yes	No.	No.	No	No	No	No	
6		No.				4	10 50	Weekly	Yes	No.	No.	No	No	No	No	
2	480	Yes	2,000	No.		1	6 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	No.	No	Yes	No	Yes	80
		No.						Mon 'ly	No.	Yes	No	No.	Yes	Yes	No	
4		No.				2	10 00	Weekly	Yes	Yes	No.	No	No	No	No	
6		Yes	350	No.		1	10 00	Mon 'ly	No.	No.	No.	No	No	No	Yes	45
2		No.				4	8 00	Biw kly	No.	Yes	No.	No	No	No	No	
								Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	No.	No	No	No	Yes	
2	364	No.				3	10 00		Yes	No.	No.	No	Yes	Yes	No	90
2		Yes	500	No.					Yes	No.	Yes	No	No	No	No	
5		Yes	200	No.				Weekly	Yes	No.	No.	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	99
2	700	No.						Mon 'ly	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	
2		No.							No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	
4		Yes	50					Mon 'ly	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	10
2	520	No.				3	15 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	275
		No.					10 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
2		No.							No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	
4	250	No.				1	2 00	Quar 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
4	1,000	No.					15 00	Weekly	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	
		No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
4	250	No.					10 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	
4	600	No.				3	5 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	75
6		Yes	200	No.				Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
6		Yes	400					Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes		No	No	No	No	
6	350	No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	
6	450	Yes	350	Yes	12%			Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
	400	No.						Mon 'ly	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
3	600	No.						Mon 'ly	No	Yes		No	No	No	No	
2	500	No.				3	5 00		Yes		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	100
3	500	Yes						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	
	330	Yes	500	No.				Mon 'ly	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
		No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	
3	300	No.					1 00	Mon 'ly	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	
	324	No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	
3	475	Yes	500	No.				Mon 'ly	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	
		No.	300					Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	250
3		Yes				4	6 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
4	670	Yes	1,200	No.		4	20 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	600
	350	No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
2	300	Yes	No.						Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	700
7	480	Yes	100	No.				Mon 'ly	Yes		Yes	No	No	No	Yes	75
		No.						Mon 'ly	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	
	364	No.					10 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
		Yes	1,500					Mon 'ly	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
	360	No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
	380	No.				1	7 00	Weekly			Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
		Yes	3,000	No.		3	15 00									
3		Yes				5	13 00	Mon 'ly	No	Yes		No	No	Yes	No	
1	480	No.	1,000	No.				Mon 'ly	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	200
		Yes				2	10 00	Mon 'ly	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	
2	360	No.						Mon 'ly	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
8	480	Yes	150	No.				Mon 'ly	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	
7		Yes	3,000	No.					Yes		No	No	Yes	No	Yes	145
		No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
2	260	No.						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	
	400	Yes	1,000	No.				Mon 'ly	Yes							
8		No.					7 00		Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	
	600	No.				3	10 00	Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
		Yes	200	No.				Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	100
4	500	Yes						Mon 'ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	

TABLE No. IX.—Concluded.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF EMPLOYEES.

	Married or single.	OCCUPATION.	Hours em- ployed daily.	Days per week	WAGES.			Actual earn- ings for year.	LOSS OF TIME.			EARNINGS.		No. you sup- port.
					Day.	Week.	Month		Sick.	No work	Total	Wife.	Child- ren.	
295	Single	Farmer	16	6	\$	\$	\$	\$				\$		8
296	Married	Farmer	16	7										5
297	Single	Railroad-man	10	7			65 00							
298	Single	Farmer	10	7										
303	Single	Engineer, stationary	10	7	4 00	28 00	120 00	1,400 00		10	10			
313	Single	Miner	10	7	3 00			500 00	40	10	5			1
314	Single	Engineer, stationary	12	7			110 00	770 00	5	55	60			
315	Single	Miner	10	7	2 00	14 00	62 00			7	7			
316	Single	Miner	10	7	2 50	17 50	75 00	200 00		180	180			
317	Single	Engineer, stationary	10	7	3 00	21 00	91 50	1,080 00						
318	Married	Miner	10	6	3 50	21 00								2
319	Single	Miner	10	7	3 50			360 00		180	180			
320	Single	Miner	10	6	3 50			720 00	4	3	7			5
321	Single	Miner	10	6	3 50	21 00	90 00	500 00	4	181	185			
325	Married	Printer	12	6	6 00			1,800 00		5	5			3
326	Married	Miner	10	6	3 50	21 00	87 50	612 50		150	150	400 00		2
327	Married	Car-repairer	10	7	2 50	15 00	65 00	375 00	1	1				3
328	Single	Machinist	10	6	3 50	21 00	91 00							
335	Married	Laborer	9	6	3 00			343 75	20	151	171	150 00		3
336	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50	24 50								
337	Single	Engineer, stationary	8	7	4 00	28 00	120 00	400 00	5	170	175			
338	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50	24 50	105 00	600 00	120	30	150			4
339	Married	Miner	8	6	3 50	21 00	88 50	1,167 65						4
340	Single	Harness-maker	10	6	3 00	18 00								
341	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50	24 50	105 00	500 00	150		150			
342	Single	Miner	8	7	4 00			1,000 00		80	80			
343	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50									
344	Single	Miner								275	275			
345	Single	Miner	8		3 50			900 00	20	70	90			
346	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50	24 50	105 00	500 00						
347	Single	Miner	8	7	3 50			1,000 00	10	90	100			
348	Married	Clerk	14	7										
349	Single	Plasterer	10		5 00					150	150			
350	Single	Miner	8	6										
351	Married	Mine-boss	8	7	4 00	28 00	120 00		4	90	94			5
352	Single	Miner	10	6	1 50	9 00	45 00	125 00	4	54	58			
353	Single	Miner	9	7	3 50	24 50	104 00	600 00		100	100			
354	Married	Miner	9	7	3 50	24 50	104 00	650 00		100	100			3
362	Married	Laborer	10	6	2 50	15 00	60 00							2
363	Single	Steel-works	10	6		12 00								
364	Single	Plasterer	9	4	4 00	15 00	50 00		105		105			
365	Single	Painter	10	6	3 25		91 00	728 00						
366	Married	Carpenter	10	6	2 75	16 50		405 00						5
367	Single	Teamster	10	6	1 20	7 20								
368	Married	Laborer	10	6	2 00	12 00	50 00	300 00	14	136	150			3
369	Single	Foundry	10	6	1 25									
370	Single	Laborer	10	6	2 00	12 00	52 00	624 00		60	60			5
371	Single	Railroad-man	9	7			50 00			270	270			2
372	Single	Railroad-man	12		2 60		78 00	897 00		15	15			
383	Married	Carpenter	10	6	3 00	18 00	72 00							5
411	Single	Miner	9	6	4 00			200 00						
412	Single	Miner	10	7	3 50	24 50	105 00	903 00		86	86			
413	Single	Miner	10	7	3 50				22	168	190			4
426	Married	Carpenter	10	7	3 50			950 50	4	13	17			4
435	Single	Clerk	12	6	2 00	12 00	50 00	624 00						
451	Married	Painter	10	3	3 00	9 00	36 00		25	156	181			2
452	Single	Laborer	10	6	2 00			250 00						
453	Married	Laborer	10	6	2 00			300 00		100	100			3
454	Married	Laborer	9	6	3 00									7
455	Married	Mason	10		4 50			700 00		150	150			2
456	Married	Laborer	10	3	2 00			200 00						4
457	Married	Laborer			2 50									3
458	Married	Farmer	12	6	2 25			450 00		10	10	30 00		5

TABLE No. IX.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF EMPLOYÉS.

No in your family.	HOME CONDITION.						Rent per mon.	Wages paid, when?	Would weekly pay- ments help?	Are You a Member of any Association?			Have you bank acct?	Have you accumulat'd		Run in deb past year.	Amt	
	Cost of living	Own a home	Its value	Mort- gag'd of	Rate of Int	No. rms				Lab'r	Benefit.	Ins.		In past year.	Pres- ent year.			
9	\$ 500	No	\$	\$			3 5 00			No		Yes	No	No	No		\$	
6	Yes		3,500	1500	10%			Mon ly	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	200	
	140	Yes	2,000	1000	10%					Yes		No	No	Yes	Yes	No		
	Yes		2,000	700	10%					Yes				Yes	Yes	Yes	20	
	400	No						Mon ly	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
2	365	No					1 5 00	Mon ly	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No		
	360	No						Mon ly	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	Yes		1,500	No				Mon ly	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	Yes			492	7			Mon ly	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	10	
								Mon ly	No	Yes	Yes							
2	400	No					1 5 00	Mon ly	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	820	
	364	No						Mon ly		No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
5	337	No						Mon ly	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
	500							Mon ly	No	No		Yes	No	No	No	No		
3	450	Yes	500	No						No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	120	
2	512	Yes	600	No				Mon ly	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
3	300	Yes	400	No				Mon ly	Yes	Yes				Yes	Yes	Yes		
	No									No	Yes		No	Yes	No	Yes		
3	Yes		200	No						No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	No							Mon ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	20	
	120	Yes		No						Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	30	
5	720	Yes					2 10 00	Mon ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	15	
5	745	Yes	1,700	No					Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No		
							1 16 00	Weekly		Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	744	No					1 7 00	Mon ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	24	
	390						1 3 00	Mon ly	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	3,000	
	No						1 17 00	Mon ly	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No		
	365	No						Mon ly	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	20	
	Yes		250	No				Mon ly	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No		
	365							Mon ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	Yes		300							Yes	No	No		Yes	Yes	Yes		
	No									Yes				Yes	No	No		
	300	Yes	100	No												Yes	15	
5	Yes						2 10 00	Mon ly	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	400	Yes	200	No						No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	400	Yes	400	No				Mon ly	No		No	No	No	No	Yes	No		
4	600	Yes	300	100						Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	20	
2							5 10 00	Weekly		Yes			No	No	No	No		
	450	No						Mon ly	Yes	Yes			No	No	No	No		
							5 00	Weekly		Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No		
5	300	No					5 6 00	Weekly		No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
	No							Weekly		Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No		
4	250	No					1 5 00	Mon ly	Yes	Yes			No	No	No	No		
5	No						8 00	Mon ly	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No		
1	300						1 7 00	Mon ly		Yes			Yes	No	Yes	No		
3	275							Mon ly		Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	100	
	360						1 5 00	Mon ly	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No		
5	Yes		1,000	No					No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No		
	Yes		50	No				Mon ly	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	20	
	290	Yes	2,800					Mon ly		No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
4	No							Mon ly	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
4	456	Yes	800	No				Weekly		No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
	455	No						Mon ly	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	75	
3	Yes		1,200	700	10%					Yes	No		No	No	No	No		
	No									Yes						No		
3	175	No					3 8 00			Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No		
9	Yes		1,600	No				Bi-w kl	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes		
2	400	Yes	2,600	1300	10%					Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	200	
5	200						3 10 00			Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No		
	Yes		3,000	1000	10%					Yes	Yes	Yes		No	No	No		
6	475	Yes	800	300	8%		3 10 00			Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	450

MISCELLANEOUS EXPRESSIONS OF EMPLOYÉS.

Allusion has already been made to that portion of the blank sent out inviting workmen to express their views, either on specific or miscellaneous subjects, affecting wage-workers. This was done for the purpose of giving them an opportunity of voicing sentiments which could be published through the medium of this bureau, and afford legislators and the public generally an opportunity of knowing how the working classes feel in regard to questions pertinent to the world of industry.

The following note was printed, under the head of "Remarks," on each form sent out:

Write freely on matters of interest to wage-workers, such as short hours, weekly payment of wages, alien ownership of property, co-operation, arbitration, liability of employer for injuries sustained by employe, what laws should be enacted, what laws should be repealed, or any other subject that may suggest itself to you.

The general character of the invitation is shown. The subjoined remarks, with others, which are given under heads to which they refer especially, were received in response to the circular, and the reading of them will convince all of the intelligence exhibited. Many useful and practicable suggestions are contained. Among the subjects referred to by the workers are the following:

The eight hour question, mining and other claims held by foreign aliens, the liquor question, weekly and monthly pay-days, Government control of telegraphs, telephones, etc.; State control of public works, ditches, etc.; the wage and lease system in mining, arbitration, co-operation, liability of employers, mine inspection, convict labor, imported contract labor, sale of school lands, unrestricted emigration, equalization of freight tariff, so as to prevent discrimination in favor of great producers and corporations as against the small producer

or individual; Sunday labor, land taxation, interference by corporations with workingmen in organizing, the elective system, child-labor, etc.

It will be seen that each of these topics is one in the prevailing discussions, wherever workingmen's organizations exist, on the labor problem, and the fact of the expressions given being by workers, lends the reading of them additional interest:

Arapahoe County, No. 2—In regard to the eight-hour system, I think it one of the best movements that could be inaugurated for the working people. I have worked eight, nine, ten, and even fourteen hours a day, and my experience teaches me that eight hours a day is plenty for any man to work, no matter what his pursuit. For two reasons it is a great thing—education and health. I find, working eight hours, that I can get time to become acquainted with my family, and plan things that will interest them, which I never could before. I make just as much money, and even more, and hope to increase my wages in the future. As for health, I have improved wonderfully. When I worked ten hours, I weighed one hundred and twenty pounds; now I weigh one hundred and forty-five pounds. In a hundred instances I could tell the benefits of an eight-hour system. Ten hours' work is pure slavery, and nothing more. When I worked ten hours I made up my mind I could make a living at eight hours, so I threw up my job and went to work for myself.

No. 3—Am in favor of eight hours being established as a day's work, equal pay for equal work, half-holiday on Saturday afternoon, co-operation and arbitration for all labor difficulties.

No. 12—Meat-cutters and butchers work fifteen hours daily. The time ought to be shortened at least to twelve hours. For years I have had no time to read newspapers nor attend meetings of organizations. As for going to church on a Sunday, I couldn't think of it. Once, to send a money order, I had to steal away, and that, after postponing the matter from day to day for five days on account of having no time to spare.

Archuleta County, No. 23—In this part of the country there are thousands of mining claims taken up by foreigners, not citizens, and don't intend to become such. They hold the lands, however. The majority of our mines are worked by foreign labor. Soon as the owners make a stake they start for the old country. The principal mines are held by large companies, with foreigners for bosses and superintendents, and there is not one American in five hundred who can get work, or will work for them.

Clear Creek County, No. 49—Wish we had eight hours' work and could make a living at those hours ; be paid every Saturday, or at least once a month. Ought to have laws that every common educated man can read and understand. Wish the Government would buy the railroads, telegraphs and telephones, and have a uniform price per mile all over the Union. Stop liquor selling and all transportation or importation and making of liquor. Do not believe in hanging anyone except highway robbers. Sentence others for life-time to the penitentiary. Give a good price to farmers for best crops of any kind. Would have no more than eight hours' work, whatever the work may be.

No. 50—I think eight hours a day long enough for a miner to work underground. There ought to be a law passed in the country to establish it, and to make pay-days weekly. Arbitration should settle all difficulties of wage-workers.

No. 51—Employes here are paid almost universally monthly, and it is considered almost an impossibility here for a man to lay up any money working at day's pay. The majority of mines are owned by non-residents, and business is transacted through agents, which is in all cases bad for employes. I am not positive about my employers being held responsible for injuries being received by employes while on duty. I never heard of them receiving assistance from employers. It is the same here with mining as it is in all other monopolies. The poor laborer must stand the brunt of hard labor, suffering and high prices in order that the rich may accumulate more wealth. We are all in the same deplorable condition as the balance of mankind, who are compelled to labor for their living. We, the producers, must support the idle consumer, and receive, for our portion, the curse of slaves. The law granting property rights to the mineral wealth of the country is wrong and ought to be repealed at the earliest opportunity, the State holding the lands for the benefit of the whole people. They ought to be taxed to the full market value. Until that is done, the poverty of the miner will increase to pay large dividends to foreign and native corporations. The wage-system in mining camps would disappear, and a lease system would be substituted, as it reaps the greatest harvest for the corporation, with no liabilities.

Eagle County, No. 114—I believe in arbitration, co-operative stores and support by corporations of those crippled in their service. I heartily endorse collection of fees from employes for the hiring and support of corporation physicians, nurses and hospital service, as well as for reading-rooms, etc., and like the per cent. system better than the *per capita*. We are in favor, hereabouts, of a restricted immigration, as all have trouble usually from drinking,

raw recruits, who are too elated over good wages to be modest or reasonable in their opinions. I deplore the decadence of the apprentice system, and especially the limitation of numbers to be taught given trades where "unions" control that item. Too much importation of skilled labor becomes "easy," making too many tramps out of native Americans, who are obliged to be crude by exclusion from the trades. Manual training schools ought to turn out better mechanics than the apprentice system did; first, being free from some of the objections of the old system, notably the oppressions of the sometimes tyrannical master; and, secondly, furnishing free use of a library, a scientific training for the thinking faculties, and giving a disinterested trend to the training of the pupil, the old system leaning too far towards extracting a monetary value only out of the services of the apprentice. I think every wage-earner should be encouraged to marry; or, if married, to keep his family with him. Free or cheap rent, or other inducements, should be offered by employers. Railroads and others interested in immigration should make it easy for the wife or sweetheart to reach the needy West. The Canada Pacific wisely does this, to mutual advantage of the corporation and its patrons. Better citizens, better workmen, every way, if married.

No. 115—Eight hours ought to be a day's work, and I am ready to help my brother workingman to obtain it. When the laboring class elects a man to office he ought to work for the workingmen's interests or have his head taken off.

Garfield County, No. 154—We all favor eight hours for a day's work, and would be glad to see it enforced by law. The coal corporations are getting and paying men to take up coal lands and then buy it from the locator, which is right contrary to the laws of the United States.

No. 155—Work is scarce in this section, and there are more men than there is work. Italians do most of the work. There should be a law passed to prohibit Italians and others who can not speak the English language working in coal mines, because they can not be made to understand when there is danger.

No. 156—I wish it were possible we might obtain eight hours for work, eight hours for the cultivation of our minds, and eight hours for sweet rest.

No. 158—A law should be passed compelling corporations, mine-owners and others to pay employes for injuries received by them through neglect of them—the corporations, etc.

No. 159—We should labor only eight hours, and this would give time to a man for amusement and improving the mind. The Labor

Bureau is very necessary, and will result in a great deal of good. In my opinion the railroad bill introduced in the last Legislature and defeated, would be the best that could be passed for the State.

No. 160—I am in favor of the eight-hour system. It would allow time for enjoyment and recreation. It would require more men to do the same amount of work, thereby giving employment to a greater number of people. I do not think it right to allow any one, not a citizen of the United States, or who has not signified his intention to become such, to own or control any property in the United States. I think co-operation in various undertakings, if properly carried out, would be a great benefit to wage-workers. I also favor arbitration. Employers should be held responsible for injuries sustained by employes from accidents, where proper safeguards have not been provided by employers.

Gilpin County, No. 168—Laws of short hours, weekly payment of wages, and inspection of mines should be enacted.

No. 171—I think eight hours is long enough to work in mines, in a dangerous and unhealthy occupation. Weekly wages ought to be paid. Don't think aliens ought to be allowed to acquire large tracts of land, thus keeping poor Americans from getting cheap homes. The employer should be responsible for all injuries sustained by employes during working hours.

Gunnison County, No. 186—Smelting requiring day and night work, no employe should be expected to work more than eight hours. There should be three instead of two shifts. Don't think aliens ought to own land. A law should be passed prohibiting sale of school lands, which are getting more valuable every year. They should be kept and leased. This would give us the best schools and colleges of any State in the Union, without paying taxes for support.

No. 188—Would advise working men to leave liquor and beer alone, live within their means, pay as they go, save a little every month, read good labor papers, so as to learn that they may accomplish by ballot everything they seek to lighten the burdens of life; buy co-operative made goods, thus encouraging laborers to band together and help each other to do away with convict labor, so that the latter may not be detrimental to honest labor, and go to the polls and vote for the best men. Hours of labor should be reduced to eight.

No. 189—I find that paying wages every Saturday makes a big difference in cost of living. One is able to pay cash, and has not to ask credit, which is easy to get, and leads to extravagance. A smelter here pays on the third of the month the preceding month's wages, and a railroad pays at the end of the month. By these sys-

tems employes get into the habit of buying on credit, and all pay is taken up to pay bills with. As to work where shifts of men are employed, more work, and that of a better quality, is obtained from men working eight hours, than twelve, or even ten, and, where the work is hard, there is advantage on both sides. The employe loses no time, and the wages for eight hours might be less than those for ten or twelve hours, and in the long run the employe would earn more money. A very great deal more could be said in favor of short hours. Arbitration should in all cases be used to settle disputes between employer and employe. A law should be passed establishing a postal telegraph. A just railroad law should be enacted enabling individuals to ship as cheaply as companies can; the farmer should be able to ship products as cheaply as the commission man can; a poor man owning a coal mine ought to be able to ship his coal at the same rates allowed a company; abolish all passes on railroads, excepting for actual employes in discharge of duty. The election laws should be remodeled. Now, large corporations virtually control our elections, national, state and county. It is almost an impossibility for any one to be elected, unless some one whom the corporations wish to be elected. Let United States Senators be elected by popular vote, and not by the Legislature. Before we can have just and pure legislation, we must make it possible to elect pure men to office.

No. 191—I am in favor of lessening the hours of labor. I think married men should be paid weekly. It enables them to secure bargains which otherwise they could not pick up. Am in favor of employers maintaining injured employes during a reasonable time such as are unable for duty.

No. 193—I would like to see the laboring men take an interest in the men they elect to any office. If wise officials work for the laboring man, re-elect them, and if they work for monopolies, never elect them to office again.

No. 194—Am in favor of the eight-hour system, semi-monthly payment of wages, and highly in favor of settling all disputes between employer and employe by arbitration.

Jefferson County, No. 225—Am in favor of weekly payments, as much is saved to employes by that system. Property owners should be held responsible for injuries received by employes through neglect of co-employes.

No. 242—Salaries ought to be paid weekly.

No. 245—Am in favor of eight hours for a day's work in mines and smelters and factories. Some men in the mining regions have to do two days' work in one, and get no more pay.

Lake County, No. 247 1/2—I believe in the National Government establishing savings banks attached to post-offices, where people could deposit small sums to be perfectly safe. Every good government should protect the land for its people, but it is not that way, even with our great Republic. Land, the heritage of the people, should be reserved for actual settlers. Not another acre should be given to corporations of any kind, and any land held for speculative purposes should be taxed to its full value. All laws which do not bear equally on capital and labor should be abrogated, and all unjust technicalities, delays and discriminations of justice should be removed. Laws ought to be simplified so that the poor man can have justice done him, without having to spend six months' pay or more on a lawyer. Many laborers make terms with corporations when they, the laborers, know they are right, but they know they have not means enough to fight the corporations.

Every worker should favor a law providing for the health and safety of those engaged in mining, building, manufacturing and other industries, and in the indemnifications of those engaged therein for injuries received through want of necessary safe-guards. I believe in a law prohibiting the letting of contracts on national, state and municipal works, and if there are any benefits to be had from national government work, let as many as possible enjoy them, not a few contractors only.

There ought to be laws to compel arbitration between employers and employes and to enforce decisions of arbitrators; to prohibit employment of children under sixteen years of age in workshops, mines and factories, and to prohibit hiring out of convict labor.

The great majority of citizens believe that Congress should establish a National monetary system, in which a circulating medium in necessary quantity should be issued direct to the people, without the intervention of the banks; that all the National issue should be the full legal tender in payment of all debts, public or private, and that the Government should not guarantee or recognize any private banks, or create any banking corporations. The people also believe the Government should run telegraphs, telephones and railroads in the interests of the whole people, and that no more charters nor licenses should be issued to any corporation for construction or operation of any means of transporting intelligence, passengers or freight.

Laws should be passed compelling equal pay to each sex for equal work; making all manual labor no more than eight hours a day, so workers can share in the gains and honors of advancing

civilization; prohibiting any more Chinese coming to this country on account of physiological, labor, sanitary and other considerations, as the country would be happier without Chinamen and trusts.

As to smelter work, our ores must be reduced, no matter how the process may injure the health of the men doing the work. They should not be allowed to work more than eight hours a day, and a law to that effect would show a little humane feeling on the part of the law-makers of the State. Men's lives are shortened and the work renders them useless, unless they have money enough to take a lay-off in the spring and get the lead-poison out of their systems. I know men who have become paralyzed. Money ought to be eliminated from politics, and secret balloting, as in Massachusetts, established by law, so as to do away with saloon-bar influences and the taking of the cursed bribe. Those who would vote for it in our Legislature would show their honesty in politics.

My experience has taught me, among wage-workers and ordinary business men, that the evils which do exist are only read of and exposed in a very small portion of the daily press. I venture to say that the sooner laws intended to benefit the majority of people are established, the sooner the stars on the American flag will be like the stars in Heaven—beyond the power of any and all nations to pull them down.

La Plata County, No. 250—In former years I saved some money and invested it in a home, a company promising irrigating water to the district at once. The company failed to keep faith with the settlers, and I lost all my money. As an humble individual, I think all great enterprises, like this ditch business, should be done by the State. Surely our legislators can hit on a means to secure the State from anything like loss.

Larimer County, No. 259—I am in favor of short hours. We work ten hours, having to be out in winter long before daylight, and remain at work after dark. We are affected very much by the constant flow of immigration from Finland. The people are ignorant of the language and ways of working in this country, and will take from the bosses any insult they may offer, and are willing to accept any usage in the company's boarding-house. We are compelled to board in the company's boarding-house, instead of where we like, and no families are allowed. Monopoly is crushing the poor laborer to dust. It is time men moved to the protection of the laborer and home industry. We want no free trade, for at present our markets are flooded with cheap labor, and that is sufficient free trade for us.

No. 261—The wage-system of to-day is all wrong. I am a farmer, and I employ four men. There are few men who will work

for their employers as they do for themselves. Now, these men put in a crop for me. I put in money and time, and take all the chances, paying the men \$25 each a month. Just as the crop is about ready to harvest, a hail-storm comes, and the farmer loses all. His men lose nothing. To remedy this, I believe in a system of division of profits, on a fair basis, and this would be fairer than for the farmer to lose crops, time, use of teams and machinery, and the wages of his men besides. This should be made a universal system in labor, manufactures, and all branches of trade.

No. 264—There can be no question as to the benefit of shorter hours in work. Man should have time to improve mentally. Aliens should own no property in this country; the land should in every case belong to the people. If I hire a man to work for me, and that man is injured, either through my greed or neglect, I should most surely be held responsible. Arbitration should be, and I think is, the only true way to adjust a difficulty between employer and employe. Co-operation is the only true way of protection. If labor would co-operate more and strike less, the laboring class would be better off. There would be less people starving, less crime, less rum, and more humanity.

No. 265—I have been contracting eighteen months. I work my men eight hours a day, and pay them \$3.00 per day. I think eight hours long enough. The laborer hasn't got time to read or know much more than a slave. There ought to be a law to reduce the hours to eight, and pay the same wages. The man who hires men is the man who makes the money, and I say this, that if there is nothing done to check this monopoly, in twenty years this country will be worse than any country you can think of. All we want is to get the laboring class to see this, and it will be checked at once. It can be stopped by ballot.

No. 266—I think if there could be more money in circulation, it would be a good thing for the laborers. I think that every man should be elected to office by the voter, then office-seekers could not sell out their votes.

Las Animas County, No. 276—Eight hours should constitute a day's work, and there should be semi-monthly pay-days. I am opposed to alien ownership of property. I believe the employer should be held responsible for all injuries to the employe in case of neglect. I should suggest that there be a law enacted to prevent mine owners from forcing or compelling miners to accept the services of any certain doctor, known as a "mine doctor."

Logan County, No. 285—Legislation is too much in the interest of capital, to the detriment of the masses of the wealth-producers.

I will call attention to the act repealing the old form of the appraisal of State and school lands. We should have an act passed that when State or school lands are to be leased or sold, it should be to the highest bidder at the headquarters of the county in which the lands are situated, and not in Denver, as now done. The road tax is another evil. Would it not be more just to the masses of the people to levy a property tax to keep up our public roads? Again, our text books should be the same all over the State for public schools, instead of by districts.

No. 286—There is a great deal of wrong somewhere when seven or eight hundreds of millions of dollars are piled up around Washington, and the people around the country are without means to improve pre-emptions and homesteads, and farmers needing help can not hire men because they can not sell horses they raise, or in any other way get money to pay the men with. I needed a little money and went to two banks, and they said they couldn't spare it, but a man I went to said he would loan me the money at three per cent. per month, and could loan all he could get at that price. How long can a country run at that rate of interest? I contend that we will only have to go on at this rate a few years until we can find Ireland without crossing the water for it. My sympathies have always been with the toilers, being one of them.

Mesa County, No. 293—Railroad employes here are denied the right of organization. I think a law is necessary to punish corporations for extending an unwarranted authority over their employes. I believe that thorough organization of the producing classes is the first requisite to make a co operative system of all men a possibility. Education on industrial economics is sorely needed—reduction of hours of labor to a minimum. Every individual worker should receive the full value of his production and the assumption of all public functions by the State. In many states the fees of physicians and rates of royalty to millers are fixed by law. If this is a right and just power of organized society, I see no reason why this authority might not be beneficially exerted to all forms of service. But, first of all, I am in favor of education and organization.

Ouray County, No. 315—I would like to see a law in this State and all others prohibiting the sale of intoxicating drinks of all kinds; also, a law prohibiting mine owners or superintendents letting or requiring men to work on Sunday in the mines. I would like to see a law forbidding fast women keeping dens to catch young men and boys.

No. 320—In this mine we have to buy our own fire-wood for our sleeping-house, and must protect ourselves against all injuries at our own expense. Work ten hours a day, and nine at night. My

opinion, is that the eight-hour system ought to be adopted, especially at underground work, because of foul air and a good many more things have to be contended with. Further, that all persons working underground be paid the same wages; that the companies protect their employes under and in regard to their own negligence—that is, the companies' neglect. Three fatal accidents here were caused by the company's negligence. I believe in the companies being made to pay for these accidents. Employes ought to board where they please, and buy necessities where they choose.

Park County, No. 326—Am in favor of short hours and weekly payments; the payment of wages in lawful money, as there is always exchange and discount on drafts and checks, aside from waste of time in waiting for collection. Am opposed to alien ownership of property, and am in favor of co-operation and arbitration. Think the employer should be held liable for injuries sustained by employes, where due caution is used by employe. Think it would be beneficial, both for mine owners and the State, to have the mining year end in August or September, as nearly every one delays assessment work until the very last, and the weather being rough, they get very little labor done for their money. I do not believe in strikes on any occasion. I believe in the Government owning and operating the telegraph and railroads.

No. 327—Am in favor of eight hours for a lawful day's work, and it should be made so by law. Would like to see corporations made to pay employes weekly. Do not believe in foreigners holding land in this country, and think it would do much good if a limit were put on the ownership of land in the country, so that more may have a chance to own land and a house in the same county. Am in favor of co-operation and arbitration. Think corporations should be compelled to arbitrate with their employes; also, that corporations should be held responsible for all injuries sustained by employes. There should be a law to check immigration to this country, under contract and otherwise, especially the Chinese, all being productive of untold misery over the land.

No. 328—Sunday work ought to be stopped. Six days are surely enough for anyone to work. If we refuse to work on Sundays employers threaten to discharge us. A law with a heavy fine attached ought to be passed for all such offenses. Companies demand ten days' notice from employes when they want to leave, but discharge men when they are through with them, without giving them ten minutes' notice. If the employes don't give this notice, the companies will keep them out of their time seven to ten days. It's all one-sided.

Pitkin County, No. 336—For men going down into a mine from seven hundred to a thousand feet and eating a cold lunch there, eight hours is as long as he should be allowed to stay in the mine. In most cases, however, the miners have to work ten hours. As to convict labor, there are enough men and boys in the State to do all the work in it without convicts laboring, and I think a convict ought not to be sold as a slave.

No. 337—I have money coming from contractors of two big State corporations, which I have been waiting for for six months.

No. 338—Weekly payments of wages would greatly assist the wage-worker in making his purchases. Organized labor here is greatly opposed to alien ownership of land, and believe that a single tax on land values would be the most effectual remedy of destroying land monopoly and opening up the natural opportunities for the hand of labor. We favor co-operation, arbitration and are opposed to strikes, except as a last resort. Do not believe in the expediency or justice of a graduated income tax. We favor a law making employers responsible for injuries done to employes, unless through carelessness of employe. Organized labor is strongly in favor of State ownership of ditches and Government control of railroads and telegraphs. Do not believe that a protective tariff benefits a single industry, or the wage-workers in that industry.

No. 339—Hope the time is not far distant when the Government will take hold of all railroads and telegraphs on all public highways, land matters, steam, electricity and water, and run them for the good of all and not for the few. After years of hard labor, I bought a lot and built a house on it, and for doing it was taxed or fined. I don't think it right or just to tax the fruits of hard labor and savings. I think all taxes should be put on land values, and not on what a poor man makes by his industry, as there is no encouragement for a poor man to build a house, for if he does he will be fined for it. I am in favor of an eight-hour law, the abolishment of alien ownership in land, the Government issuing all money, abolishment of the banking system, of child labor, convict labor, and all foreign contract labor. I believe in protection of American industries, so far as it extends to rich and poor alike. I am opposed to all trusts, and in favor of taxing fully the thousands of acres held by rich men in this State. Coal miners ought to be paid fair wages, for a specified amount of work, so as to avoid strikes, and the starving of children and women at one end of a railroad, and the freezing of people in towns and cities.

No. 340—The branch of industry to which I belong, harness-making, is sadly neglected. We have no union, and very few belong to any organization, and that is, I think, the cause of our trouble.

No. 341—Big railway corporations have been for two or three years acquiring title and possession of large tracts of valuable coal and marble lands and quarries here and about here, and are working them by Italians, who were brought here while the railroads were being built. A single tax on land values would, in my judgment, be the most effectual remedy for the evil of land monopoly, which is the parent of every other monopoly.

No. 343—I believe that a monopoly of land, especially by aliens, is one of the worst things the people of Colorado suffer, for when the land is all taken, and the chance for the working people getting homes is gone, the competition in the labor market becomes keener, and the surplus of labor causes a reduction of wages.

No. 344—I am in favor of eight hours for a day's work, and weekly pay-days. It would benefit the working classes, and enable them to have money oftener, and always buy necessities of life cheaper with cash. Private ownership in land is unjust, and a crime. I am in favor of a single land tax. Laws should be created to provide for the health and safety of those engaged in mining and all industries, and indemnity for working people for injuries received through lack of necessary safeguards. Laws should be passed compelling employers and employes to arbitrate all differences, and enforcing the decision of arbitrators. The State should take possession, by purchase or otherwise, of all railroads, telegraphs, telephones, water rights, electric lights, and all means of transportation. They should be run just on a paying basis, and in the interest of the whole people. I believe in universal co-operation, and the extinguishment of competition and wage-slavery. I believe in laws that will give equal pay for equal work to both sexes.

No. 345—A law should be enacted making the employer responsible for accidents that may happen, through their negligence, to their employes. Workingmen with families can live much cheaper if paid once a week. Monopoly of land by corporations is the great cause of suffering among the working classes.

No. 346—Am in favor of eight hours for a day's work, and of weekly payments. I believe in the single land tax, and taxing land to its full rental value. Employers ought to be held responsible for damages done employes. I believe in arbitration, and that the State should control all means of transportation; also, telegraphs and telephones, water rights and electric lights. I believe in equal pay for equal work, regardless of sex, and in co-operation.

No. 348—My view of the labor problem is, if all taxes were paid upon land values, it would compel those who hold land for speculation to use it, or to relinquish it to those who would use it. Land

was designed to be used, but not to be held out of use. If land would be had for using it all over the United States, it would not be necessary for men to tramp west to look for work; there would be no need of any one being idle, and as wages are measured mostly by the competition of the employed, wages would rise to the point of actual production.

No. 350—The hours of labor here are eight, and should not be changed. Payment of wages should be every two weeks. Alien ownership should not be allowed, and aliens should be kept out of the State. Co-operation we don't want; is an injury to the State. Arbitration is good, but it should not become a State nor a National law. Make employers pay according to injury, and pass a law compelling employers to pay employes weekly a certain amount, named by the County Judge, until damage can be adjusted by law. This is a mineral county, where a great many claims are patented and held by rich companies, and are lying idle, no more work being done on them than was necessary to obtain a patent. Should not a law be passed to tax those patented claims that are not worked?

No. 353—Hereabouts the rule of eight hours has been very generally recognized. Nearly all companies deduct a dollar a month from each man's pay for doctor's services. It would be better, in well-established mining towns, for miners to have and maintain a hospital. One thousand miners, at one dollar each, would maintain an excellent hospital, with the doctor and nurses. The camp is overcrowded.

No. 354—Work here generally eight hours a day. The eight-hour system ought to be adopted all over Colorado. Each company holds a dollar a month for doctor's services, which I don't think right. We only work about half time. The editors of newspapers do wrong to advertise labor plenty, when the market is full and overdone. The tendency is to pull down wages and make men beggars.

Pueblo County, No. 362—We would like the eight-hour system, provided we could get it.

No. 364—The plasterers here are trying to establish the eight-hour rule, and bosses favor the movement. I think we will have it, and no reduction, either. It will be a good move. Eight hours is enough for a plasterer.

No. 366—Here the principal company pays monthly, and deducts one dollar per month for hospital. Every one in the company's employ is taken care of when sick, or waited on at home. We are expected to trade at a company store, and some make considerable complaint about it, but they are not compelled to trade there.

No. 367—The eight-hour question is one of the grandest things that the laboring classes can advocate for their own good, and the good of the public in general, as it will give more employment to men. It will also benefit the capitalist all over the country, as their men would all have a few hours in which to educate themselves, morally and socially. The men would not be worn out with over toil as under ten to twelve hours' work a day, and driven from post to pillar in search of some place where they can receive a just share of the wealth they create. Working children, under sixteen, I think one of the worst kinds of abuse, and while I don't think girls under that age should be allowed to work in any shop, still I think they ought to be employed at home or in study. Importation of foreign labor under contract, ought to be stopped. Self-sustaining men are not brought in by the capitalist of the country. I think it time that the people of this State should put only such men in office as will pledge themselves to the people and not to the capitalists, as the only way of accomplishing anything is through the ballot-boxes.

No. 368—I strongly advocate the eight-hour system and weekly payments, for the benefit of myself and the laboring classes generally.

No. 370—I favor the eight-hour system. I think that Labor Day is a good thing.

No. 372—The position of a railroad brakeman is difficult and extremely hazardous. Once hired to a railroad company he becomes almost its slave, and must be ready to go out any time, day or night, no matter what the weather. Sickness can be the only excuse. For a trip of twenty-four hours we only get one day's pay. It is the hardest life one can lead. The railroad brakeman is the poorest paid wage-worker in the country for the risk run.

San Juan County, No. 411—I think the eight-hour law should be enforced universally; also, semi-monthly payments of wages. Strict laws prohibiting alien ownership of lands should be enacted; also, laws holding employers responsible for injuries received by employes under certain circumstances. I also believe in arbitrating, if possible, all difficulties between employer and employe.

No. 412—I think it would be better for American miners if aliens did not own property in this country, for they most always have foreigners for foremen, who employ only men of their own nationality, while the American would employ men regardless of nationality. I think ten hours is quite long enough, and not too short. If the hours were made shorter, many mines would not pay to work at the wages now paid.

Summit County, No. 435—If labor would resort to arbitration, here would be less men out of employment, and a firmer feeling of friendship exist between employer and employes.

Weld County, No. 451—I think aliens should not be allowed to own property. I firmly believe in arbitration, and that the employer should be held liable for injuries received in extra hazardous occupations.

No. 454—It is my opinion that the only way to improve the times for laboring men is to reduce the hours of labor. It would equalize the work for all men, and in order to do this without a strike or loss of time and money to laborer and master, a law compelling it ought to be passed by the State.

No. 455—There is a tendency to foist a moneyed aristocracy on this land that is even now a standing menace to our free institutions. Our representatives in legislative halls throughout the country are, as a rule, wealthy men. Why is it that a poor man can not or dare not aspire to any of the higher elective offices, if it be not that an aspirant must, to a certain extent, buy his way? Labor seems to stand no show against a combination of ignorance and wealth.

No. 457—I am opposed to alien ownership of land, and am in favor of the Government owning all railroads, telegraphs and expresses, and furnishing transportation at cost, and would like the Government to issue all money and do away with National banks.

No. 458—Would like to see the eight-hour system in force, and believe in America for Americans; the Government to own and operate all telegraph and railroad lines. I believe that employers should make good to employes all injuries received while in their employ; at any rate, loss of time and doctor's bills.

SECTION II.

COMMODITIES.

Because of the interest attaching to a knowledge of the "cost of living" in the various counties of the State, as well as in several parts of the country, there are here appended tables showing the prices of certain commodities.

The cost of commodities in several counties is averaged from returns made to this office by wage-workers and by merchants in different towns in the counties given. On account of not receiving reliable returns from some of the counties, the figures have been omitted in the tables.

The cost of commodities in cities throughout the country has been obtained from labor commissioners and other well-known residents, and can be considered reliable:

TABLE NO. X.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—ARAPAHOE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 08 $\frac{3}{4}$	Molasses, good .	Per gal. .	\$ 70
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	01 $\frac{2}{3}$	Syrup.	Per gal. .	1 02 $\frac{1}{2}$
Codfish	Per lb. . .	11 $\frac{3}{8}$	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	05
Rice	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{1}{4}$	Starch	Per lb. . .	09 $\frac{1}{2}$
Beans	Per lb. . .	05 $\frac{7}{8}$	Milk	Per qt. . .	08 $\frac{1}{3}$
Tea	Per lb. . .	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	14
Coffee	Per lb. . .	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	14
Cheese	Per lb. . .	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Butter	Per lb. . .	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Eggs	Per doz. .	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	15 $\frac{1}{2}$
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	01 $\frac{3}{8}$	Lard	Per lb. . .	14 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	07 $\frac{5}{8}$	Coal, hard	Per ton. .	\$ 75
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{1}{2}$	Coal, soft	Per ton. .	5 00
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{3}{4}$			

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—BENT COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 55	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 70
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02 $\frac{1}{2}$	Syrup	Per gal. .	70
Codfish	Per lb. . .	10	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	05
Rice	Per lb. . .	10	Starch	Per lb. . .	10
Beans	Per lb. . .	06	Milk	Per qt. . .	08 $\frac{1}{3}$
Tea	Per lb. . .	75	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	
Coffee	Per lb. . .	30	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	
Cheese	Per lb. . .	20	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	
Eggs	Per doz. .	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	03 $\frac{3}{4}$	Lard	Per lb. . .	11
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{2}{3}$	Coal, hard	Per ton. .	
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{1}{2}$	Coal, soft	Per ton. .	
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .				

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—CHAFFEE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 35	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$ 75
Corn meal	Per lb.		Syrup	Per gal . .	1 00
Codfish	Per lb.		Soap, common . .	Per lb.	06
Rice	Per lb.		Starch	Per lb.	15
Beans	Per lb.	08	Milk	Per qt.	10
Tea	Per lb.	50	Beef, roasts	Per lb.	
Coffee	Per lb.	30	Beef, steak	Per lb.	12½
Cheese	Per lb.	25	Pork, fresh	Per lb.	10
Butter	Per lb.	40	Pork, salted	Per lb.	
Eggs	Per doz.	25	Ham, smoked	Per lb.	15
Potatoes	Per lb.	01¼	Lard	Per lb.	10
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	08	Coal, hard	Per ton	
Sugar, white	Per lb.	10	Coal, soft	Per ton	3 50
Sugar, granulated	Per lb.				

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—CLEAR CREEK COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 87½	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$1 10
Corn meal	Per lb.	03½	Syrup	Per gal . .	90
Codfish	Per lb.	10	Soap, common . .	Per lb.	06
Rice	Per lb.	08	Starch	Per lb.	12½
Beans	Per lb.	07	Milk	Per qt.	10
Tea	Per lb.	65	Beef, roasts	Per lb.	
Coffee	Per lb.	27½	Beef, steak	Per lb.	
Cheese	Per lb.	19	Pork, fresh	Per lb.	
Butter	Per lb.	37½	Pork, salted	Per lb.	14½
Eggs	Per doz.	29	Ham, smoked	Per lb.	16
Potatoes	Per lb.	02¼	Lard	Per lb.	09½
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	09½	Coal, hard	Per ton	
Sugar, white	Per lb.	09½	Coal, soft	Per ton	
Sugar, granulated	Per lb.	09½			

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—CONEJOS COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt...	\$2 37½	Molasses, good . .	Per gal..	\$. . .
Corn meal	Per lb.		Syrup	Per gal	
Codfish	Per lb.		Soap, common . .	Per lb.	06¼
Rice	Per lb.	10½	Starch	Per lb.	
Beans	Per lb.	05½	Milk	Per qt.	09
Tea	Per lb.	55	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb.	12½
Coffee	Per lb.	25½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb.	12½
Cheese	Per lb.		Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb.	09
Butter	Per lb.	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb.	11¼
Eggs	Per doz..	30	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb.	16
Potatoes	Per lb.	00⅞	Lard	Per lb.	15
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	10½	Coal, hard	Per ton	
Sugar, white	Per lb.		Coal, soft	Per ton	6 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb.	11¼			

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—DOLORES COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt..	\$5 00	Molasses, good . .	Per gal..	\$2 00
Corn meal	Per lb.	04½	Syrup	Per gal	1 75
Codfish	Per lb.	17½	Soap, common . .	Per lb.	08
Rice	Per lb.	12½	Starch	Per lb.	20
Beans	Per lb.	10	Milk	Per qt.	12
Tea	Per lb.	1 60	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb.	
Coffee	Per lb.	35	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb.	
Cheese	Per lb.	25	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb.	
Butter	Per lb.	50	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb.	
Eggs	Per doz..	50	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb.	20
Potatoes	Per lb.	02	Lard	Per lb.	15
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	08	Coal, hard	Per ton	
Sugar, white	Per lb.	08	Coal, soft	Per ton	
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb.	08			

TABLE NO. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—EAGLE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$4 90	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$. . .
Corn meal	Per lb . .	04½	Syrup	Per gal .	46
Codfish	Per lb . .	13	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	06½
Rice	Per lb . .	14	Starch	Per lb
Beans	Per lb . .	07½	Milk	Per qt
Tea	Per lb . .	70	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	10
Coffee	Per lb . .	35	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	10
Cheese	Per lb	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb
Butter	Per lb . .	35	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb
Eggs	Per doz .	27	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	16
Potatoes	Per lb . .	03½	Lard	Per lb . .	13
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	10	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb	Coal, soft	Per ton
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	10½

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—ELBERT COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$2 32½	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$ 85
Corn meal	Per lb . .	02	Syrup	Per gal .	50
Codfish	Per lb . .	10¾	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	05
Rice	Per lb . .	08½	Starch	Per lb . .	12½
Beans	Per lb . .	05	Milk	Per qt . .	09
Tea	Per lb . .	70	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	09¾
Coffee	Per lb . .	23⅓	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	13
Cheese	Per lb . .	20	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb . .	07½
Butter	Per lb . .	22½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb . .	10¾
Eggs	Per doz .	24½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	14½
Potatoes	Per lb . .	01¼	Lard	Per lb . .	10
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	07½	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb . .	08½	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	4 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	08½

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—EL PASO COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$2 45	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$ 87½
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02½	Syrup	Per gal . .	70
Codfish	Per lb. . .	10¼	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	05½
Rice	Per lb. . .	08½	Starch	Per lb. . .	11¼
Beans	Per lb. . .	04½	Milk	Per qt.
Tea	Per lb. . .	62½	Beef, roasts. . . .	Per lb. . .	10¼
Coffee	Per lb. . .	25	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	11½
Cheese	Per lb. . .	17½	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	11¼
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted	Per lb. . .	11¼
Eggs	Per doz. . .	25	Ham, smoked	Per lb. . .	14¾
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	01½	Lard	Per lb. . .	09
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	09	Coal, soft	Per ton
Sugar, granulated . . .	Per lb. . .	09

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—FREMONT COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 55	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$ 75
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02	Syrup	Per gal . .	92½
Codfish	Per lb. . .	10	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	05
Rice	Per lb. . .	09	Starch	Per lb. . .	09
Beans	Per lb. . .	05	Milk	Per qt. . .	08¼
Tea	Per lb. . .	62½	Beef, roasts. . . .	Per lb. . .	10
Coffee	Per lb. . .	20	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	14
Cheese	Per lb. . .	20	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	12½
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted	Per lb. . .	11¼
Eggs	Per doz. . .	27½	Ham, smoked	Per lb. . .	14½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	01¼	Lard	Per lb. . .	09
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	07¾	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	3 75
Sugar, granulated . . .	Per lb. . .	07½

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—GARFIELD COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 90	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 86¼
Corn meal	Per lb. .	03¾	Syrup	Per gal. .	73¾
Codfish	Per lb. .	15	Soap, common . .	Per lb. .	07½
Rice	Per lb. .	12¾	Starch	Per lb. .	16¾
Beans	Per lb. .	07½	Milk	Per qt. .	11¼
Tea	Per lb. .	80	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. .	14⅝
Coffee	Per lb. .	32½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. .	17⅝
Cheese	Per lb. .	23¼	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. .	16¾
Butter	Per lb. .	45½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. .	16½
Eggs	Per doz. .	37½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. .	17⅝
Potatoes	Per lb. .	02¼	Lard	Per lb. .	16⅝
Sugar, brown	Per lb. .	10	Coal, hard	Per ton .	8 38
Sugar, white	Per lb. .	11⅝	Coal, soft	Per ton .	7 75
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. .	11⅞

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—GUNNISON COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 36	Molasses	Per gal. .	\$ 91
Corn meal	Per lb. .	03½	Syrup	Per gal. .	1 11⅝
Codfish	Per lb. .	13¼	Soap, common . .	Per lb. .	07¾
Rice	Per lb. .	12	Starch	Per lb. .	13¾
Beans	Per lb. .	10¼	Milk	Per qt. .	10
Tea	Per lb. .	79½	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. .	13⅝
Coffee	Per lb. .	32⅝	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. .	16
Cheese	Per lb. .	24¾	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. .	13¼
Butter	Per lb. .	37½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. .	14
Eggs	Per lb. .	30½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. .	16¾
Potatoes	Per lb. .	02½	Lard	Per lb. .	13¾
Sugar, brown	Per lb. .	08¼	Coal, hard	Per ton .	5 12½
Sugar, white	Per lb. .	09⅝	Coal, soft	Per ton .	4 37½
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. .	09⅝

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—GRAND COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$4 42½	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$1 00
Corn meal	Per lb . .	03¾	Syrup	Per gal
Codfish	Per lb . .	09½	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	08
Rice	Per lb . .	08¾	Starch	Per lb . .	10
Beans	Per lb . .	07	Milk	Per qt . .	10
Tea	Per lb . .	55	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	08
Coffee	Per lb . .	26	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	08
Cheese	Per lb . .	18¼	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb
Butter	Per lb . .	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb . .	11¾
Eggs	Per doz .	35	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	16¼
Potatoes	Per lb . .	02¾	Lard	Per lb . .	09½
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	09½	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb	Coal, soft	Per ton
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	10¾

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—HINSDALE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$4 12½	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$1 25 .
Corn meal	Per lb . .	04	Syrup	Per gal .	1 17½
Codfish	Per lb . .	15¾	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	08½
Rice	Per lb . .	12	Starch	Per lb . .	20
Beans	Per lb . .	10½	Milk	Per qt . .	11½
Tea	Per lb . .	80	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	17½
Coffee	Per lb . .	37½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	20
Cheese	Per lb . .	25	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb . .	19½
Butter	Per lb . .	46¼	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb . .	18¼
Eggs	Per doz .	43¾	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	20½
Potatoes	Per lb . .	02¾	Lard	Per lb . .	19¾
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	09½	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb . .	11¼	Coal, soft	Per ton
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	12½

TABLE No. X.—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—HUERFANO COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 37½	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 90
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02	Syrup	Per gal. .	65
Codfish	Per lb. . .	12¼	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	06
Rice	Per lb. . .	07¾	Starch	Per lb. . .	13¾
Beans	Per lb. . .	04½	Milk	Per qt. . .	10
Tea	Per lb. . .	67½	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb.
Coffee	Per lb. . .	25	Beef, steak	Per lb.
Cheese	Per lb. . .	20	Pork, fresh	Per lb.
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb.
Eggs	Per doz. .	30	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb.
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	01¾	Lard	Per lb. . .	09½
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	07¾	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08½	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	2 75
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	08½

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—LAKE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 91¼	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$1 10
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02¾	Syrup	Per gal.
Codfish	Per lb. . .	09	Soap, common . .	Per lb.
Rice	Per lb. . .	06½	Starch	Per lb.
Beans	Per lb. . .	05½	Milk	Per qt. . .	11
Tea	Per lb. . .	37½	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	13½
Coffee	Per lb. . .	29	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	14½
Cheese	Per lb. . .	16¼	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	13½
Butter	Per lb. . .	34	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	15
Eggs	Per doz.	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	16½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02	Lard	Per lb. . .	11
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08½	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08½	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	6 75
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb.

TABLE NO. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—LA PLATA COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$4 25	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$1 15
Corn meal	Per lb . .	04	Syrup	Per gal .	1 25
Codfish	Per lb	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	11
Rice	Per lb . .	10½	Starch	Per lb
Beans	Per lb . .	07¾	Milk	Per qt . .	10
Tea	Per lb . .	75	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	13¾
Coffee	Per lb . .	35	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	12½
Cheese	Per lb . .	27½	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb . .	20
Butter	Per lb . .	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb . .	15
Eggs	Per doz .	42½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	17
Potatoes	Per lb . .	01⅝	Lard	Per lb . .	14
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	10	Coal, hard	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb . .	11	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	4 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	11

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—LARIMER COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt .	\$2 47½	Molasses, good .	Per gal .	\$ 92
Corn meal	Per lb . .	02	Syrup	Per gal .	1 37½
Codfish	Per lb . .	13½	Soap, common .	Per lb . .	06⅓
Rice	Per lb . .	12	Starch	Per lb . .	11⅓
Beans	Per lb . .	06⅝	Milk	Per qt . .	05
Tea	Per lb . .	84⅜	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb . .	12¾
Coffee	Per lb . .	32½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb . .	14¾
Cheese	Per lb . .	19⅝	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb . .	13½
Butter	Per lb . .	32	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb . .	14
Eggs	Per doz .	23	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb . .	16¾
Potatoes	Per lb . .	01⅝	Lard	Per lb . .	12
Sugar, brown	Per lb . .	08½	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	8 50
•Sugar, white	Per lb . .	09½	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	5 06
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb . .	13

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—LAS ANIMAS COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 65	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 80
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02	Syrup	Per gal. .	80
Codfish	Per lb. . .	12½	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	04½
Rice	Per lb. . .	09	Starch	Per lb. . .	11¼
Beans	Per lb. . .		Milk	Per qt. . .	
Tea	Per lb. . .	70	Beef, roasts . .	Per lb. . .	
Coffee	Per lb. . .	27½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. . .	
Cheese	Per lb. . .	20	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. . .	
Butter	Per lb. . .	27½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	11¼
Eggs	Per doz. .	27½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	14½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	01¾	Lard	Per lb. . .	10
Sugar, Brown	Per lb. . .	08⅓	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08⅓	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	08⅓			

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—LOGAN COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 50	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 90
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02½	Syrup	Per gal. .	
Codfish	Per lb. . .		Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	06¼
Rice	Per lb. . .		Starch	Per lb. . .	
Beans	Per lb. . .		Milk	Per qt. . .	
Tea	Per lb. . .		Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	
Coffee	Per lb. . .	29	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	13½
Cheese	Per lb. . .		Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	13½
Butter	Per lb. . .		Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	
Eggs	Per doz. .		Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	15½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02¼	Lard	Per lb. . .	12½
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .		Coal, hard	Per ton . .	12 50
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	08	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	7 00
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .				

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—MESA COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 22½	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 91½
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02	Syrup	Per gal. .	78
Codfish	Per lb. . .	07½	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	07½
Rice	Per lb. . .	06¼	Starch	Per lb. . .	07½
Beans	Per lb. . .	06¼	Milk	Per qt. . .	10
Tea	Per lb. . .	58	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	13
Coffee	Per lb. . .	26	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	16¾
Cheese	Per lb. . .	22	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	11½
Butter	Per lb. . .	36	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	12
Eggs	Per doz. .	29½	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	19
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02½	Lard	Per lb. . .	12½
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	8 19
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	11	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	5 75
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	11

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—MONTROSE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 10	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$1 00
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	03	Syrup	Per gal. .	1 00
Codfish	Per lb. . .	12½	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	08
Rice	Per lb. . .	12½	Starch	Per lb. . .	12½
Beans	Per lb. . .	07½	Milk	Per qt. . .	08½
Tea	Per lb. . .	75	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	12½
Coffee	Per lb. . .	35	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	15
Cheese	Per lb. . .	25	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	16¼
Butter	Per lb. . .	37½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	13¾
Eggs	Per doz. .	32½	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	17
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02	Lard	Per lb. . .	14¼
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	8 00
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	09	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	7 00
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	09

TABLE NO. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—OURAY COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 57½	Molasses, good. .	Per gal. .	\$ 1 12½
Corn meal.	Per lb. . .	03¼	Syrup.	Per gal. .	1 25
Codfish	Per lb. . .	15	Soap, common. .	Per lb. . .	06¾
Rice.	Per lb. . .	08¾	Starch	Per lb. . .	13¾
Beans	Per lb. . .	06¾	Milk	Per qt. . .	08¾
Tea	Per lb. . .	80	Beef, roasts. . . .	Per lb. . .	14
Coffee	Per lb. . .	33½	Beef, steak. . . .	Per lb. . .	18
Cheese	Per lb. . .	22	Pork, fresh. . . .	Per lb. . .	22½
Butter.	Per lb. . .	40	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	13½
Eggs.	Per doz. .	38	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	16
Potatoes.	Per lb. . .	01¼	Lard	Per lb. . .	12¾
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	09¼	Coal, hard	Per ton. .	12 50
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	09⅛	Coal, soft.	Per ton. .	10 50
Sugar, granulated. .	Per lb. . .	09⅞

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—PARK COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 12½	Molasses, good. .	Per gal. .	\$1 00
Corn meal	Per lb.	Syrup.	Per gal. .	1 00
Codfish	Per lb.	Soap, common. .	Per lb. . .	15¾
Rice	Per lb.	Starch	Per lb.
Beans	Per lb.	Milk	Per qt. . .	08¾
Tea	Per lb. . .	75	Beef, roasts. . . .	Per lb. . .	15
Coffee	Per lb. . .	32½	Beef, steak. . . .	Per lb. . .	15½
Cheese	Per lb. . .	20	Pork, fresh. . . .	Per lb. . .	13¼
Butter	Per lb. . .	32½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	14
Eggs	Per doz. .	30	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	14
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02	Lard	Per lb. . .	12½
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	09¾	Coal, hard	Per ton.
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	09¾	Coal, soft.	Per ton. .	4 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	10

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—PITKIN COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt . .	\$4 10	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$1 22½
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	05	Syrup	Per gal . .	1 40
Codfish	Per lb. . .	20	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	08½
Rice	Per lb. . .	18	Starch	Per lb. . .	15 ⁵ / ₈
Beans	Per lb. . .	09¼	Milk	Per qt. . .	11¼
Tea	Per lb. . .	86¼	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	12 ¹ / ₆
Coffee	Per lb. . .	25¾	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. . .	16 ¹ / ₆
Cheese	Per lb. . .	21½	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. . .	20
Butter	Per lb. . .	41	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	16 ² / ₃
Eggs	Per doz . .	33	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	16½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02½	Lard	Per lb. . .	15½
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	09½	Coal, hard . . .	Per ton . .	8 75
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	11½	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	5 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	11 ² / ₃

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—PUEBLO COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt . .	\$2 35	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$ 90
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02	Syrup	Per gal . .	90
Codfish	Per lb. . .	10	Soap, common . .	Per lb.
Rice	Per lb. . .	10	Starch	Per lb.
Beans	Per lb.	Milk	Per qt. . .	08½
Tea	Per lb. . .	1 00	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	11
Coffee	Per lb. . .	27½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. . .	18¾
Cheese	Per lb. . .	12½	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. . .	12½
Butter	Per lb. . .	37½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	12½
Eggs	Per doz . .	27½	Ham, smoked . .	Per lb. . .	17½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	03	Lard	Per lb. . .	11¼
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08½	Coal, hard . . .	Per ton
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	10	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	4 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	10

TABLE No. X—Continued.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—RIO GRANDE COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt . .	\$2 87½	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$1 50
Corn meal	Per lb. . .		Syrup	Per gal . .	2 00
Codfish	Per lb. . .	15	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	10
Rice	Per lb. . .	12½	Starch	Per lb. . .	12½
Beans	Per lb. . .	10	Milk	Per qt. . .	09½
Tea	Per lb. . .	87½	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	11¼
Coffee	Per lb. . .	42½	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. . .	12½
Cheese	Per lb. . .	22½	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. . .	12½
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	16⅔
Eggs	Per doz . .	27½	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	14
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	00⅞	Lard	Per lb. . .	14
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	09	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	10	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	
Sugar, granulated	Per lb. . .	10			

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—SAN JUAN COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt . .	\$3 88¾	Molasses, good . .	Per gal . .	\$1 12½
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	02½	Syrup	Per gal . .	1 25
Codfish	Per lb. . .	35	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	12
Rice	Per lb. . .		Starch	Per lb. . .	
Beans	Per lb. . .	20	Milk	Per qt. . .	
Tea	Per lb. . .	1 02½	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	15⅝
Coffee	Per lb. . .	33¼	Beef, steak . . .	Per lb. . .	17½
Cheese	Per lb. . .	25	Pork, fresh . . .	Per lb. . .	22½
Butter	Per lb. . .	47½	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	
Eggs	Per doz . .	48¼	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	19½
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	03¼	Lard	Per lb. . .	18¼
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .		Coal, hard	Per ton . .	
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	12	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	
Sugar, granulated	Per lb. . .	11¾			

TABLE No. X—Concluded.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—SUMMIT COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$3 25	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$ 98 $\frac{1}{3}$
Corn meal	Per lb. . .	03 $\frac{2}{3}$	Syrup	Per gal. .	1 01
Codfish	Per lb. . .	11	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	06
Rice	Per lb. . .	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	Starch	Per lb. . .	12 $\frac{3}{4}$
Beans	Per lb. . .	09	Milk	Per qt. . .	10 $\frac{5}{8}$
Tea	Per lb. . .	56 $\frac{2}{3}$	Beef, roasts . . .	Per lb. . .	15
Coffee	Per lb. . .	29 $\frac{1}{6}$	Beef, steak	Per lb. . .	16 $\frac{3}{4}$
Cheese	Per lb. . .	21 $\frac{2}{3}$	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Butter	Per lb. . .	34 $\frac{1}{3}$	Pork, salted . . .	Per lb. . .	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Eggs	Per doz. .	33	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	16
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	03 $\frac{3}{4}$	Lard	Per lb. . .	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sugar, brown	Per lb. . .	08 $\frac{1}{6}$	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	8 83
Sugar, white	Per lb. . .	09 $\frac{1}{4}$	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	8 50
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	09

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES—WELD COUNTY.

Flour	Per cwt. .	\$2 90	Molasses, good . .	Per gal. .	\$. . .
Corn meal	Per lb.	Syrup	Per gal.
Codfish	Per lb.	Soap, common . .	Per lb. . .	05
Rice	Per lb. . .	10	Starch	Per lb.
Beans	Per lb. . .	03 $\frac{1}{2}$	Milk	Per qt.
Tea	Per lb. . .	40	Beef, roasts	Per lb.
Coffee	Per lb. . .	30	Beef, steak	Per lb.
Cheese	Per lb.	Pork, fresh	Per lb. . .	06
Butter	Per lb. . .	30	Pork, salted	Per lb. . .	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Eggs	Per doz. .	35	Ham, smoked . . .	Per lb. . .	14
Potatoes	Per lb. . .	02	Lard	Per lb. . .	10
Sugar, brown	Per lb.	Coal, hard	Per ton . .	9 00
Sugar, white	Per lb.	Coal, soft	Per ton . .	6 00
Sugar, granulated . .	Per lb. . .	08

TABLE NO. XI.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES IN FIFTEEN CITIES.

	CITY AND STATE.		Flour, cwt.	Corn- meal lb.	Cod- fish, lb.	Rice, lb.	Beans lb.	Tea lb.	Cof- fee, lb.	Ch'se lb.	But- ter, lb.	Eggs, doz.	Pota- toes, lb.
1	Colorado	State	\$ 3 27	03½	13	11	07½	94	30½	21½	36	32	02
2	Denver	Colorado . .	3 08¾	01⅔	11⅔	08¼	05⅔	62½	31¼	22½	26¼	26¼	01⅔
3	Boston	Mass	2 67	. . .	06	10	05	75	30	20	01
4	Columbus	Ohio	2 50	02	08	10	05	60	26	18	23	25	01⅔
5	Des Moines	Iowa	2 62	02	12½	08	04	65	22	16	24	19	01
6	Hartford	Connecticut	2 69	03	06¾	08½	07	70	30	14	26½	26	01¾
7	Indianapolis	Indiana . . .	2 62½	01⅔	08¾	. . .	04¾	70	25½	16¼	25	24½	01⅔
8	Lansing	Michigan . .	4 40	02	08	08½	04⅓	50	25	14	20¼	15	01½
9	Lincoln	Nebraska . .	2 50	01⅓	09½	09	04½	59	27½	15	21½	16	01⅓
10	Madison	Wisconsin . .	2 40½	01½	09	07	05	45	27½	13	11½	16	02
11	Philadelphia	Penn	3 20	02½	08	05	05	75	25	20	25	25	02
12	Providence	Rhode Isl'nd	2 62½	03	05½	07½	08½	52½	27½	15	26½	23	01½
13	San Francisco	California . .	2 37½	02⅔	05⅔	04¾	02½	47	20¾	14	31¾	31¼	01⅔
14	Springfield	Illinois . . .	2 38	01½	08	. . .	04	65	16	20	25	20	01
15	St. Paul	Minnesota . .	2 70	01	09	10	05⅔	62½	32½	13¾	24	18	01
16	Topeka	Kansas . . .	2 60	01	12½	09	06	70	30	15	15	15	01

TABLE No. XI.

AVERAGE COST OF COMMODITIES IN FIFTEEN CITIES.

SUGAR.			Good Molas- ses, gal	Com- mon Soap lb.	Starch lb.	Milk qt.	BEEF.		PORK.		Ham, lb.	Lard lb.	COAL.		
Brwn lb.	Whit' lb.	Gran- ulat d lb.					Roast lb.	Steak lb.	Fresh lb.	Salt d lb.			Hard, ton.	Soft, ton.	
09	10	10	\$ 99	08	14	09½	12	15½	15	14	16½	14	\$ 7 79	\$ 5 94	1
07¾	08½	08¾	70	05	09½	08½	14	14	13½	13½	15½	14½	8 75	5 75	2
...	...	08	80	08	08	07	20	25	13	12	14	10	5 75	...	3
06	07	07½	60	05	05	06	12½	12½	08	10	11	09	7 50	3 50	4
07	09	10	54	06	08	05½	10	10	10	09	13	09	9 75	2 40	5
06	06¾	07½	50	04½	07	06	18¾	21¼	14	11½	14¼	11	6 00	5 62½	6
06¾	08¼	08¼	67½	07½	04½	05½	13¾	16½	10½	10	13¾	11¼	...	3 50	7
06	07	07½	65	07½	08	05	11¼	13	11¼	09	16	10	7 00	4 20	8
06¾	09¼	08½	65	03½	04	05	15	15	11¼	14	14	10	11 00	6 50	9
07	07	08	30	04	05	05	12	10	10	09	13	10½	7 50	3 50	10
06	06½	07	80	05	10	08	16	18	14	12	16	10	6 00	...	11
06	07	07½	42½	07	08	06	16	22	12½	11	14	10½	6 60	4 62½	12
06	07¾	07½	22½	05	07	10	15	15	13¾	10½	15½	12¼	19 00	...	13
...	07½	...	60	08½	...	07	11	...	11	10	15	12	...	2 25	14
06¼	07¼	08½	57½	05	07½	05	13	14	12½	12½	18	11¼	8 50	5 62½	15
08	09	09	70	07½	11	05	10	11½	12½	11	15	10	11 37½	3 12½	16

SECTION III.

WAGES PAID TO WORKINGMEN.

The average rates of wages paid to workingmen employed in the occupations named in the accompanying tables have been made up from the blanks returned to this office by employers and employ  s:

TABLE NO. XII.

Daily wages paid to men in the following occupations; also, the daily number of hours employed:

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE WAGES.		HOURS DAILY.	
	Denver.	Outside of Denver.	Denver.	Outside of Denver.
Awning-makers	\$. . to \$2 50	\$. . .	10
Blacksmiths	3 00 to 4 00	3 25	10	10
Blacksmiths' help	2 25 to 2 50	2 62	10	10
Boiler-makers	3 00 to 3 50	10
Boiler-makers' help	2 50	10
Book-binders	3 00	10
*Boot and shoe makers	2 50 to 3 25	2 53	10	10
Brick-burners	4 50
Brick-makers	3 50	3 00
Brick-layers	5 00	4 96	8	10
*Broom-makers	2 25 to 3 00	2 50	10	10
Cabinet-makers	2 50 to 3 50	10
Candy-makers	3 00	10
Carpenters	3 00	3 22	9	10
Carriage and wagon-makers	2 50 to 3 00	2 89	10	10
Carriage painters	2 50 to 3 00	3 25	10	10
Carriage trimmers	2 50 to 3 00	10
*Cigar-makers	2 00 to 3 25	10	10
Engineers, stationary	2 50 to 3 75	3 75	†

TABLE No. XII—Concluded.

Daily wages paid to men in the following occupations; also, the daily number of hours employed:

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE WAGES.		HOURS DAILY.	
	Denver.	Outside of Denver.	Denver.	Outside of Denver.
Grainers	4 00 to 6 00	10
Harness-makers	2 25 to 3 00	2 60	10	10
Hatters	1 75 to 2 50	10
Hod-carriers (brick)	2 75	8
Hod-carriers (mortar)	2 50	8
Laborers	1 75 to 2 00	2 23	10	10
Lead-pipe makers	3 50	10
Laundrymen	1 75 to 2 25	1 75	10	10
Macaroni factory men	1 75	10
Machinists	2 50 to 3 50	3 58	10	10
Marble cutters	3 00	10
Marble polishers	2 50	10
*Mattress-makers	2 50	10
Moulders (brass)	3 25
Moulders (iron)	3 25	3 25
Painters	2 50 to 3 00	3 17	9	10
Paper-hangers	2 50 to 3 00	3 41	9	10
Pipe-fitters	3 00	3 07	10	10
Plasterers	3 50 to 4 00	4 00	8	9 and 10
Plumbers	3 50	3 91	9	9 and 10
Soap-makers	1 75	10
Stair-builders	3 00	9
Stone-cutters	4 00	4 15	8.	9 and 10
Stone-masons	4 00	8	9 and 10
Street car drivers	2 00	12
*Tailors	3 50	3 75	10	10
Teamsters	2 00	1 50	12	12
Tin-smiths	3 00 to 3 50	2 75	10	10
*Upholsterers	2 50 to 3 50	10

NOTE.—*Persons employed in these occupations are paid by the piece.

†Uncertain.

TABLE No. XIII.

Weekly wages paid to men in the following occupations; also, the daily number of hours employed:

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE WAGES.		Hours per day.	Days per week.
	Denver.	Outside of Denver.		
Bakers	\$12 00 to \$20 00	\$. . .	13	6
Barbers	12 00 to 20 00	16 55	12	7
Bartenders	12 00 to 28 00	14	7
Book-keepers	12 00 to 35 00	8 to 10	6
Brewers	15 00 to 16 00	10	6
Butchers	25 00 to 40 00	15 00	14	7
Car drivers (street).	14 00	12	7
Clerks	5 00 to 25 00	9 to 13	6
*Cooks	6 00 to 25 00	12	7
Hack drivers	12 00 to 20 00	uncertain	7
Porters and janitors	12 00 to 18 00	12	7
Printers	20 00	16 62	9	6
Typewriters	10 00 to 20 00	7	6
*Waiters	6 00 to 10 00	12	7

NOTE.—*Persons employed in these occupations receive board in addition to their money wages.

TABLE No. XIV.

Average daily wages of men employed in and around mines and smelters:

Blacksmiths	\$ 3 35
Blacksmiths' helpers	2 75
Bullion handlers	2 50
Carpenters	3 56
Coal-wheelers	2 00
Engineers	3 54½
Feeders	2 62½
Firemen	3 00
Fuel dust wheelers	2 50
Fuel men in the roasters	2 75
Furnacemen	3 00
Laborers	2 28
Masons	5 00
Miners	3 02
Ore-crushers	2 25
Ore-samplers	2 75
Ore-sorters	2 86
Pot-pushers	2 50
Pumpmen	5 65
Roasters	2 87½
Roasters' helpers	2 79
Smelters	3 00
Smelters' helpers	2 62
Special laborers	3 15
Tappers	2 50
Wheelers	2 50
Machinists	4 50

TABLE No. XV.

Average daily wages of men employed in and around stone quarries:

Blacksmiths	\$ 3 00
Blacksmiths' helpers	2 25
Common laborers	2 16
Drillers	2 33
Engineers	3 00
Firemen	2 25
Paving-cutters (50 cents per square yard)	2 50
Stone-cutters	3 75

TABLE No. XVI.

WAGES OF COAL MINERS.

Weekly wages paid to men in and about coal mines; also, hours of employment weekly:

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE WAGES IN EACH COUNTY.								Average wages for the State, weekly.	No. of hours employed weekly.	
	Boulder.	Fremont.	Garfield.	Gunnison.	Huerfano.	Jefferson.	La Plata.	Las Animas.			Weld.
Blacksmiths	\$ 18 00	\$ 19 50	\$. . .	\$ 19 62	\$ 19 50	\$. . .	\$. . .	\$ 18 00	\$ 18 00	\$ 18 77	60
Blacksmiths' helpers	15 00	15 00	60
Car loaders	19 50	19 50	60
Carpenters	18 00	16 50	. . .	18 00	18 00	16 50	18 00	17 50	60
Check-weighmen	18 00	18 00	70
Dumpers	15 00	13 50	15 75	14 25	13 50	15 00	. . .	12 00	18 00	14 62	60
Engineers	18 00	18 00	. . .	20 25	21 00	24 00	18 00	19 88	70
Fire boss	21 00	21 00	60
Firemen	15 00	15 00	60
Laborers (inside)	18 00	15 00	19 25	16 25	12 00	18 00	. . .	10 50	18 00	15 88	60
Laborers (outside)	15 00	12 00	15 75	13 50	10 50	15 00	. . .	11 25	18 00	13 88	60
Mining boss	21 00	24 00	. . .	24 75	24 00	25 00	. . .	23 75	70
Miners	21 00	18 00	21 00	20 50	18 00	18 00	18 00	18 00	21 00	19 28	60
Mule drivers	18 00	15 60	. . .	18 60	15 60	15 00	12 00	15 60	18 00	16 05	60
Trackmen	. . .	16 50	. . .	18 60	16 50	16 50	. . .	17 02	60
Trimmers	15 00	15 00	60
Weighmen	18 00	17 30	17 50	15 75	24 00	15 00	. . .	17 94	65
Boys	6 00	6 00	. . .	9 00	6 00	6 00	. . .	6 60	60

SECTION IV.

RAILWAY EMPLOYÉS.

On account of the fact that the State law provides for the office and duties of a Commissioner of Railroads, the officers of this bureau did not deem it within their province to embark upon an investigation into railway matters in general. A blank form, therefore, was sent out inquiring merely into the number of miles of road operated within the State by each company, also the number, occupation and wages of employés. To these requests each company sent in a report.

The matter relating to employés, their number, occupation, etc., is herewith presented in Table XIII.

The mileage of railroads is returned as follows:

Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé	405.00 miles
Burlington and Colorado	174.89 miles
Denver and Rio Grande	1,347.00 miles
Denver, Texas and Gulf	195.00 miles
Union Pacific System	841.08 miles
Making a total of	2,962.97 miles

TABLE XVII:

RAILWAY EMPLOYEES—THEIR WAGES, NUMBER, ETC.

OCCUPATIONS.	A, T. & S. F.			B. & M.			D. & R. G.			D., T. & Ft. W.			UNION PACIFIC.			GENERAL AVERAGE WAGES.	
	No. Employed.	Average Wages.		No. Employed.	Average Wages.		No. Employed.	Average Wages.		No. Employed.	Average Wages.		No. Employed.	Average Wages.		Daily.	Monthly.
		Daily.	Monthly.		Daily.	Monthly.		Daily.	Monthly.		Daily.	Monthly.		Daily.	Monthly.		
Master mechanics	1	\$	\$		\$	\$	4	\$5 62	\$68 75	1	\$	\$125 00	1	\$	\$225 00	\$	\$ 172 92
General foremen	3	63 20	67 29	2	105 00	3 62	25	3 62	108 52	1	100 00	100 00	7	122 14	122 14	108 91	108 91
Clerks	60	115 50	67 29	25	67 29	2 72	254	2 72	81 74	1	50 00	50 00	9	76 80	76 80	67 81	67 81
Train dispatchers	10	57 00	48 93	11	48 93	1 93	75	1 93	112 43	1	125 00	125 00	5	131 00	131 00	120 98	120 98
Telegraph operators	34	70 00	67 28	19	67 28	2 61	77	2 61	58 15	82	45 00	45 00	41	60 00	60 00	53 82	53 82
Station agents	18			12	4 10	4 51	207	4 51	78 22	71	45 00	45 00	41	67 75	67 75	65 65	65 65
Locomotive engineers	53	49 00	45 00	3	45 00	2 15	10	2 15	135 58		3 85	3 85	120	3 85	3 85	4 08	4 08
Stationary engineers	13			12	2 50	2 63	217	2 63	64 58		2 25	2 25	124	2 24	2 24	2 40	2 40
Locomotive firemen	55	112 00	82 00	5	100 00	3 52	21	3 52	78 84		110 00	110 00	22	105 00	105 00	106 54	106 54
Passenger conductors	12	56 00	69 00	15	95 00	3 38	84	3 38	105 68		100 00	100 00	43	112 00	112 00	98 00	98 00
Freight conductors	25			50	64 00	2 30	188	2 30	69 08		65 03	65 03	95	80 00	80 00	66 82	66 82
Brakemen	56			14	85 00						40 00	40 00	4	40 00	40 00	58 50	58 50
Baggage men, train	10										100 00	100 00	2	110 00	110 00	105 00	105 00
Machinists, foremen																	
Machinists	16	3 00	3 00	2	3 00	2 21	193	2 21	66 42		3 25	3 25	127	2 90	2 90	3 04	3 04
Machinists, helpers	11	1 65	1 87	2	1 87						2 00	2 00	14	1 82	1 82	1 83	1 83
Blacksmiths, foremen																112 50	112 50
Blacksmiths	4	3 00	3 00	2	3 00	2 23	78	2 23	66 97		3 50	3 50	21	2 92	2 92	3 10	3 10
Blacksmiths, helpers	4	1 75	1 77	2	1 77						2 00	2 00	26	2 01	2 01	1 88	1 88
Carpenters, foremen	2	90 00									3 25	3 25	4	3 00	3 00	3 08	3 08
Bridge carpenters	33	2 50	1 92	11	1 92	2 51	118	2 51	75 47		2 50	2 50	36	2 75	2 75	2 42	2 42
Car builders, c'rp' m'ns	22	2 00	1 80	25	1 80	2 33	162	2 33	69 73		2 75	2 75	54	2 59	2 59	2 29	2 29
Car inspectors	2	60 00	60 00	13	1 70	3 33	1	3 33	100 00		2 25	2 25	26	2 45	2 45	2 35	2 35
Painters, foremen											2 75	2 75	2	3 12	3 12	2 94	2 94

<i>c</i> Painters	2	2 75	48	2 03	61 13	2 50	12	2 52	2 45
Tin and coppersmiths, foremen	3 25
<i>c</i> Tin & coppersmiths	1	3 00	2 85
Flagmen	3	44 00	48 38	66 25	8	2 94
Switchmen	28	73 00	69 00	36 67	40 00	6	40 00	41 81
Section foremen	69	61 30	56 14	70 69	65 00	67	70 00	69 54
Section hands	219	1 31	63 00	65 00	136	62 00	61 49
Freight handlers	1 39	43 85	413	1 50	1 46
Laborers	30	1 62	52 60	53 00	40	1 75	1 73
Other employes	75	1 65	1 75	57 24	86	1 71	1 75
Road-master	3	125 00	42 13	68 92	184	2 02	1 89
						100 00										112 50

a. Some station-agents also receive commission from express companies.

b. Include firemen, on the D. & R. G. Ry.

c. Include mixed passenger and freight conductors, on the D. & R. G. Ry.

d. Included in general foremen, on the D. & R. G. Ry.

e. Include helpers, on the D. & R. G. Ry.

SECTION V.

INSPECTION OF MINES.

Sections one, two and three, of article sixteen, of the Constitution of Colorado, read as follows:

SECTION 1. There shall be established and maintained the office of Commissioner of Mines, the duties and salaries of which shall be prescribed by law. When said office shall be established, the Governor shall, with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint thereto a person known to be competent, whose term of office shall be four years.

SEC. 2. The General Assembly shall provide by law for the proper ventilation of mines, the construction of escapement shafts and such other appliances as may be necessary to protect the health and secure the safety of the workmen therein, and shall prohibit the employment in the mines of children under twelve (12) years of age.

SEC. 3. The General Assembly may make such regulations, from time to time, as may be necessary for the proper equitable drainage of mines.

These provisions were evidently intended to apply to gold, silver and lead mines, for, at the period at which the law was framed, there was very little coal mining in progress in this State. Nevertheless, an act concerning the inspection of coal mines was passed in 1883, which provided for the appointment of a "Coal Mine Inspector," while the inspection of gold, silver and lead mines, by State authority, has been ignored.

In the infancy of our mining industry the necessity of mine inspection and other safety measures were recognized, and it seems remarkable that no legislation carrying out plain and mandatory provisions of the Constitution has been had. The absolute necessity for such legislation is apparent to those who have made the least investigation of this subject.

That a thorough system of inspection of mines throughout this State should be established, no humane person will deny, after reading the few expressions even of those engaged in mining and mining operations, which are hereto appended.

The complaints do not present matters as they exist, but merely give the shadow of the substance, and simply outline the terrible dangers to health, life and limb to which the underground workers are subjected.

Conditions in mines vary according to the dispositions of the respective managers or mine-owners. There are many of these who conduct business on the most humane basis, and express themselves as anxious for the enactment of laws conducive to the interests of humanity. Others, on the contrary, manage affairs in a careless manner, and, apparently, without the least regard for safety to life, limb or health of persons under their control.

Persons, only, who have visited the mining regions and have seen for themselves the risks encountered by fellow beings whose lot it is to earn subsistence at the occupation of mining, can truly appreciate the nature of the complaints made.

Among the many dangers to which men are subjected in mines may be mentioned the inhaling or absorption, owing to lack of proper ventilation, into their systems of poisonous gases, which render them either temporarily or permanently incapable of earning a living for themselves or their families, or may even deprive them of existence. The liability to being crushed to death by a falling-in of earth or mineral, as well as perils incident to insufficient timbering and to defective machinery; the danger of being maimed or killed by snow-slides, and the absence of necessary protection against the risk of being buried alive in mines, because of the impossibility of escape on account of their having only a single exit, and that being blocked by

accident; these and many other hazards which could be named, continually hang over the miners' heads from the moment of commencing to that of the close of their day's or night's toil.

In some of the mines the dangers here depicted are not encountered, but in others it is hardly possible to exaggerate the risks to which miners are subjected. Experienced miners being aware of the dangers to which they would be exposed in working in this latter class of mines, will not engage to labor there, unless compelled by absolute necessity. Those only who are ignorant of the existing conditions will accept jobs in them. The reputation attaching to these mines is that the managers neglect to adopt ordinary precautions to prevent injuries being inflicted upon workmen, and do not use even the commonest foresight which might avert disaster.

It must be admitted that there are many evils complained of which can not be overcome readily, and should legislation be undertaken to remedy all of them, it would no doubt work great hardship on owners of some mines. Take, for instance, the presence of gases. Efforts made to free mines from, and to overcome their evil effects, have not always been successful. It is claimed that the peculiar nature of the earth's *sub-strata* in some places absorbs pure air almost as fast as it may be supplied, still leaving the poisonous atmosphere to work mischief. In other mines, no attention is given whatever by the managers to the presence of gases, and no steps are taken to counteract their fatal effects. Complaints are made, even, that in some of the mines, the air is rendered horribly foul, not only by its intermixture with the ordinary gases encountered, but also by the fact that the commonest sanitary laws are neglected, and the mines are allowed to become repositories for ordure, emitting the most stifling stench.

It may be wondered why miners have not made vigorous complaints concerning many of the evils described.

The reason is, as it has been expressed to an officer of this bureau, that the fear of being discharged, and subsequently having the "black-listing" system put in force against them, compelling them to seek employment in other camps, imposes involuntary silence.

For the foregoing and other reasons, the State Legislature is expected to take steps for the appointment of a competent Mine Inspector, with aides sufficient, whose duties shall be to visit all mines in the State, and look after the enforcement of such laws relative to ventilation, machinery, timbering, shedding, and other necessary salutary measures, contemplated by the State Constitution, as the Legislature may enact.

It should be said that, so far as the coal mines and collieries are concerned, laws are in force looking to inspection, etc., which are, as far as they can be with the means afforded, well executed. But great distances between coal fields, difficulties of obtaining transportation so as to properly economize time, the fact that new mines are continually being opened up, the non-provision of sufficient means by the Legislature to enable the inspector to perform the work as efficiently as contemplated in the laws, either in person or by authorized deputy, render the service quite inadequate to the demands of health and safety of the workers.

The day after day development of the inexhaustible mineral resources of the State calls upon the Legislature to accord this subject the prompt and liberal consideration which its already great and growing importance demands.

Attempts have been made to establish the office of inspector of ore mines. Each time, however, objections, many of them of a most frivolous nature, have been urged against the measure. In some quarters the fear was advanced that inspection might expose real conditions of mines listed, or otherwise offered for sale, and thus defeat speculative schemes. In others, substantially similar objec-

tions were urged in the idea that an inspecting officer who might become conversant with the workings and capacities of mines, could, if so disposed, do the owners great injury by betraying his knowledge to other people.

It would seem, however, that where honest principles and practices prevail, there need be no fear of inspection, and the absence of these elements would afford additional argument for the legislation demanded, for the protection of intending purchasers of mining property. It would undoubtedly have a tendency to prohibit fraud and misrepresentation, which have in many instances characterized "mining deals," and which have inflicted incalculable injury upon this, one of the most important industries of the State.

It would appear to reasonable persons that none but "wild-cat," or dishonest schemers would fear honest inspection, and that all reputable persons, aside from humane considerations involved, would lend ardent support to the passage of the law needed.

The following remarks, concerning this subject, were sent in on the blank forms circulated:

Boulder County, No. 181—I think the State should provide a mine inspector for gold and silver mines, the same as for coal mines, especially in the Leadville district, or anywhere where there are wide veins and necessarily much timbering, which soon rots when above water. Inspection should extend to the quality of powder, caps and fuse used, as they are the cause of "missed holes," which are so disastrous, as miners think it cowardice to remain away from a "missed hole" longer than thirty minutes.

Clear Creek County, No. 53—The need of a mining inspector, to examine and enforce the proper working of gold and silver mines, is apparent to all who have ever been through them. The majority of them are too dangerous for men to enter. The law governing injury to employes should be modified to apply to all injuries sustained by negligence of employes, persons and corporations.

Garfield County, No. 154—The coal miners have grievances which require some redress. The air in the mines is very bad, and an inspector is needed. If a man makes the least kick against bad

air or gas, he is immediately discharged. This should be looked into, as there will be loss of life here if action be not taken immediately.

Lake County, No. 236—An inspector ought to be appointed to look after the underground workings of mines. Ventilation in the majority is extremely bad, and a light will scarcely stay burning. Owing to arsenic in the ore and lead, lead-poisoning is common, and this and the foul air render it impossible for men to work long. The number of men in our hospitals here tell the truth about these things. Then an inspector should see that mines are properly timbered, for most of the accidents occur for want of sufficient timbering. Laborers ought to have the first lien on any property on which they work. Eight hours is all a man ought to work in a mine.

No. 240—I have seen men who could only work ten days, when they would get "leaded," and then lie in hospital two weeks; often men are paralyzed from arsenic and bad air. The ventilation is horribly bad in a majority of the mines here. What is necessary here is a mine inspector, who should be a practical man and could not be influenced one way or the other. One who understands ventilation and timbering. I am in favor of the eight-hour system. You can not get a working man or a miner on a jury in this town, no matter how long you try, especially against a mining company or a railroad company. An inspector would be a big help and protection to the workers.

Las Animas County, No. 278—The neglect of bosses and managers of mines to keep mines in order, results every now and again in the killing of some miner, who leaves a wife and four or five children not knowing where in the world to get bread from. There is another horrible evil, which is the neglect to have mines properly ventilated. This is very fatal to miners. There ain't one mine in the State but what accumulates gases of deadly poison, and often the miner has to inhale it. One of these gases is explosive, and many miners have been killed by it. If strong currents of air were let into the mines, the gases would be rendered harmless, almost. If honest and competent mining inspectors were appointed, these things could be remedied. I could tell you a long list of injuries miners have received. I think the mining laws could be improved. A mine superintendent or a mine boss ought to pass an examination before taking charge of men's lives and property. Many of these men don't know the first principles of their work. The State inspector ought to be elected by the miners and not appointed. Eight hours is enough for any man employed under ground to work in one day. He has no time to improve his intellect if he works

more, and longer hours often lead to drunkenness, because weak from bad air and hard work, he seeks to get strength from whiskey and beer.

Ourray County, No. 313—Quartz mines should have inspectors as well as coal mines. In fact, they need them more, as more men are employed in this branch. Three mines employ each five hundred or more men here, while others employ twenty to fifty men each. Accidents are very numerous, and it is necessary that the cause should be investigated. Mismanagement and faulty working cause these casualties, which are nearly always fatal. Besides these, bad air and bad accommodations cause considerable sickness among employes. At mines situated above timber-line, timbering is often faulty, because of scarcity of timber.

Pitkin County, No. 336—One thing wanted in this State is a mining inspector to look after bad machinery, poor air and many other things. Miners live in danger, and if they do not like it are compelled to go and hunt elsewhere for work. Men are constantly disabled who have wives and little children dependent upon them, and often die of their injuries. I think companies should be held responsible and be made to keep their mines in order.

No. 343—We need an inspector of mines to see that proper precautions are taken for the safety of the miners, and passage of laws holding the mine owners responsible for the safety of employes.

No. 351—Please send down a mine inspector. In silver mines there are none. Mine owners leasing their mines should be responsible for wages earned in their mines, also for accidents to miners, as it is their place to see that the mine is properly worked and timbered. Hold the lessee of the mine on a bond.

San Juan County, No. 413—A thing of the greatest interest to wage-workers here are the snow-slides, which throw several out of work and many to eternity. These disasters could in many cases be avoided by our Legislature taking the matter in hand and appointing an inspector, who should see that buildings when put up and exposed to the slightest danger, should be shedded and made safe. Year after year some of our dear friends are hurled into eternity by lack of such provisions.

San Miguel County, No. 426—Wage-workers here are in constant danger of snow-slides in winter. The destruction of life has been great. Mine owners ought to be compelled to build places of safety. The saloons and gambling tables are the laborers' worst enemy here in destroying families and the minds of men.

SECTION VI.

INSPECTION OF STEAM BOILERS AND LICENSING OF STATIONARY ENGINEERS.

It will be seen from the subjoined remarks of employers as well as employés, which were written upon the forms returned to this office, that men stand in constant fear of disaster, owing to the need of a proper system of inspection of steam-power apparatus in use, and the feeling and knowledge that a large number of the persons who are permitted to occupy the responsible position of stationary engineer are utterly incompetent.

In many of the mines large numbers of men, sometimes hundreds, are engaged at work. At the mouths of the mines, where the employment of steam-power is a necessity, are situated the stationary engines and apparatus required to run them. In order to save a few dollars per month outlay as salary, the power machinery is often entrusted to the care of those who know little or nothing of the principles of the engineer's profession, but who will work for a merely nominal rate of wages. These persons are many times armed with "papers" setting forth their qualifications. These documents may be most difficult of verification, or may be forged throughout.

There being no law in the State relating to the qualifications of stationary engineers in charge of steam machinery, anyone, almost, can obtain such situations of certain employers, even if he know no more than enables him to start or stop an engine.

The number of steam boilers throughout the State is estimated at 1,500, of which about 1,200 are power boilers. When it is considered that many of the power boilers are in charge of persons who, either from ignorance or bad

habits are unfit to be allowed near them, a startling feeling of insecurity and jeopardy can not fail to take possession of the mind of the thinker.

It is also a fact that several of the heating boilers are in the care of women, whose knowledge of the science of steam is confined to experience with the domestic tea-kettle.

But the perils encountered are not dependent altogether upon the employment of incompetent and cheap so-called "engineers," who flood the labor market. Another danger arises from the use of steam boilers which are nearly worthless, and which would be condemned were they to undergo proper test. Many of them are old and worn out, but by a little skillful manipulation their defects are hidden from inexperienced eyes, and are thereby made to look almost like new. They are bought, sometimes, by persons ignorant of their worthlessness, as well as by purchasers who want a low-priced article, and who, although aware of the little better than good-for-nothing character of such boilers, will take them and run risks rather than pay the price for new and thoroughly tested ones.

It is a fact that numbers of boilers used throughout the State, both in the mining regions and other localities, have been shipped into Colorado from outside points, where, after having been condemned, they have been merely covered with a coat of black paint, and sold to the highest bidder, either for his own use or for re-sale to others.

Each day adds to the number of power and other steam boilers required for use in this State, as the purposes for which they are needed are gradually augmenting. The use of electricity, the opening up of new mines, the rapid increase in manufacturing enterprises, etc., call steam power into employment, and the use of boilers, naturally, adds to the risks run by people in whose midst they are situated—beneath sidewalks and streets, and under alley-ways, in the

basements of populously tenanted buildings, at the entrances of mines; in brief, almost everywhere.

It is not the purpose of this bureau to create alarm and present an exaggerated picture of this subject. It simply calls attention of legislators to conditions as they exist, having in view solely, protection for toilers and other citizens, by recommending the passage of such laws as are needed to secure safety, and to reduce risk to a minimum.

An amendment to the State law, entitled, "Coal Miners," approved April, 1885, provides as follows:

SECTION 7. All boilers used in generating steam in and about coal mines and collieries, shall be kept in good order, and the owner or agent shall have said boilers examined and inspected, by a competent boiler-maker, or other well-qualified person, as often as once every six months, and the result of said examination shall be certified, in writing, to the mining inspector; and every steam boiler shall be provided with a proper steam-gauge, water gauge, and safety-valve.

It will be seen that this law has reference only to boilers at coal mines, and, as far as it can be, is carried out. But it is of little good, from the fact that the "competent boiler-maker, or other qualified person," required to make the inspection, may be, and very often is, in the employ of, or in some manner interested in, the company or corporation using the boilers; therefore, not unlikely, being liable to make a very superficial inspection, and to send in a doubtful return to the coal mine inspector, who, himself, may not know anything about boilers.

Again, the law does not provide for examination into the qualifications and efficiency of men having charge of steam machinery. Proper steam-gauges, water-gauges and safety-valves may be furnished as required, but, manifestly, if in the hands of men ignorant of their use, they would be of little advantage, while lives and property would be placed in jeopardy.

There is no provision made for inspection of steam boilers, whatever, at the gold, silver and lead mines, nor at saw mills and other manufacturing establishments outside of Denver, and the remarks of men working in such mines and establishments tend to show the character of the "engineers" in charge of some of the machinery in use. This, together with the employment, in many cases, of men as superintendents, who have not the remotest idea of mine management, certainly gives employes good ground for complaint, and for earnest appeal for protection at the hands of the law-makers of the State.

The employment of a State Inspector of Boilers and Stationary Steam Machinery, who should be allowed a sufficient number of competent assistants, and who should have charge of the inspection of every boiler in the State, is called for. Add to this the passage of a strict law, with severe penal clauses attached, requiring each and every stationary engineer seeking employment to undergo examination before a duly authorized board of engineers, who should hold periodical examinations, and the days of defective boilers, incompetent engineers, and untold dangers to life and property would be greatly reduced.

The following are the remarks received on this subject:

Arapahoe County, No. 17.—I speak for a great many stationary engineers who take pride in their profession. None but competent men should have charge of steam boilers, for when the general public know the risk run by having ignorant men in charge of such an engine of destruction, they will help the true engineer secure legislation for the protection of life, limb and property. The example set by other States should be followed by our young State, but going farther; first, having a State Boiler Inspector, and appoint competent engineers to act in conjunction with the Inspector as a Board of Examining Engineers; next, compel, by law, all men wishing to handle steam boilers to procure a license from said board before they can run any boiler or engine.

Gilpin County, No. 170.—I would like to see boiler inspectors appointed throughout the State, for the very reason that there is not

one man in ten in charge of boilers in this county who knows what danger they run in firing. All they do know is they are hired to get up steam to do the work, and should the boiler or boilers be inadequate to do the work, these men think nothing of weighting the safety-valve and firing to the fullest capacity. They know nothing of the danger to themselves and their fellow-men. Many of the men hired for these jobs are unfit for the work, and in many instances boilers are unsafe. Good men would refuse to work such boilers. A few years of over-firing and the iron becomes crystalized and the danger is increased.

No. 171.—A law should be enacted providing for engine inspectors. All engineers should hold a certificate showing ability to run an engine.

Lake County, No. 237.—There are a great many men claiming to be engineers running engines at shafts in this camp, who are utterly incapable of work, and cannot prove ever serving apprenticeship. Men toiling hard at the bottom of deep shafts are at these fellows' mercy. A law ought to be passed prohibiting such people running engines. There should be one or more mine inspectors in every mining county in the State, who should make monthly reports of the condition of mines, as there are people managing mines here who do not understand the nature of ground, or keeping mines safe, and employes' lives are hourly exposed to danger under such men's management.

No. 243.—All engineers should be licensed by the State. It would be conducive to the safety of all employes. The employer would also be benefited, as his property would be less liable to danger. I think it more necessary in mining districts than in others, as the engineers have the lives of the underground miners in their hands. If all engineers were required to pass examination for license there would be little danger of incompetent men filling those positions.

No. 244.—Some steps should be taken in regard to having engineers licensed, as it would be a benefit both to miners and mine owners.

No. 247¾.—The interests of engineers and the interests of miners whose lives depend upon the skill and care exercised by engineers in this locality, and in all others, but particularly in mining districts, demand, earnestly and emphatically, the passage of a bill for the licensing of engineers. I speak as a practical and long-time engineer, not only for myself, but for all interested.

Ouray County, No. 317.—I should like to see a law passed in Colorado requiring every person running a steam engine to have a license, no matter whether engine be large or small. Many men are running engines in this section who know nothing about them except to start and stop them again. The companies can get these men cheaper than they can practical engineers. Such a law ought to be passed and put in force at once.

SECTION VII.

LIEN LAW.

The mechanics' lien law of Colorado is very cumbersome and very ineffectual. It serves none of the purposes for which a lien law should be operative, namely, the full protection of laborers and men who furnish material, respectively, for what they do, or for what they supply. It is a kaleidoscopic law in its practical application, and the degrees of contractors change with every step made in the erection of buildings.

It is difficult for lawyers, who give their entire time to the solution of enigmas, to properly locate the various degrees of sub-contractors, so called, and to ascertain their rights and liabilities.

For the mechanic or day laborer, who has to support his family on the pittance which he receives from his daily toil, there is virtually no protection, and in case he desires to have his claims and rights enforced, he must keep a lawyer constantly employed in unraveling the mysteries of this law, which should be the clearest and plainest of any on our statute books.

The lien of the mechanic or laborer amounts to nothing, if, by collusion or otherwise, the owner keeps the

main contractor fully paid, or, if the main contractor has the several degrees of sub-contractors paid up to date, which usually happens.

A diagram should always accompany the Colorado lien law, something like the "table of descents," in Blackstone, that one may keep track of the list of sub-contractors.

Whosoever does any work or furnishes any material for any structure of whatever kind, should have full compensation for such work and such material.

It is not in harmony with the theory of justice and fairness of public laws that either an owner or a contractor, sub or otherwise, should reap benefits and grow rich at the expense of unpaid toil and starving families. It seems strange that our legislature can not succeed in framing a bill which will be just and equitable to all classes engaged in building, or other enterprises of similar nature. Other States have accomplished it, and, in some, notably in Massachusetts and Kansas, the law is singularly clear and explicit. In both these States the mechanic and day laborer are perfectly protected, and the rights of the contractor are not jeopardized in the least. Those States give the first protection where it belongs, namely, to the persons who can not afford to lose one dollar of their legitimate earnings, or be delayed in court in receiving that for which they have given their strength and energy.

The law in Colorado has been experimented on for many years, with the result of being made more obscure and of less practical value each time.

In the legislature of 1887, a very excellent bill was passed through the House, but "killed" in the Senate. It contained many features of improvement, and its chief virtue was that it could be understood without a key. It should devolve on the next General Assembly to pass a law which will be just and fair to the laborers and mechanics.

A measure should be passed which will give, in fact, as well as in name, a lien to "whoever shall do work for the construction, alteration or repair of any building," etc.

Portion of the money due the main contractor should be held for a sufficient time after the completion of the work, so that all persons working under him may have a chance to find out whether or not he means to pay them, and if not, to serve their notices of intention to claim a lien. If the owner should then make payment to the main contractor before the expiration of the time, it would be at his, the owner's, risk.

Every cent contracted to be paid the laborer should be paid, and the main contractor in his dealings with others should be held to be so much the agent of the owner, that the owner should be bound thereby, even though the aggregate of such services should exceed the contract price made with the main contractor.

The owner has ample opportunity to protect himself against loss on account of probable default of the main contractor, by requiring bonds in advance, but the laborer has no recourse at present, for lost wages, excepting his suit against irresponsible parties, in many cases.

For every dollar's worth of material put into a structure of any kind, and for every dollar's worth of labor expended thereon, one dollar should be had in return, without regard to collusive contracts, so common now, between owner and contractor as to contract price, payments, etc.

The minute a laborer is employed he should have all the protection thrown around him that the main contractor has. A system of notices can readily be arranged so that injury from financial losses can come to none engaged in building, and justice, fairness, and entire protection can be accorded all.

No subject of legislation demands more prompt or intelligent action. The persons directly interested, as well as

all others who love laws which are impartial and just, should give this matter their earnest attention at the coming session of the General Assembly.

Although the terms "building" and "structure" are used in the foregoing, for the sake of clearness and convenience, the remarks must be taken as applying to work done and material furnished, in railway construction, mining, canal, and ditch construction, and in all other improvements where labor and material are required, and the law suggested should fully protect the laborer and the persons furnishing supplies in all of such enterprises.

Even in England the Government has drafted and presented a bill this year, on the subject of the preferential payment of wages, which recognizes the principle laid down in the measure introduced by one of the members of Parliament, that the payment of wages shall be the first charge on any estate. The limit of arrears, fixed at four months in this measure, is, however, reduced to two months in the Government bill.

If a monarchical government can go far enough to recognize this and other claims by wage-workers, surely it behooves the law-makers of Colorado to do similarly.

The demand for the enactment for such a lien law as is described will appear the more justifiable after perusal of the appended remarks, which, among others, have been received at this office:

REMARKS CONCERNING LIENS.

Arapahoe County, No. 5.—I think that any and all property of employer should be held for the benefit of the working man, and not for the benefit of the men who furnish material for the buildings, or the freight a railroad company may claim. Under the present state of affairs the contractor and the railroad have the best of men who do the work. The employer may mortgage his property in such a manner that the worker may get nothing. I think that in case of

failure of a contractor to fulfill his contract, the workingman should have the first claim, and that the property owner should see that all just claims should be paid promptly.

Garfield County, No. 158.—The mechanics' lien law, as it stands, is a fraud and inoperative. We want a good one the worst way. Convict labor is as bad. Eight hours in mines are amply sufficient, and six in wet shafts. Rubber clothing ought to be furnished by the employer. Railroads and mine owners should be compelled to pay salaries twice a month, if not every week. No alien should own property. Co-operation is good. Arbitration is necessary and essential.

Gilpin County, No. 171.—A lien law ought to be enacted.

No. 247¾.—I believe in a law to compel corporations and others to pay their employes weekly in lawful money, for the labor of the preceding week, and give mechanics and laborers a first lien on the product of their labor to the full extent of their wages.

La Plata County, No. 248.—Our company suspended payment early in the spring, and the men have had to wait around for months, lingering on promises. Getting tired of this, all the men stopped work. Men and boarding-house keepers lose alike. Three times within the last year long lay-offs have occurred, and the men must hoard up their earnings, or travel fifty to one hundred miles to hunt work, and leave twenty to fifty dollars behind them for thirty days or more. In the past few years I have lost about two years' wages on account of companies suspending payment, and finally "busting up." On our works here the contractors hire men at thirty dollars a month and board. The contractors deduct Sunday board-money from the men who don't work, but have established a rule of no work on Sundays, and get the best of the men. Pay earned for one month is not made due until the twenty-fifth of the following month. When a man quits, there is from twenty-five to fifty-five days' pay due him. For this he gets a time check due on regular pay-day, but not transferable except on a discount of ten per cent., arrangements being made with some convenient bank in the neighborhood. Is there no remedy?

No. 249.—All corporations should pay their employes weekly, and then if the companies become bankrupt an employe can not lose but one week's pay. There are a great many enterprises in this State run by eastern capital. Sometimes they continue work for three or four months without pay, and then turn out bankrupt. Our lien law is incomplete. Our lien must be dragged into court, and we must lose from ten to fifteen per cent. to fee a lawyer. We want effective arbitration. When workingmen strike there is a hue and cry over the country of "riot." Men seldom strike unless driven to it. Think of

men working for three months without pay, and then, on asking for some money, being ordered off the premises and accused of trying to raise a riot. Once, the men all quit quietly, and the employers put armed watchmen over the works, and raised a cry of "riot."

Pitkin County, No. 338.—We favor a law giving the laborer the first lien upon a mining claim or mine for his wages.

No. 344. I believe that laborers should have the first lien on property to the extent of their wages.

No. 346.—I believe there ought to be a lien law enacted so a laborer would be able to collect his wages.

San Juan County, No. 411.—Laws ought to be passed to secure employes wages when working for a dishonest leaser or contractor, by making the property worked on subject to a lien. If such laws were enacted, property owners would see the employes paid before paying balances to contractor, or would lease only to responsible parties.

No. 412.—I think this State is behind some others in regard to the power of a laborer to collect his wages. Some law like that of Illinois, where nothing is exempt from a labor bill, ought to be enacted.

Weld County, No. 455.—Revise our lien law so that a subcontractor or day laborer can collect what is due him.

SECTION VIII.

FEMALE WAGE-WORKERS.

The treatment to which woman in olden times was subjected by barbarous and semi-barbarous nations, and the suffering and indignities which, even at this day, are heaped upon the sex in many countries, make us regard those who are instrumental in inflicting the cruelties, with feelings of abhorrence. On the other hand, it is more than gratifying to find recorded in pages of history, the noble deeds of chivalrous men in all ages, willing to brave any danger,

even to the sacrifice of life, in protecting woman from insult, avenging wrongs done her, or to win her admiration and love. In this men were animated with the sentiment:

“Honor to women! To them is given
To garden the earth with roses of heaven.”

Pages of history are full of deeds of heroism of women, not only within the confines of their homes, and in the discharge of their sacred domestic duties, but also on the field of battle in defense of their country, their homes, their religion, and their honor, as well as the honor of their sex. The annals of art, music, science and literature are rendered brilliant with the names of women, who, by study and research, have left priceless and almost countless legacies to the stock of the world's knowledge.

Boast is made of the daily advance of civilization in the world, and, it may be asked, “Can the world boast likewise of advancement in the treatment accorded woman as she comes forward, attracted by the numerous opportunities which are presented to her in which to exercise usefulness?” It would seem not. Chivalry is not at this age an altogether lacking element among the sterner sex, but the time has gone by for women to look upon men alone as defenders and fighters of their battles, in the generally accepted meaning of these words. The boundaries of society and social customs have been immeasurably enlarged, and, to man and woman alike, does woman now look, not for favors of the romantic and poetical class, but for simple permission to assume share in discharge of such duties in life, as changes in social and business relations of the world now warrant. With that, she asks that her position in the great whirl of industry be recognized, and, that for equal services with those rendered by the sterner sex, she shall receive equal recognition and equal compensation.

But, on almost every side, is witnessed the inauguration and establishing of systems, not only the reverse of chiv-

alric, in the most ordinary interpretation of the phrase, but devoid of dictates of common sense, justice, and even of humanity. The respect due to woman in every sphere in life, is a deplorably missing quantity when sought for in a business connection in the present day. Methods now put in practice have a tendency to take from woman that which has ever elevated her in Christian communities, because

“’Tis virtue that doth make them most admired.”

Periodicals, newspapers and other publications teem with recitals of the hardships imposed on woman in her struggles, heroic as they often are, in the battle for bread, either for herself or others dependent upon her. It is plain that the time has come when the hand of pity should be raised aloft, and the voice of humanity call a stay of conduct which smacks of the barbarism of past times, or carries one's thoughts to those far-off countries, still wallowing in the gloom of savage ignorance. Is it not time that anchor were cast, and that a supreme effort were made to save this great Nation from being drawn into a pitiless maelstrom of disgrace, into which it appears to be drifting?

In coming to a consideration of female labor in this country, we are indeed amazed at the sad and fearful consequences that sincere and earnest investigation brings to light. No one who sympathizes with human suffering can impartially examine into the condition of female wage-workers who, it seems with reason, have been called “slave-girls,” “prisoners of poverty,” etc., without feeling that there is a strong and urgent necessity of checking and curbing the causes that are productive of so much evil to girls who, other things being equal, would occupy honored places in society, and be a credit to the country.

Examinations have confirmed us in the belief that among the working girls of the country are to be found characters possessing every element of womanly purity and honor, not as an exception, but as a rule.

Forced to work in order to live, they are obliged to accept positions laborious and depressing, which in the course of time must needs break even the strongest heart, and give to life no bright and happy moments—but days and nights of ceaseless toil, ending, alas! too often, in the bitterest depths of despair. And, if at times these noble, womanly souls, after years of fruitless battle with the world, give way to this destroying despair, and lay down their honorable lives, the cause of their ruin can be too frequently traced to the employer, who, living in luxury on the result of their labor, never for a moment thinks of devising means of ameliorating the condition of his employés, but devotes his time and his energy in seeking a depression of the scanty wages upon which it is impossible for many to exist in decency and honor.

The temptations which surround these wage-workers are manifold, even were they justly compensated for their labor. But when it is considered that, in addition to the numberless wiles and snares that fall across their path, and that they are also bound down to slavish positions from which they may not be able to accumulate enough to give them the very necessities of life, then, indeed, we see how vain moralizing becomes, and find ourselves forced to admit that a great source of immorality is directly attributable to the evil consequences that come of a system, the principle of which seems to be: The greatest amount of labor for the smallest wages.

Official investigations show that in New York men's shirts are made for twenty-five cents per dozen by sewing girls and women. At this figure three dollars or four dollars per week only can be earned.

In New Jersey, under the "slop-shop" system, women's and children's underclothing is made at so wretched a pittance that but two dollars and fifty cents to three dollars per week can be earned by the workers.

In one of the large cities of Ohio, the Labor Commissioner of that State discovered that shirts were being made for thirty-six cents per dozen, and that the rules of one establishment paying such wages, employing a large number of females, required that the day's labor should commence and terminate with prayer and thanksgiving.

In Indiana matters appear even worse. By personal investigation it was found that the following rates of wages were being paid in manufacturing establishments in Indianapolis: For making shirts, thirty cents to sixty cents per dozen; overalls, forty to sixty cents per dozen pairs; pants, fifty cents to one dollar and twenty-five cents per dozen pairs. A good deal of work of this character is done at the homes of the workers, who are enabled—so some of them informed an officer of this bureau—by incessant application from morning's dawn until late at night, to earn between four dollars and six dollars per week. It was ascertained that the prisoners engaged on similar work in the Indiana Reformatory Institution for women and girls, were paid the same rate of wages. Truly, under this showing, can these pathetic words of Hood be applied to free labor, at least in Indianapolis:

“Work—work—work!
From weary chime to chime,
Work—work—work
As prisoners work for crime!”

Investigations in other cities in the east have disclosed similar conditions of affairs.

In our own State, owing to eastern competition on the starvation wage-plan, are found women and girls working for mere subsistence, though the prices paid here are a shade higher. It is found that shirts are made at eighty cents a dozen, and summer dresses from twenty-five cents upward. One person writes, on the subject of shirt-making, as follows:

"The wages I earn would not keep me. My brother supplies me with provisions. It takes all that I make to keep me in clothes."

A dressmaker writes :

"If I had myself and family to support from my own earnings, as many of my sister workers have, I could not begin to get the very necessities of life."

Many similar expressions may be found in that portion of this report devoted to the expressions of female wage-workers.

"It is vain for us," remarked a clergyman, who had seen and studied this wage-schedule, "to strive to stop the downward tendency that comes from this system of starvation wages, unless you do something to better the condition of the young girls, many of whom have not yet reached the age of seven years, that are obliged to leave home and school, and every safeguard to morality, in order to eke out a miserable existence. Unless the State comes to our aid, it will be mere folly to attempt to stop the downward tendency, which so frequently ends in degradation and ruin."

Even in our own city of Denver, we find that there is a most lamentable state of affairs with regard to just compensation to women. A glance at the appended tables will furnish proof of this. Hence, we can readily see that the causes which have produced such sad results elsewhere, are to be found here in our very midst, and unless we exercise due vigilance, we can not hope to escape the consequences that have befallen communities which, like ourselves, have allowed such a state of things to become possible.

It is not the wish of this bureau to "preach" a moral sermon upon this subject, but it desires to call attention to evils which can now be remedied, at least in part, and without injury to either employer or business interests. If those persons who are continually expressing so much sympathy for "defenseless females," "poor working girls,"

and so on, and who profess to be constantly exercised over the hardships endured by those whose lot it is to struggle for a bare subsistence, would only consider how much they themselves contribute to the misery they so much deplore, they would lend invaluable aid to the cause of suppression of the evils complained of; if only part of the energy they exert in their anxiety to remedy these evils were expended upon the root, instead of being directed towards the tips of the highest branches of the tree, they would accomplish that which they claim to wish for—eradication of a system which humiliates women and disgraces men. If these people would only refuse to bedeck themselves in cheap-made goods, products of the labor of their half-clad, shivering and half-starved sisters, struggling to keep the wolf of moral degradation, as well as the wolf of hunger, from the door, they then would do much towards bringing about revolution in the social condition of those who are compelled to toil early and late for the necessities of life, and secure for them the rights which they so loudly and eloquently advocate and declare belong to them.

Referring to the wearing of cheap-made garments, Mrs. Leonora M. Barry, who has made a special study of the subject of underpaid female wage-workers, expressed the sentiment that no man nor woman who has a spark of sympathy with struggling fellow-creatures, will disgrace himself or herself, by patronizing cheap-made goods establishments, or wearing articles of attire, which are the products of little better than a slave labor system.

In a stirring appeal she says further :

“Men! ye whose earnings count from \$9.00 to \$15.00 a week and upward, cease, in the name of God and humanity, cease your demands and grievances and give us your assistance for a time, to bring some relief to the poor unfortunate, whose week’s work of eighty-four hours brings her but \$2.50 to \$3.00 per week. When men make light of the condition of women wage-workers, and declare that

there is no necessity of having any particular attention paid to them, or effort on their behalf, there comes to us a strong suspicion that such an one is working for 'self alone' and not for the assistance of humanity.

"Once more we appeal to you, by your love for the sacred name of mother, by your protecting love and respect for your wives and daughters, to sustain your manly principles, to uphold the dignity of your strong, noble manhood, and assist to uproot the corrupt system that is making slaves—not alone of poverty, but slaves to sin and shame—of those who, by right of divine parentage, we must all call sisters."

The National Bureau of Labor has already instituted investigation concerning female wage-workers in the larger cities in this country, but has not included any part of Colorado. Therefore, this bureau, for the purpose of ascertaining the conditions of female wage-working service, or at least a portion of it, in this State, took up the matter of inquiry.

On account of lack of means, the investigation did not extend beyond the city of Denver. Two special female deputies were appointed, whose duty it was to visit each establishment where females were employed. They were armed with blank forms containing a number of questions pertinent to the subject, which were to be filled in at leisure by the women and girls in whose hands the papers were left. A great deal of valuable matter was obtained, much of which, however, owing to its nature, can not be embodied in this report. Enough was secured to portray the miserable circumstances of many female employées. It should be said that employers, generally, afforded every facility to the deputies for the obtaining of information, and treated them with courtesy.

This was the experience at establishments where fair treatment, comparatively, was accorded wage-workers. At the "slave-shops" not only was the gathering of information indirectly thwarted, but the employers themselves refused

to vouchsafe answers to questions on employers' blanks; even some of the female wage-workers went so far as to use efforts to obstruct the obtaining of information, ignorant, it may be, of the penalties which the law imposes for such conduct.

Altogether four hundred and seventy-five blank forms were circulated, of which one hundred and forty-five were returned, or nearly one-third. Those persons who sent in information were of the more intelligent class. From knowledge obtained by personal observation, and from conversation with employés, the officers of this bureau became convinced that some of the employés neglected to send in returns for fear of subsequent detection and discharge by their employers. Others "begged off" because of incessant employment at their duties, from early morn to late hours at night, and the consequent indisposition from fatigue, which prevented them from writing, even to relatives; while still others said that they had embarked in efforts to secure amelioration of their condition and that of sister workers, and each attempt had failed; therefore, becoming discouraged, they would do nothing further, but let matters take their course. Many of the workers, whose accounts of hardships were related in detail to the deputies, told pitiful stories with every apparent feeling of sincerity.

An amusing feature in the experience of the deputies employed in the work described, and which caused a great deal of trouble to them, was a silly exhibition of pride, either genuine or assumed, upon the part of some of the female employés occupying positions in stores. On being approached for information they at first gladly assented to impart it, but on being shown the blank forms, on which the word "labor" appeared, in connection with the title of this bureau, they exhibited every symptom of disgust, and, stammering out excuses, refused to give any information.

The investigation developed the fact that despite the prevalent idea that higher wages are paid to female workers in Colorado than in eastern cities, the average sums in several occupations are less than paid to persons similarly employed in cities on the Atlantic sea-board. By the ordinarily imperfect method of averaging, wages it will be seen by the tables, are shown to be \$7.13 per week, but, as before stated, as the information sent in was generally by the more intelligent and doubtless better paid class of workers, in their respective occupations, it cannot be considered a fair estimate. Legitimate calculations lead to the certainty that the wages of a large majority of the female employés in Denver will not exceed \$6.00 per week. Deductions for loss of time through sickness or other causes have not been considered; the averages are based upon constant employment. When these figures are placed side by side with the cost of living, especially in frequent cases wherein workers have others besides themselves to support, the emphatic, but every-day question, "How in God's name do they live?" may well be asked.

This question may be partially answered in the case of single females, by the statement made to an officer of this bureau, by the owner of a well patronized restaurant in Denver. He said: "There are many females who take a twenty-five-cent dinner here; they also purchase a cheap lunch to take with them. That lunch, with water, is their supper and breakfast." There are many other restaurant keepers who, no doubt, could, with truth, make similar statements,

TABLE NO. XVIII. .

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

BOOK-BINDERS.

No.	Married, single or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- pl'y'd daily.	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street car.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
1	Single		10	\$ 6 00				Yes	Yes
2	Widow	1	10	9 00				Yes	
3	Single		10	8 00					
4	Single		9	7 50					
5	Single		9	6 00					

BOX-MAKERS.

6	Widow		9 $\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ c per box .		\$ 3 50	\$ 1 50	No	
7	Single		9					Yes	No
8	Single		9					Yes	No

CIGAR-MAKERS.

9	Single		10	\$ 5 50		\$ 3 00	\$. . .	Yes	No
10	Single		9	8 00		3 00	1 00	No	
11	Single	1	8	4 50					
12	Single		9	6 00				Yes	No

CLERKS AND SALES-WOMEN.

13	Single		10	\$ 3 00		\$. . .	\$. . .	Yes	Yes
14	Single		10	3 25				Yes	No
15	Single		9						
16	Single		10	4 50				Yes	No
17	Single		9			4 00		No	Yes
18	Single		9	8 00		5 00		Yes	
19	Single		9	18 00	Fore-woman . . .	5 00	2 50	No	No
20	Single		10½	7 25		5 00		No	No
21	Single		9	7 50		2 50	1 25		
22	Single	1	9	7 00				Yes	No
23	Single	1	9	8 00				Yes	No

TABLE No. XVIII—Continued.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

CLERKS AND SALES-WOMEN—Concluded.

No.	Married, single or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- pl'y'd daily.	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street cars.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
24	Single .	1	10	\$10 00	\$. . .	\$ 2 50	...	No
25	Single	9	12 00	5 00	3 25	...	°
26	Single	Yes	...
27	Married	7 50	Yes	...
28	Single	9	4 00	...	Yes	...
39	Single	9	6 00	Yes	No
30	Single	9½	3 50	Yes	...
31	Single	10	3 00	Yes	Yes
32	Single .	1	10	12 00	4 50
33	Single .	1	10	8 00	Yes	No
34	Single	9	6 00	Yes	Yes
35	Married	4	9	6 00	2 75
36	Single	9½	5 00	No
37	Single	9	8 00	3 00	2 00	No	No
38	Widow .	1	9	15 00	5 00	3 00	No	Yes
39	Single	9	No	No
40	Single	9
41	Single	10	8 00	3 00	...	Yes	No

CONFECTIONERY WORKERS.

42	Single	10	\$ 6 00	\$ 2 00	...	No	No
43	Single	10	4 00	Yes	No
44	Single	10	4 00	Yes
45	Married	...	10	5 00
46	Single	10	4 00	Yes	Yes
47	Single	10	6 00	Yes	Yes
48	Single .	4	10	6 00	Yes
49	Single	10	6 00	4 00	...	Yes	Yes
50	Single	10	4 00	3 00	...	Yes	Yes
	Single	10	6 00	Yes	Yes

TABLE No. XVIII—Continued.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

CONFECTIONERY WORKERS—*Concluded.*

No.	Married, single, or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- pl'y'd daily.	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street car.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
52	Single		10	\$ 5 00					
53	Single		10	6 00				No .	

DOMESTICS.*

54	Single		10	\$. . .					
55	Single		15	4 25					
56		15	4 25					
57	Single		14	4 25					

*NOTE.—Board and room are furnished, in addition to wages, to those employed in this occupation.

DRESSMAKERS, (Fore-women).

58	Widow		9½	\$30 00		\$ 5 00	\$ 2 50	No .	No
59	Single		10	25 00				Yes .	No
60	Widow	2	9½	35 00				Yes .	Yes
61	Married	2	9	20 00					

DRESS-MAKERS.

62	Widow	1	10	\$ 7 50		\$. . .	\$ 6 00		
63	Single	2	9½	9 00					No
64	Single		9	7 00		2 50		Yes .	No
65	Single		9½	16 00					
66	Single		10	6 00		3 00		Yes .	No
67	Married	2	10	4 80	{ Lawn dresses, } { 25 cts each. }	2 50	2 50	Yes .	
68	Single		10	5 00		5 00			
69	Single		9½	6 50				Yes .	No
70	Single		9½	10 00		3 00	1 50	No .	No
71	Single	1	10	4 50	25c to \$3 for a dress		2 50		Yes
72	Married	4	9½	7 00					

TABLE No. XVIII—Continued.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

DRESS-MAKERS—Concluded.

No.	Married, single, or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- ply'd daily.	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street car.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
73	Single	11	\$ 4 50	\$. . .	\$ 2 50	...	Yes
74	Single	9½	9 00	4 00	...	Yes.	Yes
75	Single	9½	9 00	Yes.	No
76	Single	9	2 00	Yes.	Yes
77	Single	10	5 50	25c to \$1.25 for dress	2 00	2 00	Yes.	No
78	Single	9	7 00	5 00	...	No .	Yes
79	Single	9	4 00	2 50	...	No .	No
80	Single	9½	8 00	Yes.	No
81	Single	9½	2 00	Yes.	No
82	Single ..	2	9½	2 50	Yes.	...
83	Single	9½	10 00
84	Married.	2	9	6 75	Yes
85	Widow. .	1	9½	6 00	Yes.	...
86	Widow.	9	10 00	2 50	...	Yes.	No
87	Widow. .	1	9	5 50	No
88	Single	9	5 00	Yes.	...
89	Single	9	Yes.	...
90	Single	9	Yes.	...
91	Single	9½	14 00	Yes.	...
92	Single	9½	12 00	5 00	...	Yes.	No
93	Single	9	9 00	Yes.	Yes
94	Single	9	7 50	2 50	...	Yes.	No
95	Married.	2	9½	4 50	25c to \$2 for a dress	2 50	2 50	...	No
96	Widow. .	1	9½	8 00	Yes
97	Single	9	7 00
98	Single	9½	9 00	4 00	...	No
99	Widow	6	9½	6 00	{ 25 cents to \$3.00 for a dress. }	Yes
100	Single	3	9	10 00	5 00	...	No	Yes
101	Married	5	10	6 00	{ \$1.25 to \$2.00 for a dress. }	4 00	...	No .	No
102	Single	...	15	15 00	{ \$2.50 to \$3.50 for a vest. }	4 00	2 50	No	No
103	Single	...	10	2 00	Yes	Yes

TABLE No. XVIII—Continued.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉES.

LAUNDRY WORKERS.

No.	Married, single or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- ploy- ed daily.	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street car.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
104	Single	1	10	\$ 6 00	\$. . .	\$. . .	Yes	Yes
105	Single	1	10	9 60	4 00	1 50	Yes	No
106	Single	...	10	10 00	4 00	...	No	No
107	Married	1	10	9 00	1 75
108	Widow	2	10	10 00
109	Married	...	11½	10 00
110	Single	9 00
111	10 00
112	Married	2	10	8 00
113	Single	...	10	7 50
114	Single	2	10	9 00	4 00	1 00	...	Yes
115	Widow	4	10	10 50
116	Single	...	10	9 00
117	Single	...	10	10 00	Yes	No
118	Widow	4	9	7 00	Yes

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

119	Single	1	10	\$ 6 00	\$ 4 00	No	No
120	Single	...	9	6 00
121	Single	...	10	5 00	Yes	Yes
122	Single	...	9	9 00	Yes	Yes
123	Single	...	10	5 00	5 00	...	Yes	Yes

SHIRT MAKERS.

124	Single	\$ 5 20	45 cents per shirt	\$
125	Widow	..	12	10 00	45 cents per shirt	No
126	Married	3	10	5 00
127	Single	...	9	3 50	{ 80 cents to \$2.25 } per doz. shirts	Yes
128	Single	...	9	7 50	{ 25, 35, 37 cents } each for shirts	Yes	Yes
129	Married	1	9	1 25	...	Yes

TABLE No. XVIII—Concluded.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

SEWING WOMEN.

No.	Married, single or widow.	No. sup- port- ed.	Hrs. em- pl'y'd	EARNINGS.		COST OF LIVING PER WEEK.		Bo'rd at home	Ride in street car.
				Per week.	Piece price.	Board.	Room.		
130	Single		9½	\$ 9 00	\$ 3 00	\$ 1 50	No . .	No
131	Single		9	6 00	25c to \$1 for a dress	5 00	2 00	No	
132	Single		9	4 80	15c to \$1.50 for dress	
133	Married		9½	8 00	4 00	1 00	No
134	Single		10	6 00	3 00	1 50	No . .	No
135	Widow		9½	7 50	No
136	Single		9½	10 00	Yes
137	Single	1	9	4 00	No . .	Yes
138	Single		9	5 50	Yes . .	Yes
139	Widow	2	9½	6 00	25c to \$3 for a dress	Yes . .	No
140	Single		9	12 00	2 00	Yes . .	No
141	Single		9	9 00	5 00	No . .	Yes
142	Single		9	10 00	2 50	No
143		10
144	Widow	3	9	3 00	No . .	No
145	Single		9½	10 00	Yes

By a careful canvass by officers of this bureau, of all establishments representing various lines of business in this city, the number of females employed in each class of trade or occupation, was ascertained to be as follows.

Seamstresses employed in private houses, chambermaids, or waitresses, employed in private boarding houses, are not included in the table.

The returns were gathered in March last, at a season of the year, claimed in business circles to be a dull one. It is estimated that during the busy seasons at least one-third more persons would be employed. The pickling and canning works show but fifteen females employed, while

at this writing, when the establishments are running at full strength, the number on the list is one hundred and sixty-five :

Book-binders	33
Book-keepers	28
Canning and pickle-works establishments	15
Chambermaids, at hotels	82
Cigar factories	14
Confectionery establishments	28
Cracker factories	20
Hair-workers	11
Laundries	92
Milliners	40
Paper-box factories	19
Photograph establishments	6
Printers	10
Saleswomen and clerks	210
Sewing women	335
Soap factories	7
Stenographers and typewriters	63
Tailoresses	25
Telegraph operators	10
Telephone office	14
Harness and whip manufactories	7
Waitresses	161
Total	1,230

Sewing women are employed in the following trades:

Awnings, bedding supplies, carpet-sewers, cloaks and suits, clothing, dress-making, flags, furs, gloves, linen and ladies' underwear, mattresses, shirts and tents.

It will be seen by the table, which is presented in a simple form, that one hundred and forty-five persons answered the blanks, of whom one hundred and thirty-two gave information relative to wages. Of this number, four were domestics, and five fore-women, leaving one hundred and twenty-three others.

Of the fore-women, two were single, two widows, and one was married. Their wages ranged from \$18.00 to \$35.00, inclusive.

The wages of domestics was \$4.25 per week.

As to the other workers, the figures are quite interesting. The scale of wages shows that fifty-eight, or nearly

one-half of the whole number, obtain but \$6.00 and under per week, the lowest sum paid being \$2.00; twenty-seven, over \$6.00 and up to \$8.00; twenty-nine, over \$8.00 and including \$10.00; five, over \$10.00 and including \$12.00; three, over \$12.00 and including \$15.00; and one over \$15.00.

Of those whose earnings were \$6.00 and under, forty-seven were single, six married, and five were widows; of the twenty-seven whose earnings were over \$6.00 and up to \$8.00, inclusive, nineteen were single, five were married, and three were widows; over \$8.00 and including \$10.00, the number, twenty-nine, was divided between twenty-three single, two married women, and four widows, while four single persons and one widow earned sums over \$10.00 and up to \$12.00, inclusive; two single persons and one widow received wages over \$12.00 and up to \$15.00, inclusive; and one single person earned over \$15.00.

It is shown that but one worked less than nine hours each day, while one worked as long as fifteen hours. Further examination shows that fifty-two worked nine hours; twenty-seven worked nine and a half hours; forty-eight, ten hours; one, eleven hours; one, eleven and a half hours; and one twelve. Five did not give time worked. The hours worked by domestics who returned figures are shown in the table to be ten to fifteen.

The table is of so simple a character as not to need further analysis. The figures contained in it become words which speak expressively for themselves, and, if only briefly studied, are facts and figures combined, and of a nature which bear out fully what has already been said concerning the hardships of many classes of female wage-workers. The appended condensed expressions of working girls and women tell even more, yet a great many details contained in the forms, which were returned by female employées, have been omitted, owing to the desire not to make the subject too voluminous.

Many features in the treatment of female workers are exhibited which call for reform. The long hours at such laborious work as girls and women are called on to perform are too much, whether at their homes, in the workshop, or at domestic service; whether behind the counter, or at that more injurious occupation, working the sewing machine. No time can be had for physical recreation or mental improvement. The very inadequate wages earned by the closest application by a great majority of employés, and the fact that few can scarcely balance accounts at the year's end, while the barest expenses of living often exceed their slender incomes, add mental anxieties to those incident to work, and can not fail to aggravate already weak physical conditions.

Women workers, unlike men workers, are not organized, and therefore do not enjoy social and other advantages which organization confers. No matter how skilled or accomplished women may be in the line of business which they have selected, they are most frequently compelled to accept the rates of wages given those whose knowledge and experience in work is little more than that above the apprentice scale.

If it be true, as claimed by statisticians, that the births of females exceed those of males by a very great proportion, the problems of female labor and women's social condition, even now affording food for serious reflection, will become matters of no easy solution in the near future.

There are many employers who are indifferent to the simplest considerations for those working in their establishments. Another class goes beyond indifference, and would seem to put in practice the harshest rules, pay wages scarcely sufficient to allow their employés to keep off starvation, and even go so far as to prohibit their unhappy workers taking advantage of provisions made by law for their benefit. This latter is illustrated in the manner in

which this class of employers have behaved in regard to the statute concerning seats in stores, as shown in the subjoined remarks. One other cause of complaint is the denying the use of elevators to girls and women after certain hours, and even not at all in some cases. Often, workshops are in the top stories of buildings, and can only be reached by climbing high, steep stairways, and the tendency is to run buildings up to an inordinate height. The having to climb stairs is excruciating torture to many females, equaled only by the treadmill punishment inflicted on malefactors in old country prisons.

There is another class of employers reported who insist on the "docking" process for even five minutes absence, no matter what the cause; deducting from salaries fines for most trivial causes. They require incessant labor on week days, and often Sunday work without any extra pay, and, in brief, exercise not the smallest thought concerning their workers, unless it be to regard them either as mere machines, or creatures of flesh and blood, but not gifted with human feelings and reason.

Happily, however, it will be seen by the remarks of wage-workers that there exists a class of employers possessed of qualities exactly the reverse of those described. These men are kind and considerate, and earn the gratitude and respect of those around them; and it is easily perceptible how deeply the workers appreciate them, with what pleasure they evidently perform their daily duties, and with what zest they testify to their employers' excellencies.

Taken all together, the lot of the female wage-worker, more especially those engaged in sewing, dress-making, shirt-making, etc., as means of earning a livelihood, is a pitiable one. Socially, it is a blank, and but for a system of "pooling," or, as some of them expressively and facetiously describe it, "baching," many of them could not possibly eke out an existence.

It will be seen that one matter of importance to wage-workers has not been neglected, that of ventilation and other sanitary arrangements. In only one or two instances are complaints made, in response to questions on that subject, contained in the blank forms which were sent out by this bureau. In this respect are Colorado female wage-workers inexpressibly better off than their sisters in eastern cities.

Private domestic service has its drawbacks. Yet, as stated in another part of this report, the conditions of those engaged in that class of wage-working is generally superior to that of those alluded to above. Often with barely sufficient food, scanty apparel, uncomfortably crowded sleeping apartments, in cases where several girls, for purposes of economy, occupy one room; with not a penny for resources in case of sickness or for doctor's service, medicines and extra articles of nourishing food, the "store-girls'" circumstances are often unenviable. She must necessarily be very dependent, in face of the glut of demand for such situations as she can fill, while an industrious, honest, and generally competent domestic can always find places open to her, and can almost dictate her own terms as to salary.

The only serious complaints affecting what may be classed as domestic service, come from hotels, at some of which systems of fines are imposed for various trivial causes, and the enforcement of which frequently pares down the girls' salaries materially. Bad and insufficient food comprises the theme of other complaints, which it would appear are common here, as in other cities in the country where hotels exist. The crowding of numbers of the "help" into sleeping apartments, which are declared to be "simply horrid," is another objectionable feature in hotels, which calls for reform.

REMARKS OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉES.

No. 4—As I am from a city farther east, where the best hands get only \$5 per week, I think the wages, \$7.50, here are very good, but the girls here do much more work, do it better, and give the foreman less trouble than they do in the east. I have worked many years and find that where girls are paid the same wages as men, they do as good work. You can't blame a girl for not wanting to hurt herself when she is paid a great deal less than a man for the same work.

No. 6—I have been employed at my present occupation only a few days. When I first came to Denver I worked as a domestic in a private family, and know that in many of them the poor girls are mistreated. I had to get up a quarter to five in the morning; and work hard all day until half past eight at night. I got \$15 per month. My health being poor, I had to leave my work, and have spent more than three times my wages in paying board and doctors' bills. It is hard for a lone woman in Denver to get a furnished room, and that is one reason that so many women are running the streets. They hardly ever get a friendly word or a helping hand from even their own sex.

No. 12—Am a widow, and work hard and faithfully, and can not make enough to support myself. Can earn only three dollars a week, and if we are one minute late, we are compelled to walk up four flights of stairs, which is as tiresome as running the machine all day.

No. 15—I desire to make a few remarks on this subject of your investigation. I do not care so much for myself, but I think it is a good thing, if it is carried out. It would be a benefit to a great many to close the stores Saturday afternoon, especially two months in the summer. In our store the men have easy times; they get \$1.00 and upwards a month, while the girls, who have been here six and seven years, only get \$40 per month. Seats are provided, but we are not allowed to use them. If we do, Mr. ----- will walk up and down in front of us like a mad-man, and if we don't notice him, he will ask us if we haven't anything to do. We only desire to sit when it is impossible for us to stand.

No. 18—I think women who do the same amount of work that men do are entitled and should receive the same wages. They have to pay the same for board and, in every way, their expenses are just as great as men's, and, indeed, more in some ways. I have no complaint to make, but think it could be very much better if we could have shorter hours on Saturday. I do not know what

the law is with regard to seats being provided, but we have a box behind our counter on which we sit when not busy.

No. 24—I receive \$10 per week as sales-lady, and support my sister, who is in such poor health as to prevent her earning anything. We rent one room and have the use of the kitchen for \$2.50 per week. We make our own breakfast and supper and take our dinner at a boarding house, which costs us \$1.50 per week for each of us. I have been idle six weeks during the last ten months—three weeks from sickness and three weeks from other causes.

No. 25—Instead of working three hours longer on Saturday than on other days, would like to stop work at the same hours, and earlier during the months of July and August. Wish more attention could be paid to having the stores properly ventilated. Besides the usual evils of shutting up a number of people in a close room, the poisonous dyes in every dry goods store are particularly unhealthy. If clerks themselves could be convinced that a "draught," as they call any breath of fresh air, is not the most dangerous thing in the world, they might become a less unhealthy set. I believe in organization among clerks, so that they may become more independent and more self-respecting.

No. 32—Have stuck to clerking for over six years. Have been five years with this house, and my lot is hard enough, but every day I see working girls worse off than I am. We are always "docked" for any time out of the store, no matter what the cause. If we go home sick at 3 o'clock, a half day's pay is taken out of our wages. Many times we work on Sundays, and at nights, in busy seasons, invoicing or something else. Christmas week we work every night, but never receive any extra pay. We do much more than make up for any lost time while sick. When we take a vacation it is at our own expense, and can only do so in the dull season, when it saves for the house. We work Saturday evenings until 9 o'clock, with forty-five minutes for supper, when that is the night we most need, so that we might enjoy Sunday, and not make it a week day. During July and August, the thermometer in the store stands at one hundred and five to one hundred and ten degrees. Why can not we here, as they do in the east, have a few hours vacation to breathe during the hot season? Most of the counters are too narrow to admit of any stools behind them. It would have been better for us had the law providing stools never been passed. We have a few stools from which to reach down goods, and we make the best of an opportunity to rest when we can, but the proprietors will scowl at us and give us something to do. It looks better if the clerks are kept busy all the time. A man in my place would get double the wages I do.

No. 34—Have worked here six months, and have a very pleasant work-room, with every accommodation. We sew on many kinds of work, and are paid by the piece. For some work we receive a fair price, but for other work, especially shirts, we get very little, and it is almost impossible to make living wages.

No. 37—Yes, we have the seats provided by law, but what good are they when we are not allowed to sit down on them? I think we ought to quit work at 5 o'clock on Saturday evening, and what a boon it would be to close early in the afternoon, like they do in the east. On the side of the store where I work there is no way of ventilating. We never get any fresh air, and consequently suffer with headache all the time.

No. 39—The only objection I have to my present work is that we have to work late Saturday evenings, instead of having a half holiday on that day.

No. 42—I am employed in a factory and earn six dollars a week. I wish to state that six dollars per week will not support an honest working girl who depends solely on herself for support. I am staying with friends and find that I have no money to spare at the end of the week.

No. 45—I think ten hours a day too long for female workers. Many of them have to cook, clean, wash and sometimes care for some sick person in their family, and also do many other things too numerous to mention, after a hard day's work. They can not afford to have such work done for them, their pay is far too small.

No. 51—I get six dollars a week and find it only enough to buy clothes and pay incidental expenses. I stay with my sister and don't know what I would do if I had to pay my board.

No. 55—I have lived in Denver eight years. Am doing general housework in a private family and have to work usually fifteen hours per day. This kind of work is a hard experience for women who are compelled to work for a living. No matter how bad we feel, so long as we can drag around at all, we must do the work set out for us, or lose our place. As a rule, girls who do general housework have no homes and no affectionate home ties, and the treatment we receive from some women employing us makes us feel terribly alone in the world, and when we think of all the work we are expected to get through with in a day, no wonder we are heartsick.

No. 56—I have been in Colorado seven years and am doing housework. My work is planned out for me by the mistress, and though I work hard and faithfully from five o'clock in the morning until nine o'clock at night, there is more work than six pairs of hands

could do in twenty-four hours. I cook, wash, iron, bake, dust and sweep in a ten-roomed house. I attend to the furnace, and carry in coal for five stoves and keep up the fires. The mistress got angry with me because I ate before I fed the dog. I think Colorado needs an honest employment office, conducted without fees, at the expense of the State, where honest working girls could go to obtain work.

No. 57—I work at the -----; wages twenty dollars per month; hours from 5:30 a. m. until 8 p. m. I send my washing out, because if I do it here, I must furnish my own soap and starch and coal. Any dishes broken must be replaced. If the dish-pan gets a hole in it the girl must get it mended, or its cost is kept out of her wages. If a girl eats between meals she must expect to be discharged without a moment's notice. If she refuses to pay for broken dishes, she is told to work a notice or lose her pay. -----'s employment office generally supplies such places with help. They must pay a dollar before they get the place. They are told it is a very nice place, but the girls learn it is not, by sad experience. Another feature with employment offices is, that when you put down your name, pay the fee, then wait a week or two before you are offered one, then finally get a place without its assistance, you are told that such an act is in violation of its rules, and consequently lose the fee paid to it. At the end of one year and nine months I have saved \$150 with great economy. I belong to no society.

No. 60—Am working for one of the best firms in the city, and one who pays its help for all holidays, such as Thanksgiving, Christmas, New Years and the Fourth of July, and no other firm in the city does this. Our employers are kind and considerate.

No. 62—We are compelled to walk up to the fourth story to the cloak-room, and then down one flight to the work-room, as we are not allowed to use the elevator after 8 a. m., before 12 m., and after 1 p. m., and before 6 p. m. We dare not complain of anything for fear of being discharged. It is impossible to make a living here or at any store in Denver. Two of us could not possibly make six dresses a week. That would be \$7.50, averaging 62½ cents a piece. The finest work done in this department is only paid \$3.50 and \$4.00 a dress, and it will take two of us two to three days to make one.

No. 63—At present my time is so limited I can not write as freely as I would wish, but I must say a word in favor of the firm for which I work. I have been sewing for seventeen years, and this is the first firm I have ever known to pay for a legal holiday, and I believe it is the only firm in the city who does so.

No. 65—I've nothing to say about the firm I work for; they have always treated me well. I have been in their employ for six years. Never lose time only when I want a holiday. Never lost a day from ill-health, one blessing for which I am thankful, as I have had to support myself since I was thirteen years of age.

No. 67—To say that I was glad to learn the nature of the business on which the ladies called this afternoon, would hardly express my feelings, and I am heartily thankful that at least the condition of the working women has created an interest sufficient to cause the matter to be looked into. Although my own lot or condition is not deplorable, it is simply because I am not wholly dependent upon my own resources; but I know that if I had myself and a family to support, as many of my sister workers have, I could not begin to get the very necessities of life. I want to say that it grieved me sorely to see some—not many—of the women not only indifferent on the subject, but actually opposed to this good work. It does not seem possible that the women of America could be so ungrateful to those that are trying to help them to a better state. If we receive all our employer can afford to pay for our work, and give him a reasonable profit, it is different; but if not, it is wrong. I only want what would be right, as right wrongs no one.

No. 68—I do not wish to make complaint, yet it seems proper that I should say that we are not allowed to use the elevator after 8 o'clock in the morning, after 1 p. m., nor before 6 in the evenings; and also that we are only paid one dollar and twenty-five cents for making a white dress, which they sell for twenty dollars, and seventy-five cents for a dress that sells for five dollars. We can not make enough to pay our board and room rent.

No. 71—I desire to say that our salary is very small. When we have paid our board, washing, room rent and a little for clothes, there is nothing left. If we working girls could get ourselves organized into a union and establish a price list for piece-work, we would be better situated than we now are.

No. 73—I served an apprenticeship of one year at the dress-making trade. I now receive from twenty-five cents to three dollars for making a dress, and can earn but from four dollars and a half to six dollars a week. I have to live very economically. Another girl and myself room together and board ourselves. It seems as if we could be paid a little more for our work. A girl has to furnish herself with everything, including the machine she uses.

No. 74—I have a good place and like it very much. It is a good firm to work for, but I think they do not pay enough for piece work. Some of the girls do not make enough to pay their expenses and dress themselves as they should.

No. 77—My parents live in Ireland, and I have to do what I can to help the younger members of the family. I am employed as a dress-maker, and can earn but little more than five dollars per week. I would do other work, but my health will not permit me to do anything laborious. I pay eight dollars per month for my room and board myself. The average cost of my provisions is two dollars a week. Clothing costs me very little. When I buy my dinner it costs me fifteen cents, or ninety cents per week. I often find it quite hard to get along. I have to furnish my own sewing machine, the rent of which is two dollars and a half per month. In the establishment where I work, we are not allowed to ride on the elevator during certain hours, but must walk up long flights of stairs.

No. 84—A sewing woman can not make a living at piece work. I am a first-class cloak-maker, and for making a tailor-made jacket or ulster I get but four dollars, and it takes three days to finish one nicely. Then they will give me something else, so that, perhaps, I will make five dollars the next three days, and so on for about six months in the year. The balance of the time, if we have work at all, we earn on an average of four dollars to five dollars per week.

No. 87—My occupation is sewing; I earn five dollars and fifty cents per week. I make dresses for which I am paid from twenty-five cents to seventy-five cents each. I pay two dollars and fifty cents per month for the use of a sewing machine, which comes out of my wages. I can also state that we don't get price enough for sample dresses.

No. 94—Have no reason to complain of treatment. Our forewoman is very kind and makes it as pleasant for us as she can, and likes to have us make good wages. Of course we think and know the firm could well afford to pay better wages, but as they do not wish to do so, we try to work cheerfully for what they choose to give us. The machinery in our department is run by steam power, and only takes a slight pressure of the foot to run the sewing machine, which makes it very nice and easy.

No. 99—I work at dress-making and make by the piece and by hard work from \$4.00 to \$6.00 per week. Am a widow with five children dependent on me, and I lose considerable time attending to my children. They are all boys from five to twelve years of age. The oldest is a cash boy, earning \$2.00 per week. He is young and intelligent and ought to be in school, but circumstances compel me to have him work until one of the other boys is old enough to take his place.

No. 100—I think we ought to quit work at two o'clock on Saturdays. We have to do our shopping in our lunch time, or else go to some little Jewish store, and often at night at that.

No. 101—I want to speak of the inconvenience of being compelled to walk up or down stairs if we are not on hand at just a certain time, or if we are a little late in getting through work, and I think we are paid very little when working by the piece.

No. 102—Am a tailoress, and learned my trade with an uncle in Canada, serving six months without pay, and have worked at it in different places for eleven years. Have been in Colorado one year and seven months. Worked three weeks for -----, but work was dull and I could not get enough to do, so I went to Salida to work for a tailor, who agreed to pay my fare there if I stayed three months. At the end of five months he refused to do so; I gave the matter to Judge -----, paid him \$1.50 and collected only \$6.00, while the fare was \$9.20. Came back to Denver and went to work for ----- Work getting dull, I again left the city for a couple of weeks. When I returned, I went to work at the same place, and the cutter told me I could have plenty of work as soon as I got settled. So, concluding I would have steady work, I furnished my own room, paying \$68.00, having to pay \$10.00 per month for the bare room. When I went for work he did not want me, as he had engaged another vest-maker, probably for less money, and tried to justify himself by telling me a falsehood about her having a widowed mother to support.

No. 105—Our present employer takes a kindly interest in our welfare, and we are well paid for our work in comparison to the wages received by employes in other laundries in the city. I should like to express my views in regard to housework in this city; I have had experience in that kind of work. The wages are usually twenty dollars per month; hours from 5 a. m. till 8 o'clock at night—often later. The girl's room is usually cheerless and uncomfortable, and without the necessary amount of bed clothing. Then it is often very difficult to get the wages due. There are three parties owing me small amounts for housework done two years ago. I give my own experience, but mine is not an isolated case—there are many like it.

No. 106—I have worked at the ----- hotel, and can say that I did not get enough to eat; what little we did get was not fit to eat. We could not work on the food, and the rooms were filthy. The room that we had to eat in was down in the cellar, and would make one sick on going into it. I have been in many places, but that is the worst place of all, and if you made any complaint you would be discharged.

No. 107—I am a shirt maker and learned my trade at Mr. -----'s establishment. I do not have work regularly. During the past nine months I have earned \$202.59; or, on an average of \$5.19 per week. I board myself and live very economically. My expenses for nine months have been—for rent, \$63; provisions, \$25.52; clothing, \$63.77; making a total cost of \$152.29. There are other expenses which take nearly all I can earn.

No. 109—I learned my trade as shirt finisher at Troy, N. Y. My earnings there were fourteen dollars per week for nine hours' work, but here I have to work from ten to thirteen hours per day for ten dollars a week. Last fall the wages were cut down to nine dollars per week. We refused to work for that, and Chinamen took our places, but could not do the work satisfactorily, so we were again employed at our old wages. Our pay is small for the number of hours we work, yet if we object the Chinamen are ready to take our places again.

No. 111—I have been working for ----- for almost six years, and am very well satisfied, as I know my employers are among the kindest and the most considerate in the State, and pay the best wages of any similar establishment in the city. On several occasions I have been sick, or would take a vacation, and have always been re-installed. I not only speak for myself, but for others. I work at a machine and sit down all day. Receive ten dollars per week and extra pay for over-time.

No. 114—I am very well satisfied with my work. The proprietors are very kind and pay good wages, and we are always paid for over-time.

No. 117—I have worked about eight years at sewing and laundry work, and I think if girls were treated more respectfully, it would save many of them from ruin. At the present time I am well pleased with my place, get good wages, and have no cause for complaint, except that my work in the laundry is rather hard.

No. 118—I work in a laundry and get \$7.00 per week. Ten hours is said to be a day's work here, but we very often work over-time, sometimes until eleven o'clock at night, and get no extra pay. Some men work only eight hours a day, and why should we women be compelled to work longer and get less pay?

No. 124—I worked at the ----- hotel and could not get enough to eat to keep up my strength. What we did get would make us sick. I know of one girl who was sick for some time from the bad meat they gave us to eat. I could not room there on account of the filth.

No. 126—Have no fault to find with the management of affairs, or with my treatment, but I do think the wages are very low.

No. 127—I make shirts and am paid from 80 cents to \$2.25 per dozen. My average earnings are \$3.50 per week. The wages I get would not keep me, only that I live with my brother and he supplies all the provisions and pays the rent. It takes all I make to keep me in clothes.

No. 130—I want to say that I hope something will be done to help working-women get wages enough from their different occupations to live comfortably and honestly. I fare so much better than many others that I do not want to complain one bit; yet I would be so glad to be able to save something more toward a rainy day and old age. My expenses, washing and all, come to twenty dollars per month, and I can save fifteen dollars per month as long as I can make my present wardrobe answer. Even cheap clothing costs like everything. I get tired every day and long for something to look forward to besides this steady routine. What can one do? The house where I board sometimes gives me very good cooked meals. We don't expect elaborate tables, but we do want good cooking, though plain, and we should have it; we pay what they ask and get nothing homelike in any respect. We are simply boarders. If sick we receive care in proportion to our pocket-book, as at other boarding houses. Some of us are debating the economy of a cheaper room and boarding ourselves. Yet, we don't know but that the economy might prove dear in the end.

No. 132—I am a seamstress and have lived in Colorado for four years. My wages now average four dollars and eighty cents per week. Last year my total earnings were one hundred and seventy dollars. My expenses were: Rent, ninety-six dollars; provisions, twenty-four dollars; clothing, fifty dollars. It is almost impossible to make a living at wages paid to seamstresses. If I did not have money saved from several years ago I would be in debt now.

No. 133—I am a seamstress and am paid \$8.00 per week. I do not know just what my earnings were for last year, as I kept no account of them, because it takes about all I can make to pay for board and clothes.

No. 134—My parents live in Ireland and are entirely dependent on myself and sister for support. I served an apprenticeship of three months, seven years since. I have worked at the trade ever since. I am a good seamstress and work hard. I do not take ten minutes at noon; no matter how hard I try I can not make over \$1 per day. I pay rent for machine, \$2.50 per month. Am not able to afford to ride on street cars, therefore I have to walk, and if I hap-

pen to be one minute late, I have to walk up long flights of stairs, and am not allowed to go on the elevator. I think our grievances are too many to tell about, and I pray for a change for the better.

No. 135—DEAR SIR: There are two subjects to which I would like to call your attention, and which I think works great injury to female wage-workers. The first is that the skilled and competent laborer is often required to work for the same wages as an unskilled person; the second, is the fact of independent people monopolizing positions that poor dependents ought to occupy. This custom is base and should be remedied so that those who have to depend entirely on their own labor for support would not have to compete with those who do not.

No. 139—I think it wrong for married women and girls, who are not compelled to work, to come and work such hours each day as they see fit, thereby keeping women who are absolutely compelled to work for a living out of employment. We should be paid more for our work so that we might earn one dollar and fifty cents per day. We are now making dresses at forty cents apiece; can only make two a day, and have to furnish our own sewing machines.

No. 140—My only remarks are that sewing girls ought to be allowed a half holiday every Saturday, to give them a chance to do their shopping and attend to other necessary duties that they have not the time for otherwise. The half holiday is given in the eastern cities, and why not here? The merchants would acquire just as much wealth, and the working girls would be greatly benefited by it.

No. 141—Now, as I have answered your questions, I will give my opinion. On Saturday afternoons I think girls who have worked hard all the week should get off an hour earlier. The Madames ought to treat girls with some respect. They jaw and scold, and think they can't get enough work out of a poor girl, and they will tell you if they hire you they want their money's worth out of you. Favorites they will have—some one to tattle what this one and that one does, and then comes the ill-treatment. If you try to curry favor and honey around the Madame you stand some show of a permanent situation, but if you don't, you are in fear of losing your place from one hour to the other.

No. 142—What I complain of is that we working girls never have an hour's time to do our shopping, and very little time for making or mending our clothes. Therefore, must work on Sundays, instead of having the day for rest or attend church. My sister and I keep house together, and it does not cost us over twenty-five dollars per month each to live, and that includes everything.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

So many complaints having been made relative to female domestic service, it was thought to be a proper subject for investigation by this bureau. The inquiry lasted through several months, during which seventy-nine advertisements, which appeared, one or more at a time, in the daily newspapers of this city, were answered by persons in the employ of the bureau.

It will be seen that some of the advertisements, which are here produced, were not for domestics, but, in order to ascertain the amount of work required, the wages paid, accommodations afforded seekers after employment, and other matters, it was deemed expedient to answer them.

It will be seen that, as a general thing, the lot of the domestic, at least in this State, is not one of such misery as many declare to be the case. That domestics have to work hard, as a rule, and, in some instances, do not secure adequate wages, can not be denied; still, their position, taken all in all, with certainty of plenty to eat, places of safety, and, with perhaps few exceptions, of comfort wherein to sleep or pass leisure time, is far superior to that of the female employé in most of the mercantile and manufacturing establishments. Many mistresses have eccentric qualities, and, it must be granted, there are few who accord to those working under them considerations called for. On the other hand, domestic employés have to bear the blame for many of the unpleasant experiences which they encounter, because of their own lack of patience, consistency, and other good qualities, which they might exhibit and practice.

ANSWERS TO ADVERTISEMENTS.

WANTED—Girl for light housework and care for two children.

Place visited—Had already engaged another girl at \$2.50 per week. Must do the housework, take care of the children and make herself generally useful. Must take charge of the children evenings and can not have any stated time to herself.

WANTED—Competent second girl to take care of children. Call at No.Glenarm street.

Place visited—Large house and family of twelve—including seven children. Second girl must do up-stairs work, sweeping, dusting, cleaning, etc., throughout the house; must wait on table, help the cook, mend and sew. Might get off Sunday afternoon if mistress is not going out. Wages, \$20 per month.

Nurse girl must take especial charge of two babies, one three and the other six months old; must bathe them, wash their clothes, eat and sleep with them, and soothe them at night if they are restless, so that mistress will not be awakened. Mistress is very particular about how her work is done; says very few can please her, but is willing to teach them her ways. Nurse must not expect to have any time to herself, as there is plenty of mending, etc., to do. Wages, \$15 per month. Can not say whether she will keep girls during the summer, as family is going to Manitou.

WANTED—Girl for general housework; must be a good cook; no washing. Call after 9 o'clock.

Place visited—A doctor's residence. A large house and have considerable company. Had already engaged a girl and would not give much information. Was very fussy and particular about the way the work was done and would have nothing whatever to do about the cooking, as girl must be first-class in that respect and take entire responsibility. Most of the washing was sent out and girl would have only a few pieces to do. In case girl came up to her expectations, would be willing to pay \$23 per month.

WANTED—Small girl to take care of baby at No. Welton street.

Place visited—Wished a girl to take care of baby. Must help the other girl once in a while when the baby is asleep. Will pay \$1.75 per week.

WANTED—Apprentice girls at No. Stout street, to learn dressmaking.

Place visited—Wished apprentice girls for dressmaking. Would like a girl that knew how to sew some. Would pay small wages if the girl was smart. Did not think it right to have a girl work for six months without paying her something, for they would get discouraged and would not take the interest they would if they got a salary.

WANTED—Good girl to assist in general housework; German or Swede preferred. No. Stout street.

Place visited—A good German or Swede girl was wanted to assist in general housework. On calling found they had already engaged a girl, and would give but little information, only that the girl had a great deal of work to do. Would pay \$20 per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework at No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Wanted a girl for general housework. The lady would help to cook and the girl would not have to do the hard sweeping. Family of seven—herself, husband and five children. Girl could get out twice a week. Wages, \$20 per month. Girl would have to do all the washing and ironing.

TAILORESSES.

Applied for work at -----'s tailor shop. Found nine girls working there and four or five men. The proprietor said that was the largest shop in the State and employed thirty-seven persons. Had a shop on Lawrence street, between -----streets, where four men were employed; another on Eighteenth street, between -----streets, where four men were employed, and had five coat makers, three women making vests and two making pants, at home. Paid for work by the piece—\$1.50 to \$1.75 for the best vests and pants, while he did the pressing. Said the girls made \$8, \$9.00, \$10.00, \$12.00 and some as high as \$15 per week, though they worked hard. Shop was open at 6 o'clock in the morning, and they could work as long as they liked. Some very good workers he paid \$2 per day. Could promise plenty of work all the year round. Was not a union shop. Were going to move to No. ----- Lawrence street, to a shop fitted up expressly for their work, and then would enlarge the force of workers.

WANTED—Immediately, a good cook at No. Broadway.

Place visited—Wanted a good cook. Family of seven; wages, \$25 per month; girl must do all the washing and ironing; quite a large house. When we called they had already engaged a girl.

WANTED—Girl for general housework in small family, at No. Arapahoe street.

Place visited—Had already engaged a girl for general housework, and could get no information.

WANTED — An experienced girl for second work. Apply at No. South Fourteenth street.

Place visited—An experienced girl for second work. Must take care of ten rooms and sweep the parlor and sitting room and dust them before the family comes down in the morning; must sweep upstairs quite often and must clean the windows every week, and on Mondays and Tuesdays must do the cooking in addition to her other work, while cook does the washing. The girl must be very smart, clean and neat; must also wait on table and always wear white aprons; must be through with her work up-stairs by noon, so that she can take out the baby and the two children; must wear her hair plainly combed, as mistress will not allow frizzes or curl papers; can get out every other Sunday afternoon; wages, \$20 per month.

WANTED — Girl to assist in housework. No objection to a woman with infant. No washing. No. Fourteenth avenue.

Place visited—Must do cooking and general housework. Boarding house of three stories. Could not ascertain how many in the house to work for. When question was asked, mistress replied that none but a mean girl would ask that question, but that she liked the face of the girl who applied. Nevertheless, she considered the question too impertinent for a girl to ask, as it was just as easy to make three pies as it was to make one, and so with the rest of the work. During the conversation she mentioned having ten children and spoke of three daughters living with her; one married, and her husband and child also staying there. Would teach the girl to be a first-class cook, and on the applicant saying she had done second work, tried to persuade her that that work was not desirable, and she would make her a first-class housekeeper, so that she could get

married and know how to keep house. Was shocked to find that the applicant wanted \$20 per month, wages, and said that very few places paid that, and she never paid more than \$16 per month. She said she had had girls come to her and offer to work for nothing if she would instruct them. One girl who had worked for her, left and afterwards came back and with tears in her eyes, handed her \$50 in gold, begging her not to be offended, but she would be so glad if she would teach her to cook for that amount. Girl was treated as one of the family, only she could not eat at the table with them. Could get out occasionally in the evenings. Must be very kind and patient and must not answer back when mistress was cross.

WANTED—To-day, a young lady of education, refinement and good appearance, for position paying \$15 per week. Apply between 10 and 11 o'clock, at office, No.....,block.

Place visited—Found room-----, on the door of which was the sign ----- . On entering found the room filled with a large number of young women, and were told that Mr. ----- would be at liberty in a few minutes. In about an hour Mr. ----- opened the door of his private room and called in the girls one by one, letting them out by another door. My turn coming, I was admitted into the private room, the door closed, and was told to be seated. Asked what my business was; said "office work;" wanted to know if I could do type-writing; said "yes, on the Remington;" also if I was an expert stenographer; said "no, had not done that work for a long time;" "well, how many words can you write a minute?" he asked; said I had probably forgotten all about it. On asking him about the situation, was told that it was in the city and right in the block, in fact it was right here in this office. He said "we have an extra Caligraph type-writer and you could learn to use it in a few days; can't you brush up your short-hand and come back in a few days and I will get you a good place?" Had been there about an hour and a half, and during that time, about twenty-five girls had applied for the place. Said he occasionally had places to fill in his offices in Utah, Wyoming and different places. He answered questions relative to the nature of the work with great hesitancy.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; good cook. No.....Terrace.

Place visited—A girl for general housework wanted. Must be a good cook, take care of six rooms, do all the washing and ironing, except shirts, collars and cuffs. Must take full charge of cooking, as mistress did not want the responsibility of planning the meals. Seven

people in the house, but only six to cook for, as one of them did not board there; three children, herself and husband and roomers. Had to cook three meals a day; as her husband did not like cold meals, must always have hot suppers. Would like the girl to see to the children when she went out. Girl could get out once or twice a week. Wages, \$20.00 per month.

WANTED—Girl at No. Tremont street.

Place visited—Wished a girl to assist in housework, washing, ironing, sweeping, dusting and keep the walks clean. The lady said she would help the girl until she got through. The house is very large. Would pay \$20 per month. Had engaged a girl before we called.

WANTED—Several good waist and skirt hands immediately. Apply at No. Larimer street.

Place visited—Wanted several good waist and skirt makers. Would pay \$8 per week. Could not afford to pay any more, but would have work all the year round. Hours, from 7.30 a. m. until 6 o'clock in the evening, with an hour for dinner. Girl must do all kinds of work, make button-holes, etc., and understand her business.

WANTED—Seamstress. Call from 8 to 10 a. m. No. Larimer street.

Place visited—Wished a good seamstress. Come to find out they needed a girl to make over gents' old clothing. The proprietor was not in, but we were informed by a girl employed there that he paid \$1 a day, and the work kept one very busy. Hours, from eight in the morning until six in the evening, with a little time for lunch.

WANTED—Apprentice girl for millinery, at No. Larimer street.

Place visited—Wished a girl to learn for three months, and if she was satisfactory at the end of that time, then proprietress would commence to pay her \$2 per week, and gradually raise wages if she kept on improving. Must have some knowledge of sewing. Hours, from 8 a. m. until 6 p. m.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; small family. No. Welton street.

Place visited—Mistress claimed that the advertisement was a mistake, as she had not advertised since a week before.

WANTED—A dining-room girl, and one for general housework. No.....Curtis street.

Place filled, but were informed that dining-room girl received \$20 per month, and in addition to the usual duties belonging to that place she had to wash dishes. Was a large boarding house, with usually about twenty-five people to work for. Lady did not know what kitchen girl would receive.

WANTED—Girl to do general housework. No.Arapahoe street.

Place visited—Mistress not at home. Were told to call again about twelve o'clock. In answer to inquiries, was told that girl was required to cook and bake for about twenty boarders, besides the family; sweep, dust, take care of seven rooms and do the plain washing and ironing. Could get out occasionally after her work was done, but would find plenty to do. Wages, \$20 per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework and to assist in cooking. Apply, No.....Champa street.

Place visited—Had already engaged a girl and could get no information.

WANTED—Girl to do general housework an hour or two every day. Apply at No.....California street.

Place visited—Wanted girl to work a few hours every day. Cleaning, sweeping, dusting three rooms. Need not come Sunday. Wages, \$1.50 per week.

WANTED—A young girl to help at light house-keeping and nursing. No.....Curtis street.

Place visited—Wanted a young girl to assist at light housework, take care of two children and make herself generally useful. Wages, from \$6 to \$10 per month, according to ability.

WANTED—An experienced girl for second work and to assist in dining-room; large boarding house. No.....Welton street. Come prepared to go to work.

Place visited—A large boarding house, with about forty boarders, not including family. Girl for second work must take care of twelve

rooms up stairs, and also the parlor and halls down stairs; keep walks and porches clean, and assist in waiting on table. Wages, \$20 per month. Dining-room girl must clean all the silver, wash dining-room dishes, wait on table, wash and iron napkins and keep the room bright and clean. Wages, twenty dollars per month. Can get off occasionally if she manage right.

WANTED—Girl for general housework. No. Champa street.

Place visited—Large house. Would not tell number of rooms. Seven persons in family, five of them children. Girl must do all the work up stairs and down, keep grounds in order, be a first-class cook and do all the washing and ironing. If she got through with the work could go out one afternoon during the week, and could have Sunday afternoon. Mistress said work was hard and she was very particular how it was done. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A competent girl for general housework in a small family. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—On applying for the place was answered very shortly: "I have one," and the door was closed.

WANTED—A competent woman for general housework; must lodge at home. No. Twentieth street.

Called at the place, but could gain no information, as they had already engaged a girl.

ADVERTISED for a seamstress on a sign outside the house. No. Twentieth street.

Called and was informed that a good seamstress was wanted to do dress-making. Wages, from four to five dollars per week, according to what she thought girl was worth. Hours from 7:30 a. m. to 6 in the evening. Could go out for luncheon. Was also told that none but the very best dress-makers could get a dollar a day.

WANTED—Apprentice to learn the millinery trade. No. Larimer street.

Saw advertisement for apprentice in the window of a millinery store and called. Wanted a young girl with good taste, and must be neat and quick with the needle. Must serve three months without

receiving any wages, and at the end of that time would get one or two dollars per week, and would thereafter be advanced according to ability.

WANTED—A good girl for general housework in small family. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Wished a girl for general housework in a family of three. Did not have the washing done at home, as the house is too inconvenient for that. Must do all the other work, such as cooking, sweeping and dusting in a six-room house. Had not paid but two dollars per week, and would not like to pay more than that. Her work was not hard. Girl must also take care of baby sometimes. Was recommended to go two doors from there, at No. Curtis street, where they wanted a girl for general housework. The house was larger, but mistress claimed the work was quite easy, and she did not wish to pay more than two dollars per week.

WANTED—A girl; must be a good cook and laundress, in a family of two. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Two in family. Large house of eight rooms. Girl must be a good cook and first-class laundress, and take entire charge of the house and keep sidewalks clean. Can get off one afternoon in the week when mistress is not going out, and can have Sunday evenings. Wages, eighteen dollars per month.

WANTED—Two girls in a private family; one dishwasher and one for general housework; German or Swede preferred. No. Champa street.

Place visited—Had already engaged girls, but were informed that it was a large boarding-house, with from twenty to twenty-five boarders. Claimed the work was quite easy, but kept girls very busy from morning until late in the evening. Had dinner at half past six in the evening. Dish-washers received twelve dollars per month, and girl for general housework, if a No. 1 girl, would receive twenty dollars per month. Need not expect to have much time to go out.

WANTED—An experienced girl for general housework in a family of three; a pleasant place. Apply Monday, at No. Champa street.

Place visited—Had large house. Family of three persons. Girl must be a good cook and laundress, a first-class worker, and must keep the entire house in order. Could have time to go out occasionally, in the evening, after the work was done, and on Sunday afternoon. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework, no washing. Also, good laundress to come Mondays and Tuesdays. Apply at No. Broadway.

Place visited—Applied for general housework, and was informed that she had concluded to dispense with laundress and let the girl also do the washing. Had recently returned from a visit to the east and was impressed with the large amount of work done there for small wages. Nine in family, viz: three boarders, four children, herself and husband. Nine rooms in house. Girl must be a first-class cook and laundress, take care of dining-room, and, also, do the general housework. Did not like to have girls go out, as it was inconvenient, and she would have to do their work while they were gone. Wages, twenty-five dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework at No. Champa street.

Place visited—Girl already engaged. Must do all the work about twelve rooms, must sweep, clean and dust all of them, and keep porches and sidewalks clean. Must do all the cooking, washing and ironing. Can go out occasionally, and must take care of children sometimes. Wages, \$25.00 per month.

WANTED—A first-class woman cook. Apply. No Stout street.

Place visited—First-class cook wanted in boarding house; twelve to fifteen boarders and four in family. Must take charge of kitchen; dining-room hours generally from half past eight in the morning until nine o'clock in the evening. Might get off Sunday evening, but no other time, as work would keep her very busy. Wages, \$25.00 per month.

WANTED—A girl to do general housework and cooking. No. Stout street.

Place visited—Wages, \$15.00 per month. Six rooms in house, three in family. Must do all the work in and about the house, be a good laundress and a neat and tidy worker. Could occasionally go out.

WANTED—A girl to assist in a small family. No. Lawrence street.

Place visited—Live in half of a large double house. Three grown people, two small children and girl, making five in family. Must

assist in all the housework, cooking, baking, ironing, etc., and keep walks, etc., in order. Can have part of one afternoon and evening each week, and usually Sunday evening or afternoon. Must be fond of children and take care of them. Wages twelve dollars per month.

WANTED—Millinery apprentice, at No.
Sixteenth street.

Place visited—Apprentice wanted with talent, and one who can sew well. Must serve six months' time, and then, if talented, will receive three dollars per week. Later on will receive five dollars per week. Was told that an apprentice who had been with her for some years had been promoted recently to "trimming," and now received six dollars per week. Hours 8 a. m. until 6 p. m., with an hour at noon.

WANTED—A good seamstress who can scour
also, occasionally. No. Lawrence street.

Called and found that a good seamstress was wanted in a tailoring and repair shop. Must have experience in that line and do cleaning and repairing neatly. The place was in a very small room, dingy and untidy, and with no means of ventilation; girls were obliged to work and sew in the same room where men transacted their business or loafed about. Ten hours a day, and would be paid according to amount and kind of work done, usually from five to ten dollars per week. Only one girl employed.

WANTED—A first-class dress-maker by the day,
must be good fitter and draper, at No. Stout
street.

Place visited—For a first-class dress-maker, draper and fitter, will pay two dollars per day. Work not steady. Ten hours constitute a day's work.

WANTED—A competent girl to do general
housework. German preferred, at No.
Curtis street.

Place visited—Wages, sixteen dollars per month. Large house, eight in family—four children and four grown people, with occasional company. Must be a good plain cook, a good laundress, and do up shirts, collars and cuffs. Must sweep, dust and do general work. Can get out occasionally when convenient.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; Swede preferred. No. Sherman avenue.

Place visited—Mistress not at home, but person in charge gave the following information: Large two-story house, six in family—three small children. Must do general housework, cook, wash, iron, and occasionally see to the children. Wages from fifteen dollars to twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A reliable girl for general housework. Apply at No. California street.

Place visited—Six rooms in house and six in the family, including children. Was told that she had been paying eight dollars per month to former girls, who did the housework, dusting, sweeping, etc. Mistress assisted with cooking, and girl did all the washing and ironing, with the exception of a few starched clothes. Would pay probably ten dollars to fifteen dollars per month, if girl would do all the work, and iron shirts, etc. Might have an afternoon or evening out when through work.

WANTED—Girl for general housework in a small family. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Wages, fifteen dollars per month. Three in family, including baby. Four rooms, but would soon move into new house with seven rooms. Mistress an invalid, and girl required to do all the work, including washing and ironing, and sometimes take care of the baby. Would arrange that the girl would have some time to herself.

WANTED—A servant girl for general work. No. Curtis street.

Visited the place and found a large house. The girl is required to do general housework, including washing, ironing, taking care of walks, out-buildings, etc. Could have an afternoon, and occasionally an evening out. Wages twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—At No. Stout street, an experienced chamber-maid. Can go home when work is done.

Place visited—Wages, fifteen dollars per month. A very large boarding house. Could not ascertain number of rooms or amount of work to be done. Would depend upon how swiftly girl worked when she got through.

WANTED—A competent Swede girl for second work and to take care of children. Apply No. Stout street.

Place visited—A nice, neat, orderly girl wanted to do second work and take care of two children. Inquired what church girl attended, if very neat, and if fond of children? Must look after them and pick up their play-things when through playing. Must be a good seamstress, make all the children's clothes, and do all the plain sewing. Take care of seven rooms and the dining room. Had a great deal of company; girl must dress well and understand how to wait on table nicely and gracefully. Could have a few hours out during the week, and could have every other Sunday afternoon. Wages, fifteen dollars per month.

WANTED—Cook and second girl, at No. Fourteenth street.

Place visited—A large boarding house. Must be a first-class cook, washer and ironer; also good at bread and pastry work. Sixteen in house to work for, and must clean walks, etc. Wages, twenty-five dollars per month. Hours from six in the morning until eight p. m., and, occasionally, later. Could have every other Sunday afternoon out. Second girl must do all up-stairs work, wash and iron table linen every day or so, and wait on table; also, answer door bell and make herself generally useful. Can have every alternate Sunday afternoon, and, if smart, some time during the week, to herself. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A good girl for general housework. Apply No. Welton street.

Place visited—Wages, twenty-five dollars. Very large house. Keeps boarders. Had engaged a girl. Must be a good cook, washer and ironer, and do general work.

WANTED—Girl for general housework, at No. Stout street. Reference required.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars per month. Five persons in family. Mistress an invalid confined to her bed. Must be a very responsible and reliable person, take entire charge of a house of eight rooms, be a good cook and laundress, wait on door-bell in the doctor's office, keep the grounds, walk, etc., in good order. Can have very little, if any, time to herself, as work will keep her time fully occupied.

WANTED—A smart girl about fourteen years old. Apply, No. Fifteenth street.

Place visited—A young girl wanted. Must be strong and active. Hours, from seven o'clock in the morning until half past six at night, and until eight o'clock on Saturdays. Must bring luncheon, as she is not allowed to leave the store during the day. Will be kept very busy—no time to be idle. Her work will be to sweep the store every morning; everything must be moved and dusted; clean the windows, and, in order to do so, must climb step-ladder outside on the pavement. Store to be scrubbed two or three times a week, as floor gets very dirty, and must scrub on her knees with a brush. Must wash, iron, brush, clean and press all articles of clothing coming in, etc. Wages, two dollars and fifty cents per week.

WANTED—Girl for general housework, family of four. Apply at No. Stout street.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars per month. Four in family. Must do cooking, washing, ironing and general housework; shirts, cuffs and collars sent out. Can have Sunday afternoons out, and occasionally an evening, but wishes girl to stay in the house evenings to keep her company, as her husband is seldom home.

WANTED—A good girl for general housework. Apply at No. Champa street.

Place visited—Had already engaged a girl. A large boarding house. Girl must be a first-class cook and baker, take charge of dining room and do washing and ironing. Will pay from fifteen dollars to twenty dollars per month, according to amount of work done. Can have an afternoon in the week, and occasionally an evening.

WANTED—A good girl for general housework: highest wages. No. Broadway.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars. Five in family—three children and two grown persons, not including girl. Six rooms in house. Girl must take entire charge of house, do washing, ironing, baking, etc., and wait on mistress, who is sick at present. Has recently come here from the east, and wants a girl until she gets well.

WANTED—An experienced seamstress. Call on, No. Stout street.

Place visited—Stated they had recently come from the east and did not know what wages were paid here, and would not make any

agreement. Would not be able to tell what she would pay until the end of the week the girl sewed. Hours, from 8 a. m. until 6 p. m., with an hour for luncheon.

WANTED—A good second girl; references required. No. Grant Avenue. Apply Thursday afternoon.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars per month. Apparently a pleasant place. Girl required to do second work, which consisted of chamber work, doing all the light sweeping in a very large house, waiting on table, doing mending and having charge of two children. Three girls were employed in the house, viz: one laundress, one cook and one second girl. Each had one evening out during the week, and every third Sunday afternoon.

WANTED—An experienced girl, at No. California street.

Place visited—And found to be a restaurant. Girl required to help with all the work, cook for boarders, wash, iron, etc. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework. No. Welton street.

Place visited—Large house; girl will be kept hard at work, washing, ironing, cooking, baking, sweeping, dusting and taking care of children. May have Thursday and Sunday afternoons out, if through with work. Wages, five dollars per week.

WANTED—Pants and vest makers. No. Lawrence street.

Place visited—Girls must be first-class workers. One dollar and fifty cents paid for pants and vests, each. Can average one dollar and fifty cents per day. Are not allowed to take work home, but must work in a very much disordered room, which apparently serves as parlor, bed room and kitchen for the proprietor.

WANTED—A good girl for general housework, at No. California street.

Place visited—A large house. Seven in family, including two children. Must do all the cooking, washing and ironing, and sweeping throughout the house, and occasionally look after the children. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl to do general housework.
Apply at No. Champa street.

Place visited—A doctor's family. Must do general housework, including cooking, washing, ironing, and answer the bell, and make herself useful. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—At No. Place, a girl
for general housework.

A new house, very conveniently arranged. Girl required to do all the work in the house, washing and ironing, etc. Five in family, including two children. Are lenient in regard to girl going out. Wages, twenty-five dollars per month.

WANTED—A woman for general housework:
must be good cook and laundress. Call at
Tremont street.

Place visited—Woman for general housework; must be a good cook and especially good pastry cook. Four in family. Wages, twenty dollars per month. Hours, from six in the morning until nine or ten o'clock at night, and when the mistress goes out in the evening, the girl must stay with the baby until her return. Must do the washing, ironing, take care of seven rooms, and is kept very busy all day. When the girl applied for the place, mistress said she would have only one fire to take care of, but after taking the place, was required to keep up three, and sometimes four fires, and had to carry the coal from a shed, which was in an alley a block away. Is at liberty to go out Wednesday afternoons, from half past two o'clock until half past four, and Sundays from half past four to eight or nine o'clock in the evening. Had a pretty good room.

WANTED—A girl for general housework. No.
..... Washington avenue.

Place visited—Large house; wages, twenty dollars per month; ten in family, including two babies. Must do all the cooking, baking, dusting, washing and ironing, with the exception of a few cuffs and collars. Called at front door and rang the bell four times; finding no one came to answer bell, went around to back door and knocked loudly three times. Was finally admitted by the nurse girl and waited half an hour for the mistress to come down stairs after she had been told what was our errand. Two afternoons in the week was the time the girl was allowed to herself.

WANTED—A cook; also, girl employed during day to work mornings and nights for board and room. No..... Fourteenth street.

Place visited—Cook wanted to cook for from sixteen to twenty boarders. Must be first-class cook and must also wash and iron. Wages, twenty-five dollars per month. Hours are ordinarily from 5 a. m. to 8 or 9 p. m., if girl is smart. Can never get out unless she leaves her work after supper and finishes it when she gets back. Must take all the responsibility on herself, as mistress will not render any assistance whatever. Also, girl wanted who works during the day, to take care of dining room and wait on table. Cannot go to work until half past eight in the morning, and must be back at a quarter to twelve, noon, and a quarter to six in the evening. Will receive board and room with the cook for her compensation.

WANTED—A girl for laundry work. No Stout street.

Place visited—But little information obtainable. Very large boarding house. Girl will be kept busy washing and ironing all the time. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl to do general housework at No California street.

Place visited—Very large and somewhat dilapidated house. Family of nine people. Girl must do all the cooking, baking, washing and ironing for five in the family. Must thoroughly sweep and dust the entire house at least once a week, and take particular care of the kitchen, dining-room, hall, porches and out-buildings. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; none without good references need apply. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—A large and fashionable house; four in family, man, wife and two children. Will take no applicant without first talking with the girl's former mistress and getting satisfactory references from her. Is very particular, especially in cooking. Must do all the work in the house and care for the walks, etc. Must be a good laundress, and can go out occasionally. Wages, twenty dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; German preferred. No. Curtis street.

Advertised in the morning paper. Called the same morning and found they had already engaged a girl.

WANTED—A skirt-maker, at No. Welton street.

Place visited—Private dress-making establishment. Wages, seven to nine dollars per week. Hours of labor, 7:30 a. m. to 6 p. m. Time for lunch, one hour. Will be employed only during the hurried season.

WANTED—Seamstress, at No. Lawrence street.

Place visited—Wages, five to six dollars per week. Hours of labor 7 a. m. to 6 p. m., with an hour for lunch. Employment compels woman to stand sometimes all day pressing garments. Ventilation bad.

WANTED—Form lady at once. No. Sixteenth street.

Place visited—Wages five dollars per week for girl with good form and looks. Hours, 8 a. m. to 6 p. m. One hour at noon. Employment compels girl to stand most of the time.

WANTED—Girl for light housework in small family; heavy washing done outside; will not pay high wages. No. Arapahoe street.

Place visited—Must do general housework. Six rooms in house to care for. Five in family, including three children, one a small baby. Heavy washing done outside. Wages, ten dollars per month. Twelve dollars per month paid if girl does all the washing. Required to take care of the children. Might get off for a short time one evening during the week.

WANTED—A girl for general housework; German preferred. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Wages twenty dollars per month. House of twelve rooms. Eight in the family. Girl required to do all the work alone. Monday, wash; Tuesday, iron; Wednesday, bake, and if she has time is allowed to go out for a short time in the afternoon; Thursday, sweep and dust the whole house; Friday, clean the silverware, scrub

porches and out-houses; Saturday, thoroughly clean and scrub kitchen and tinware, etc.; Sundays, may get off in the afternoon at about two o'clock, if she is smart. Depends upon whether they have company, if she can get away in the evening.

WANTED—At No. Stout street, a girl to do general housework.

Place visited—Claimed she did not advertise for a girl, but since we were there she would see, as she had just discharged the second girl. Must be strong and very quick about the work. Six bed-rooms to attend to, and whole house to keep thoroughly free from dust; the walks, porches, etc., to keep clean. Eight in the family—man, wife and six children. Also, must do all the mending for the family. Could probably go out one evening during the week, and occasionally on Sunday evening, to church, but was required to be in never later than half past ten. Did not like girl to have company, and the girl was not allowed to receive any gentleman. No girl who had a beau was wanted. Would attend to the cooking herself, but might want girl to assist occasionally. Girl had a room to herself up-stairs; she was not like her neighbor, who put the girl to sleep in the basement. Wages, fifteen dollars per month.

WANTED—A girl for general housework. No. Curtis street.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars per month. Girl required to take care of dining-room, kitchen and two bed-rooms, cook and bake for eight persons, wash and iron for four persons. Could get out occasionally during the week and Sunday afternoon or evening, as the girl preferred. Could usually get through the work and rest a short time in the afternoons. Had a comfortable room to herself in the barn.

WANTED—A girl for general housework, in a family of three. No. Grant avenue.

Place visited—Wages, twenty dollars per month; three in family, consisting of invalid lady and two children. Girl required to take care of a large house, keep it scrupulously clean and do all the work, washing, ironing, cooking, sweeping, etc., etc. Could usually have one afternoon in the week and Sunday evening to herself.

WANTED—First-class skirt-makers. No. Broadway.

Place visited—A first-class skirt-maker wanted; must be a stylish draper, etc. Hours from 8 a. m. to 6 p. m. One hour at noon. Wages eight to nine dollars per week.

SECTION IX.

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

Very few of the blanks which have been sent out from this office to be filled in by wage-workers have been returned without having something written in them under the head of "Remarks," relative to the over-crowded condition of the labor market.

Particularly is this the case with the documents returned from the mining camps and other places where extensive works were in progress. These complaints are, in some instances, very bitter, and exhibit a very deplorable condition of affairs. It is noticeable that there is no complaint concerning an overplus of female workers in the country, that feature of the overstocking of the work mart being confined to the larger cities, such as Denver and Pueblo.

It would appear from these complaints that men of all ages and nationalities, all anxious to work, flock to scenes of industry, expecting to obtain employment at good wages immediately on arriving there. On the contrary, they not only find avenues of honest support closed, but hundreds of idle men waiting and watching closely for a chance to slip into work. They discover, further, that the men who reached the field before they did, in numerous instances, being still out of employment, have run through their small savings, and are reduced to suffer hunger and exposure. Without money they are unable to go to other places to seek work, unless by becoming "tramps," as the world calls many of these unfortunate wanderers, whose unhappy condition, in very many instances, is not of their own seeking, but lies at the doors of others who have profited at their fellow-man's expense. Of these men, who finally become scattered about the State, great numbers find

their way to the cities and large communities, only to discover that there, also, is a glut of laborers.

Here comes in the "intelligence office," or "employment agency," the existence of many of which, under present conditions, for the seeker of work, is little better than a cruel trap. They serve as mediums to extort precious, hard-earned dollars from the pockets of their patrons, the keepers and others interested in the establishments deriving the only benefits. Some of these places are curses to society and disgraces to the communities in which they are situated. Kept by conscienceless men or women, under the garb of outward respectability, and endorsed by municipal license, they are often places where the procurement of innocent girls is carried on with impunity.

Hundreds of instances could be given showing wherein men, attracted by black-board announcements outside these places, have been swindled, heartlessly, out of their last penny, in payment of fees, furnished with cheap railroad tickets at their own expense, and then sent to far-off places, only to discover that there is no work. It may happen that some of these poor dupes may return and prosecute, but the record of convictions is a very short one. Men, discovering they have been swindled, may institute complaint to the police, but the wily defendants know that by securing delay in the law's course, their victims, who must seek work or starve, can be shaken off. Continuance is asked in court, and on plausible grounds, is granted by magistrates. Before the hearing comes off, the victims have disappeared and the criminals escape.

But a thousand times worse than this defrauding of men, is the cheating of defenseless women and girls, and the brazen, bare-faced manner in which proprietors, male and female, of some of these establishments, act as agents for keepers of dens of infamy scattered about this and neighboring States and Territories. Numerous instances could

be cited by officers of this bureau, of cases of this nature, which have come to their knowledge, not only wherein innocent girls have been sent to vile places in the country or mountain towns, but to notorious sinks of vice in this, our own city of Denver. One of the most recent cases of this character is wherein two good, respectable girls, seeking situations and being desirous of keeping together, were sent by a Denver "intelligence office" keeper to a well-known city and "mining camp" in the mountains. One was directed to a respectable hotel, and the other to another place. The latter girl had scarcely arrived in the city when she discovered the vile character of the establishment she was at. She declined to stay there. She and her friend, after being swindled out of some \$32.00, for fare and other expenses to the camp, determined to return to Denver, where they instituted complaint at this office. Investigation was set on foot at once, and a prominent resident and local police officer, one of the persons communicated with on the subject, sent a letter to this bureau, in which, among many other things concerning the place, not fit for publication, he says:

"I have frequently arrested and brought before the court the parties keeping this house, for immoral conduct and maintaining and keeping a disorderly place. It has the reputation of being the most disreputable place in -----."

On being spoken to on the matter, the proprietor of the intelligence office became indignant at what he considered was interference in his business affairs, assumed an air of injured innocence, and declared that the girls had been deceived by persons who were "down on the place."

The sending of girls out on "fools' errands," after extorting fees from them, is of constant occurrence, but is a virtue beside the practices described above, which, but for the dread of exposure felt by modest and sensitive victims, would be prosecuted in the courts. Hence, it will be seen

that circumstances shield the criminals, who can continue with comparative impunity in their shameful course.

There are other features connected with methods pursued by some keepers of these places, which call for exposure. It is a fact that they act in a sort of partnership with foremen having the charge of employing workingmen, where appreciable numbers of people are required to labor. Application for work is refused, unless it comes through an intelligence office. Fees are paid to the latter, applicants are sent to the foremen, who employ them and keep them for two or three days, then discharge them and employ others whose applications have been made in a similar manner. The essence of all being, a scheme to "play rounders," as it were, at the expense of the workers, the foremen and the intelligence office proprietors being supposed to divide the fees.

A notable instance of extortion by employment agents occurred last year, and came near being attended with serious results. A large number of men were sent to Glenwood, where they were told, work awaited them. The men paid fees and railway fare, and on arriving at their destination, discovered that they had been cruelly duped and were in a strange place, many without money. Their natural indignation found vent, and but for the action of the railroad companies in affording them free transportation, there is no telling to what extremes the men would have gone.

It would be an almost endless task to undertake to recite even a small proportion of cases similar to the above, which have come to the knowledge of this bureau.

In intimate connection with this question, and, in order that some computation might be made of the number of men who were out of employment, circulars were sent to sheriffs of counties throughout the State, asking for information on that point. This was between the middle of May and the middle of June of this year, 1888. Of the sheriffs of the

forty-two counties communicated with, only sixteen took pains to reply, each purporting to give the number of idle men in his county. The aggregate, from the few returns sent in, showed two thousand; Arapahoe county, which had at least fifteen hundred unemployed men, not being included. It must be considered that the figures were taken at a season of the year when work is plentiful, but it is evident that there was none for a small army of wage-workers to do.

To put an end to the over-crowding of the labor market, both male and female, and the attendant evils involved in the wholesale making of tramps, the filling of the hospitals with sick, worn-out men and women, the crowding of the insane asylums with beings driven to madness by disappointment and despair, and the crowding of the poor-houses, and even the jails and penitentiaries of the country—the roots of the system, if such it may be called, from which these evils spring, must be attacked. The importation of foreign pauper and contract labor by corporations must be entirely prohibited by the general Government; this done, the States and Territories can work upon foundations on which to erect superstructures which shall be bulwarks of defense to each, and afford protection to the toiling masses.

The incessant devices of steamship and railroad corporations to obtain, at any cost, foreign and domestic emigrant patronage, must be put a stop to. The effects of their actions in this respect on the country at large are too well known and deplored to need notice here.

But immediate interest is centered in our own State of Colorado where the burden has become almost intolerable by the exaggerated and often utterly false representations made by pamphleteers and advertising schemers, who scatter documents broadcast over the country.

While the legitimate advertising of the resources of the State should receive the greatest encouragement, illegiti-

mate advertising, which leads thousands of people to suppose that the demand for laborers here is unbounded, that wages are fabulously high, and that delighted employers greet comers of either sex with open arms and little short of carry them to their work, is what causes serious mischief, and should be discouraged.

One of two things the Legislature can do for the protection of strangers and others seeking situations, is to either assume control of the intelligence offices and regulate them by stringent laws, or supplant them by the establishment of bureaus operated under State regulations.

The State considers idleness a crime, hence the imposing penalty for vagrancy, mendicancy and similar misdemeanors. Is it not wise for the State to go beyond mere penal measures of such character, and extend a helping hand to every person who desires to secure employment? Would not the manner of doing so be the establishment of employment bureaus as suggested, under State authority, in all cities and towns belonging to the first and second classes; also, in cities created and existing by special charter, having a population equivalent to those of the first and second classes?

It should be the duty of bureaus so established, to keep a register or registers in which to enter the applications of all persons, male and female, skilled and unskilled, who desired to secure employment. The register, by proper provision, could be made to furnish statistical information with respect to age, sex, nationality and numbers engaged in, and the wages of, different callings.

Suitable provision should also be made for protecting the laboring classes from imposition, such as requiring the obligation of some responsible person, when laborers were sought to be taken to any distance from home, so that when they reached the place of destination they would receive employment at the wages promised. This protec-

tion might be in the shape of a penal provision, making any imposition a misdemeanor; also, by securing adequate damages to the injured person or persons.

Wherever a labor employment bureau was established, under State authority, the running of employment offices by private persons should be prohibited under severe penalties.

There should also be a severe penalty attached to abuse of the law, by the officials of the employment bureau, to prevent favoritism in giving employment to applicants. In short, the registry of applicants should be left open for public inspection at all times during reasonable office hours,*so that any one desiring to employ an applicant could do so, under proper regulations for the protection of the laborer.

Should the Legislature deem it inadvisable to establish employment offices under control of State officials, there can be no good reason advanced why laws should not be enacted regulating, in the strictest manner, employment offices run by individuals, so that those who are compelled to seek work through them may receive the amplest protection.

PART VIII.

Unpublished Census Statistics for 1885.

PART VIII.

Unpublished Census Statistics for 1885.

The following statistics of the population and industries of the State, which have never, before this, been published, and which have intimate relation and bearing on the contents of this report, can not fail to be of interest to all readers of it. They are compiled from the official census returns on file among the State archives:

The entire population of the State may be classed as follows:

BY RACE.

WHITE		COLORED		CHINESE		INDIANS	
1885	1880	1885	1880	1885	1880	1885	1880
239,585	191,126	3,262	2,435	861	612	202	154

Indians living in tribal relations, or on reservations, are not included in the enumeration.

The sex of the races here represented is shown by the following table:

SEX OF THE RACES.

	Males.	Females.
White	142,088	97,497
Colored	1,751	1,511
Chinese	835	26
Indians	107	95
Totals	144,781	99,129

By the term "colored," mentioned in the tables reported, is included all blacks and mulattos. The Mexican population is classed as white, and not separated in the enumeration.

The following table will show the aggregate population and sex, as given by the census of 1885 and that of 1880, respectively:

	1885	1880
Males	144,781	129,131
Females	99,129	65,196

Of the population, we have 192,568 native born, and 51,342 foreign born. Of the native born, there were born in Colorado, 23,926 males, and 22,901 females, a total of 46,827.

There were 86,021 males, and 59,720 females born in other States and Territories.

The sexes of the foreign born are divided as follows: Males, 34,834; females, 16,508.

Foreign countries are shown to be represented as follows: British America, England and Wales, Ireland, Scotland, German Empire, Sweden and Norway, China, Switzerland, and France.

AGE OF POPULATION.

In the following table the sexes are separated, and show the State to have :

	Males.	Females.
Over 21 years of age	97,017	58,052
Under 21 years of age	47,764	41,977
Over 18 years of age		
Under 18 years of age		
Totals	144,781	99,129

THE CIVIL CONDITION.

	Males.	Females.
Single	95,829	52,614
Married	44,522	40,714
Widowed	4,000	5,416
Divorced.	430	385
Totals	144,781	99,129

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES, 1885.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
Alamosa	Conejos	754
Alma	Park	468
Alpine	Chaffee	86
Ames	San Miguel	49
Antonito	Conejos	168
Animas City	La Plata	83
Animas Fork	San Juan	41
Argo	Arapahoe	304
Ashcroft	Pitkin	238
Aspen	Pitkin	3,374
Berthoud	Larimer	105
Black Hawk	Gilpin	1,209
Bonanza	Saguache	256

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES—Continued.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
Boulder	Boulder	3,112
Barso	Conejos	227
Breckenridge	Summit	957
Brighton	Arapahoe	135
Buena Vista	Chaffee	1,146
Buffalo	Jefferson	155
Cañon City	Fremont	1,579
Canfield	Boulder	188
Cantonment	Montrose	123
Caribou	Boulder	138
Castleton	Gunnison	32
Castle Rock	Douglas	132
Cenesiro	Conejos	163
Central City	Gilpin	2,472
Chaves Plaza	Huerfano	171
Cimarron	Montrose	127
Coal Creek	Fremont	1,115
Colorado City	El Paso	146
Colorado Springs	El Paso	4,563
Como	Park	580
Conejos	Conejos	365
Conejos Cañon	Conejos	80
Costilla	Costilla	835
Crested Butte	Gunnison	754
Crystal City	Gunnison	38
Dake	Park	88
Dayton	Lake	89
Del Norte	Rio Grande	934
Delta	Delta	180
Denver	Arapahoe	54,308
Denver Junction	Weld	157
Dillon	Summit	96
Dumont	Clear Creek	115
Durango	La Plata	2,254
Elyria	Arapahoe	386

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES—Continued.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
Ephraim	Conejos	144
Erie	Weld	741
Estes Park	Larimer	105
Eureka	San Juan	59
Evans	Weld	366
Fairplay	Park	312
Fort Collins	Larimer	1,591
Fort Lewis	La Plata	478
Fountain	El Paso	78
Franceville	El Paso	126
Freeland	Clear Creek	425
Frisco	Summit	35
Garfield	Chaffee	95
Georgetown	Clear Creek	2,173
Glenwood Springs	Garfield	314
Golden	Jefferson	2,130
Gonzales	Conejos	70
Gothic	Gunnison	158
Grand Junction	Mesa	859
Granite	Chaffee	305
Greeley	Weld	2,177
Guadalupe	Conejos	150
Gunnison	Gunnison	1,427
Hahn's Peak	Routt	56
Hancock	Chaffee	237
Hamilton	Park	57
Hayden	Routt	46
Henry	Rio Grande	114
Highlands	Arapahoe	1,012
Holley's Station	Bent	48
Howardsville	San Juan	27
Idaho Springs	Clear Creek	1,257
Ironton	Ouray	107
Irwin	Gunnison	178
Jamestown	Boulder	254

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES—Continued.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
Jasper	Rio Grande	55
Jefferson	Park	79
Kiowa	Elbert	50
Kokomo	Summit	75
La Cuera	Conejos	60
La Jara	Conejos	37
La Jara Cañon	Conejos	107
La Junta	Bent	720
La Porte	Larimer	64
La Veta	Huerfano	306
Lake City	Hinsdale	733
Lawson	Clear Creek	150
Leadville	Lake	10,925
Littleton	Arapahoe	169
Longmont	Boulder	1,120
Los Cenitos	Conejos	208
Los Pinos	Conejos	215
Louisville	Boulder	512
Loveland	Larimer	557
Malta	Lake	74
Manassa	Conejos	354
Manitou	El Paso	698
Marshall	Boulder	281
Maysville	Chaffee	134
Mecitas	Conejos	199
Meeker	Garfield	110
Mineral Point	San Juan	25
Monarch	Chaffee	249
Montezuma	Summit	159
Montrose	Montrose	624
Morgan	Weld	101
Morrison	Jefferson	232
Nathrop	Chaffee	30
Nederland	Boulder	45
Nevadaville	Gilpin	1,061

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES—Continued.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
Ohio City	Gunnison	112
Ophir	San Miguel	136
Osier	Conejos	148
Ouray	Ouray	1,103
Pagosa Springs	Archuleta	90
Pandora	San Miguel	56
Parkville	Saguache	41
Parrott City	La Plata	55
Pedras Amarilla	Huerfano	88
Pine Grove	Jefferson	133
Pitkin	Gunnison	359
Poncha Springs	Chaffee	97
Pueblo	Pueblo	6,659
Pueblo, Central	Pueblo	386
Pueblo, South	Pueblo	5,729
Querida	Custer	559
Recen	Summit	206
Red Cliff	Eagle	558
Red Elephant	Clear Creek	155
Red Mountain	Ouray	126
Rico	Dolores	571
Richfield	Conejos	180
Rio Del Norte	Conejos	78
Rincones	Conejos	100
Robinson	Summit	366
Rockvale	Fremont	414
Romeros	Conejos	140
Rosita	Custer	564
Saguache	Saguache	401
Salida	Chaffee	1,887
San Antonio	Conejos	239
San Isidaro	Conejos	66
San Juan	Conejos	53
San Lances	Conejos	329
San Luis	Costilla	1,126

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES—Continued.

NAME OF PLACE.	COUNTY.	POPULATION.
San Miguel	San Miguel	68
San Pablo	Costilla	257
San Pedro	Costilla	210
San Raphael	Conejos	219
Sargent	Saguache	84
Santa Clara	Huerfano	147
Sapinero	Gunnison	32
Schofield	Gunnison	21
Sedalia	Douglas	68
Servileta	Conejos	119
Silver Plume	Clear Creek	1,110
Silver Cliff	Custer	900
Silverton	San Juan	1,195
South Cañon	Fremont	370
St. Elmo	Chaffee	298
St. Mary	Huerfano	144
Sterling	Weld	400
Steamboat Springs	Routt	64
Summitville	Rio Grande	359
Telluride	San Miguel	561
Tin Cup	Gunnison	180
Tomichi	Gunnison	93
Trinidad	Las Animas	2,761
Villa Grove	Saguache	123
Walsenburg	Huerfano	414
West Cliff	Custer	43
West Del Norte	Rio Grande	72
West Las Animas	Bent	696
Williamsburg	Fremont	617
Winthrop	Chaffee	58
Wheeler	Summit	78
White Pine	Gunnison	170
White Water	Mesa	61
Yampa	Routt	37
Ysla	Conejos	160
Total		243,910

AGGREGATE POPULATION OF COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	POPULATION, 1885.	POPULATION, 1880.
Arapahoe	61,491 . .	38,644
Archuleta	587
Bent	2,903 . .	1,654
Boulder	10,841 . .	9,723
Chaffee	6,107 . .	6,512
Clear Creek	7,157 . .	7,823
Conejos	6,687 . .	5,605
Costilla	3,129 . .	2,879
Custer	4,219 . .	8,080
Delta	1,547
Dolores	834
Douglas	2,100 . .	2,486
Eagle	1,415
Elbert	1,576 . .	1,708
El Paso	8,356 . .	7,949
Fremont	6,601 . .	4,735
Garfield	1,389
Gilpin	6,045 . .	6,439
Grand	1,223 . .	417
Gunnison	4,452 . .	8,235
Hinsdale	879 . .	1,487
Huerfano	5,055 . .	4,124
Jefferson	6,759 . .	6,804
Lake	16,763 . .	23,563
La Plata	4,495 . .	1,110
Larimer	7,583 . .	4,892
Las Animas	10,840 . .	8,903
Mesa	1,991
Montrose	2,384
Ouray	2,587 . .	2,669
Park	3,437 . .	3,970

AGGREGATE POPULATION OF COUNTIES—Concluded.

COUNTIES.	POPULATION, 1885.	POPULATION, 1880.
Pitkin	4,484
Pueblo	16,026 .	7,617
Rio Grande	3,056 .	1,944
Routt	754 .	140
Saguache	2,963 .	1,973
San Juan	1,987 .	1,087
San Miguel	1,214
Summit	2,548 .	5,459
Weld	9,446 .	5,646
Totals	243,910 .	194,327

POPULATION OF COUNTIES—SHOWING RACE.

COUNTIES.	WHITE.		COLORED.		CHINESE.		INDIANS.	
	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.
Arapahoe	59,477	37,322	1,553	1,083	461	238	1
Archuleta	587
Bent	2,866	1,593	34	42	3	2	17
Boulder	10,783	9,656	36	49	22	18
Chaffee	6,059	6,435	37	70	11	6	1
Clear Creek	7,041	7,712	103	94	13	17
Conejos	6,517	5,558	15	17	4	9	151	21
Costilla	3,127	2,852	7	2	20
Custer	4,205	8,025	12	40	2	9	6
Delta	1,547
Dolores	826	3	5
Douglas	2,096	2,468	4	17	1
Eagle	1,410	5
Elbert	1,554	1,700	22	7	1
El Paso	8,073	7,771	261	159	18	16	4	3
Fremont	6,553	4,659	44	72	4	4
Garfield	1,385	2	2
Gilpin	5,963	6,293	71	82	124	1

POPULATION OF COUNTIES—SHOWING RACE—Concluded.

COUNTIES.	WHITE.		COLORED.		CHINESE.		INDIANS.	
	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.	1885.	1880.
Grand	1,221	413	2	4
Gunnison	4,396	8,189	50	46	6
Hinsdale	867	1,468	11	16	1	3
Huerfano	5,022	4,114	20	...	1	...	12	10
Jefferson	6,735	6,768	21	34	3	2
Lake	16,467	23,258	296	298	7
La Plata	4,435	1,109	35	1	25
Larimer	7,547	4,844	30	43	6	3	...	2
Las Animas	10,688	8,796	120	53	9	6	23	48
Mesa	1,985	...	3	...	3
Montrose	2,369	...	10	...	5
Ouray	2,566	2,659	14	6	7	3	...	1
Park	3,349	3,824	2	14	86	124	...	8
Pitkin	4,436	...	48
Pueblo	15,585	7,462	397	147	44	7	...	1
Rio Grande	3,029	1,936	20	4	1	...	6	4
Routt	751	139	3	1
Saguache	2,955	1,968	4	3	4	2
San Juan	1,963	1,086	12	...	12	1
San Miguel	1,205	...	7	...	2
Summit	2,522	5,418	4	22	22	19
Weld	9,423	5,631	22	15	1
Totals	239,585	191,126	3,262	2,435	861	612	202	154

PRODUCTIONS OF AGRICULTURE.

The total number of farms in the State was 8,474. Of these there were:

Operated and managed by the owners thereof	7,162
Rented at a fixed money rental	621
Rented for share of products	691
Total	8,474

This shows an increase of eighty-eight and six-tenths per cent. over 1880, when the State reported 4,506 farms.

In 1880 the number of acres of improved lands was reported at 616,169, and of unimproved lands in farms, 549,204 acres, while the census of 1885 shows 1,647,805 acres, improved, and 781,820 acres unimproved—a grand total of 2,429,625 acres in individual farms. This shows an increase of 1,264,254 acres in farms over 1880, while the values reported are \$25,109,223 in 1880, and \$33,181,863 in 1885.

The value of live stock was listed at \$24,864,126, as against \$8,703,342 at the census of 1880.

The estimated value of all farm productions sold, consumed, or on hand, for the year 1884, is shown to be \$7,386,322, while in 1879 it was \$5,035,228.

CEREALS.

There is presented herewith a comparative summary, showing the production of cereals in 1884 and in 1879:

BARLEY—Bushels.		BUCKWHEAT—Bushels.		INDIAN CORN—Bushels.	
1884	1879	1884	1879	1884	1879
234,085	107,116	2,688	110	653,694	455,968

OATS—Bushels.		RYE—Bushels.		WHEAT—Bushels.	
1884	1879	1884	1879	1884	1879
1,644,083	640,900	35,882	19,465	2,220,536	1,425,014

The following may be of interest, as showing the average production per acre in 1884, of the cereals in Colorado, compared with the United States census showing the production in 1879:

CEREALS IN COLORADO—AVERAGE YIELD IN BUSHELS PER ACRE IN 1884.

BARLEY.	BUCKWHEAT.	CORN.	OATS.	RYE.	WHEAT.
23.08	19.47	27.80	26.99	14.22	20.71
<i>SAME IN UNITED STATES IN 1879.</i>					
22.02	13.93	28.13	25.26	10.76	12.97

POTATOES, ORCHARD PRODUCTS, ETC.

The comparative values of potatoes and orchard products for 1884 and 1879, are as follows:

POTATOES—Bushels.				VALUE OF ORCHARD PRODUCTS.	
Irish.		Sweet.		1884	1879
1884	1879	1884	1879		
1,114,369	383,123	4,976	\$ 17,854	\$ 3,246

This shows an average yield of 84.36 bushels of Irish, and 113.09 of sweet potatoes per acre.

The value of the yield of market gardens, produced and sold in 1884, was \$286,159, and in 1879, \$136,617.

During this census year, 112,175 pounds of grapes were produced, and 5,043 gallons of wine were made in the State.

There were, of the spring clip in 1885, 958,436 fleeces of wool, aggregating 4,298,728 pounds; while in 1880, 746,443 fleeces were taken, weighing 3,197,391 pounds; the first averaging 4.48, and the second, 4.28 pounds per fleece.

In 1884, 256,494 tons of hay were cut, 781 bushels of clover seed, and 1,317 bushels of grass seed were gathered in the State, as against 86,562 tons of hay; 15 bushels of clover seed, and 20 bushels of grass seed reported in 1879.

Poultry on hand June 1, 1885, was 261,272 barnyard fowls, and 40,324 other fowls, producing, for the census year, 1,125,223 dozen eggs; and in 1880, 121,327 barnyard fowls, and 22,477 other fowls, producing 520,820 dozen eggs.

DAIRY PRODUCTS.

The following will show the relations of the milk, butter, and cheese produced upon the farms in Colorado as reported under the census of 1885 and 1880:

	1884	1879
Gals. of milk sold or sent to butter or cheese factories .	2,321,671	506,706
Pounds of butter made on farms	1,661,992	860,379
Pounds of cheese made on farms	38,489	10,867

LIVE STOCK.

A summary of the figures relative to stock shows the number of head on hand June 1, of the respective years, as follows:

	1885	1880
Horses of all ages	85,613	42,257
Mules and asses, all ages	4,962	2,581
Working oxen	826	2,080
Milch cows	48,496	28,770
Other cattle	527,110	315,989
Sheep, exclusive of spring lambs	1,063,341	746,443
Swine	39,280	7,656
Totals	1,769,628	1,145,776

MANUFACTURING.

Total of the various manufactures reported, the products of which reached \$500 and over annually:

	1885	1880
Number of establishments	983	599
Capital invested	\$ 32,088,980	\$ 4,311,714
Average number of hands employed:		
Males above sixteen years	10,415	4,652
Females above fifteen years	560	266
Children and youths	790	156
Total amount paid in wages during the year	\$ 5,552,784	\$ 2,314,427
Value of materials	19,113,125	8,806,762
Value of products	43,243,911	14,260,159
Profits	18,577,999	3,138,970

An increase of 60.80 per cent. is shown in the number of establishments, 203.25 per cent. in value of products, and 4,059.89 per cent. in the profits, *i. e.*, the value of products over the cost of material and the amount paid for labor, as the term "profits" above represented is only the difference shown between such amounts, and does not consider the interest on the capital invested, nor the labor, time or salaries of parties carrying on the business.

The steam-power used in manufacture as shown upon the foregoing statement, is represented as follows:

	1885.	1880.
Number of boilers	354	158
Number of engines	311	152
Horse-power of engines	8,940	3,953

MINING OPERATIONS.

The following compilation purports to show the aggregate production of gold, silver, copper, lead and iron. It is apparent, however, that not one-half of the actual production is reported:

Number of mines	555
Capital invested, real and personal	\$ 16,108,945
Average number of hands employed, all ages	14,401
Total amount paid for wages during the year	\$ 3,950,934
Total value of all materials used	795,486
Value of gold produced	2,563,651
Value of silver produced	6,483,969
Value of lead produced	376,590
Value of copper produced	28,436
Value of iron produced	54,388

The power used in mining operations is exhibited as follows:

WATER-POWER.

Number of wheels	7
Horse-power of wheels	815

STEAM-POWER.

Number of engines	147
Number of boilers	167
Horse-power of boilers	3,764

The following table is a supplement to the foregoing. It shows the number of mines in the several counties, together with the number and kind of machinery and power used, and is not presumed to include any of the mines reported in the foregoing table.

By this it will be seen that, in addition to the mines already given, there were in the State as follows:

Number of gold mines	194
Number of silver mines	373
Machines for hoisting	204
Machines for drainage	106
Machines for stamps	561
Steam-power engines	165
Steam-power boilers	208
Steam-power—horse-power of boilers	4,582

QUARRIES.

There is here represented another branch of the manufacturing industries, upon which is shown the production from the stone quarries of the State; \$325,600 being invested as capital employed, and 130,310 cubic yards of marketed product taken out during the year, valued at \$316,620.

This report is quite incomplete, the cost of materials, being in most cases entirely omitted.

It appears that six hundred and two persons were employed in this business, \$177,840 having been paid during the year for labor.

COAL MINING.

The following table represents the coal mines, and the total production of coal for the year:

Capital invested	\$ 2,164,272
Number of acres	14,711
Maximum yearly capacity, in tons	2,412,920
Average number of hands employed	3,929
Value of materials used	\$ 95,500
Tons of coal produced	2,407,968
Value	\$ 4,658,847
Steam-power used—No. of boilers	74
Steam-power used—No. of engines	54
Steam-power used—horse-power	1,429

The reports submitted are very insufficient. Enumerators could not obtain *data* as to the values of amount paid for wages, and several other items included in the schedule of inquiries were wholly neglected, or were so radically incorrect as to be of no service.

POWER USED IN THE VARIOUS INDUSTRIES.

It is somewhat difficult to classify the entire amount of water and steam-power used in the several industrial pursuits in the State, nor can a comparison be made with the census of 1880, for the reason that, at that time, only certain selected industries were reported.

The following will show the power used, as reported in manufactures and mining, 1885:

MANUFACTURES.

Water-power—No. of wheels	None
Steam-power—No. of boilers	354
Steam-power—No. of engines	311
Steam-power—horse-power	8,940

ORE MINING.

Water-power—No. of wheels	7
Water-power—horse-power	815
Steam-power—No. of boilers	312
Steam-power—No. of engines	375
Steam-power—horse-power	8,346

COAL MINING.

Water-power	None
Steam-power—No. of boilers	74
Steam-power—No. of engines	54
Steam-power—horse-power	1,429

TOTAL POWER USED.

Water-power—No. of wheels	7
Water-power—horse-power	815
Steam-power—No. of boilers	740
Steam-power—No. of engines	740
Steam-power—horse-power	18,715

PART IX.

Convict Labor.

PART IX.

Convict Labor.

SECTION I.

PENITENTIARIES.

The care, punishment and employment of criminals are matters which have received a large share of attention from philanthropists and statesmen, and yet the perplexing question, so oft repeated, "What shall we do with our prisoners?" remains unsolved.

The best method by which convicts may be employed and managed has become an important question, particularly in this State, where the expense of maintaining our penitentiary, as ex-Governor Eaton expressed it, "lacks but a trifle of the total cost for salaries of both the administrative and judicial departments of the government."

The recollection of the extraordinary efforts made to induce the Fifth General Assembly to perpetuate upon the State this onerous burden—by authorizing the leasing of our convicts for a long term of years—as well as the fear entertained by many, that similar efforts may be more successful in persuading a future Legislature to fasten upon the people the evils and abominations attendant upon the "leasing system," makes the question of convict labor in Colorado an all-important and interesting one.

The acme of society's interests in the repression of crime is self-protection, and this it seeks to accomplish, either by fear or through moral agencies. Ideas concerning punishment for crime are being greatly modified, as is shown by the fact that several offenses which were formerly punishable by death are now reduced to two or three. In order to instill fear into those criminally disposed, hangings and other methods of capital punishment usually took place in public; but, because of their demoralizing influences upon the community, private executions have been substituted. A strong sentiment prevails in favor of the entire abolishment of the death penalty, for the reason that it is considered "not to be a civilized method of punishment, but simply mob law."

To torture persons, incarcerated in prison, was once considered a proper mode of punishment. The uses of the tread-mill, the pillory, the stocks, the rack, etc., were believed to be the best methods that could be devised to reform criminals. Experience, however, has proven that humane treatment is far more potent in their reformation than the cruel and barbarous methods formerly employed.

"The repression, rather than the prevention of crime, seems to have been the aim of society." To rid itself of the presence of the criminals has been its chief object, hence, the punishment by death, for the many offenses committed against the law, as "dead men can sin no more."

Transportation to penal colonies is another method of punishment employed by some countries. Against this custom the honest settlers of adjacent territories vigorously protested, because of the presence near, and, often among them, of undesirable persons. This system has been nearly abandoned. It was entirely abolished by England in 1867, when the last convicts were shipped to West Australia. Concerning this mode of punishment, Tocqueville, the French prison reformer, has said, that "A nation which

does not know what to do with its criminals at home, and transports them to some other land, is a selfish nation, because it seeks to make others bear the burden which properly belongs to themselves."

The truth of the assertion, that "whatever tends to elevate mankind, tends to eradicate crime," can not be questioned, consequently the reformation of the habits, rather than the punishment, of inmates, should be the foundation of prison discipline. It is no protection to society to inflict upon prisoners punishment that will serve to create feelings of bitterness which prompt them to the commission of more crime, when they are restored to liberty.

One of the most potent factors in the work of reforming criminals is exercise at some useful labor. This is an obligation due to the prisoner as well as to the community, not so much as a matter of revenue, but as a sanitary measure, so that those who may be committed to our prisons will not become such mental or physical wrecks as to cause them to be continual burdens upon the State. There is no longer any large number of persons who desire to maintain prisoners in idleness, or who will consent to their employment in such fruitless exercise as "chopping sand," digging holes and then filling them, carrying stone from one side of a prison yard to the other and then back, or similar occupations. Nearly all agree that they should be employed at some productive labor, therefore, the question to be considered is, in what useful occupation they can be engaged which will cause the least competition with free labor.

Some of the Bureaus of Labor Statistics have made the subject of convict labor a matter of special investigation, while all have given it more or less attention. The second annual report of the National Commissioner of Labor is entirely devoted to it, and contains information that is both interesting and valuable.

There are four plans, or systems, in operation in the penal institutions of this country, for the employment of prisoners.

The contract system is the one under which the greatest number of convicts is employed, and against which public opinion has been bitterly arrayed. Under the contract system the labor of the prisoner is let to a contractor for a term of years, the State furnishing buildings, shop-room and power. It also maintains, guards and cares for the prisoners, the contractor engaging to employ a certain number of them at a specified price per day, he to furnish the material for making the goods, as well as to receive all the profits derived from their sales.

The advantages of the contract system are the securing of constant employment of convicts as well as obviating the necessity of making the prison-warden the manager of a manufacturing establishment, of the details of which he may be completely ignorant.

The piece-price plan is the contract system in a different form. By this plan the contractor furnishes the raw material and the State agrees to transform it into manufactured articles, for which it is to receive from the contractor a specified price. This plan has no advantage over the contract system except, perhaps, that the State retains control of its convicts, and the prison officials can, if they desire, carry out their reformatory ideas unobstructed by outside influences. There is, however, this particular objection to it: Should the manufactured article not come up to the required standard, the loss falls upon the State, and not upon the contractor.

The public-account system seems to meet with the most favor among all classes of reformers. By this system the State furnishes everything necessary for the manufacture of articles, sells them in open market and receives whatever profits are made by their sale.

By it the State retains control of the prisoners, and can therefore put into practice any desirable reformatory method, without being hampered by contractors. It also reduces competition with free labor to the minimum. Another reason why this system is favored is that the State does not enter into a bargain with any of its citizens, whereby they are enabled to become wealthy through crime.

The lease system is confined almost entirely to the South, Nebraska being the only Northern State where it is in operation. By this system, all the convicts in the State are leased for a term of years, the lessee paying all the expenses connected with their maintenance and management, in consideration for which he has entire control of the prisoners, and is privileged to employ them in such occupation as will be most profitable to himself. The lessee also agrees to pay the State a certain sum for each convict; although, by the terms of a bill contemplating the leasing of the convicts in Colorado, which was presented to the Legislature in 1885, it was provided that the State should give the lessee, not only the control and labor of the prisoners, but should, in addition, pay to him quarterly a sum largely in excess of the total cost of maintaining criminals in many of the prisons, jails, and reformatory institutions of the country, outside of Colorado.

The lease system has but few advocates. The only advantage claimed for it is that it relieves the State of the management and care of its criminals, and also returns to it a small share of the profits derived from their labor. Concerning this manner of employing prisoners, Governor Eaton, in his message to the Legislature in 1887, said:

"Any proposition to farm out the labor of the convicts can not be entertained. The honor of the State forbids it. The civilization of the State would revolt against it. The people of Colorado are not ready to embrace a public shame in order to escape taxation. The disgraceful disclosures of barbarous brutality where the system has been

tried in the Southern States are known to our people, and would leave us without even the poor excuse of ignorance in attempting such a shameful experiment in our proud and enlightened commonwealth."

In a communication to the Legislature of Georgia, Governor Gordon urged the abolishment in that State of the lease system, for the following reasons:

"It places pecuniary interests in conflict with humanity.

"It makes possible the infliction of greater punishment than the law and the courts have imposed.

"It renders impracticable the proper care by the State of the health of its prisoners, or the requisite separation according to classes, sexes and conditions.

"It renders to the minimum the chances for reformation.

"It places convict labor, in many instances, in direct competition with the honest labor of the State."

Investigations conducted by State officials during the past and the present years concerning the operations of this system, have disclosed brutalities perpetrated upon convicts, the details of which are sickening and horrible. Through one of these investigations, which took place in March, 1888, it was made known that an Arkansas warden "whipped seventy-five men in one night until the blood ran in streams from their bodies. The place where the convicts were confined was so filthy that a sickening stench arose from it. Beds and blankets were covered with vermin. Convicts that had been whipped were examined by physicians, who found their bodies almost solid sores. The men feared to complain for fear of being beaten again. A convict hid himself in a mine and refused to come out, and the warden ordered a boss to go down and shoot him, and he did so."

Early in the present century the agitation against the competition of convict labor began in this country.

At a mechanics' convention held at Utica, New York, in the summer of 1834, a strong remonstrance against the method of employing persons was adopted and was presented to the legislature at its next session in 1835. A petition of a similar nature was presented in 1840, and, again in 1841, the legislature was asked to establish at the prison at Sing Sing, "schools of law, medicine and theology for the benefit of the convicts, and that the professions as well as the trades take their share of convict recruits."

In 1843 the citizens of Alton, Illinois, remonstrated against the manner of employing convicts and, in a memorial to the legislature, said, "Prison labor, your honorable bodies well know, can always be afforded cheaper than the labor of your petitioners, who have to provide not only for their families, but for the expenses of the State, and for this reason your petitioners can not successfully compete with it. But, it certainly can not be the design of your honorable bodies to ruin your honest laboring constituents for the sake of supporting your convicts and criminals. Therefore, your petitioners would humbly pray you to take such measures as will relieve them from the oppressive, unjust and insufferable influence of the present system of our State penitentiary."

During the last twenty years the subject of convict labor has been investigated in this country, by State commissions and legislative committees. Many of these investigations have been exhaustive, yet, the conclusions arrived at have not been wholly satisfactory to the people petitioning for relief. The reports are nearly unanimous in their condemnation of the lease and contract systems, yet, while they contain no recommendations for the entire abolishment of the evils arising from convict labor, they do embrace many valuable and practical suggestions on the subject which, if put into effect, will ameliorate present conditions.

Of late, the discussion of this important question has extended from industrial circles and State legislatures, to the halls of Congress, at Washington, and has, therefore, come to be a National matter. Great numbers of citizens whose business has been injuriously affected, preferring complaints, and asking for investigation of the subject. These citizens recognize the fact that the prohibiting of the manufacturing of certain articles in the penitentiaries of their respective States, is of no avail, when similar articles are manufactured in the prisons of other States, and then shipped into theirs and offered for sale in competition with the same kind of goods manufactured by free labor. The complaints made by manufacturers have been endorsed by the solemn protest of labor organizations all over the country, against allowing the markets to be flooded with cheap prison-made goods, no matter where made.

Last March a bill was introduced into the House of Representatives, which afterwards came to be known as the "O'Neill bill," and which reads as follows:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

That every person who knowingly transports, or causes to be delivered for transportation, from the State or Territory in which they are in whole or in part manufactured, any goods, wares, or merchandise, in whole or in part manufactured by convict labor in any penitentiary, prison, reformatory, or other establishment in which convict labor is employed, to or into any other State or Territory, or into the District of Columbia, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars, nor more than five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court, and such goods, wares, or merchandise shall be forfeited to the United States.

SEC. 2. That it shall be the duty of the several United States District Attorneys to prosecute all violations of this

act by any person making the complaint under oath, and the same shall be heard before any District or Circuit Court of the United States, or Territorial court holden within the district in which the violation of this act has been committed.

SEC. 3. That this act shall take effect at the expiration of sixty days from and after its passage.

The bill has been acted upon favorably by committees of both houses, but no final action by either body has as yet been taken, the great pressure of other business before Congress, it is claimed, preventing the reaching of the matter for final disposition.

COLORADO.

The law of this State directs that this bureau shall furnish statistical details relating to "the number, condition and nature of the employment of the inmates of the State prison, county jails and reformatory institutions, and to what extent their employment comes in competition with the labor of mechanics, artisans and laborers outside of these institutions."

In collecting and presenting to the Legislature these facts and figures, it was considered necessary, for a proper and intelligent understanding of the subject, that an officer of the bureau should pay personal visits to institutions of the character named, in other States. This was done, and much valuable information gleaned, which, in a general way, and without unnecessary detail, is presented in this report. In a certain measure it gives the experiences of other States in the several methods of managing and employing prisoners, and shows, besides, cost of maintenance.

The questions pertaining to convicts, their management, employment, etc., as already stated, have become of great importance to Colorado. The enormous cost of maintaining convicts is such that in 1885 a number of citizens sought for relief. This action found shape in the proposi-

tion to lease the labor of State convicts, and that of the children of the State industrial schools, to a private company.

At the session of the General Assembly in 1885, a bill was introduced which included the proposition alluded to, fixing the term of lease at thirty years, the State to pay a bonus to the lessee, of about sixty cents per day for each convict. During the discussion over the bill, some of its features were modified, the term of lease being reduced to twenty years, the *bonus* to be paid the lessee by the State lowered to fifty-two cents *per capita* per day. With these and other modifications, the bill passed the Senate, but was defeated in the House. Had that bill passed and become a law, the cost of maintaining convicts would be \$189.80 on a *per capita* average annually, which would exceed that of any State in the Union, excepting Nevada and Massachusetts, wherein those States, however, receive the benefit of the prisoners' labor.

The Colorado penitentiary was established at Cañon City, in the year 1871, and in June of that year received its first consignment of prisoners. The size of the building was 40x50 feet, and forty two cells were contained within its walls. The warden and guards occupied a small adobe house of three rooms.

The development of the then territory and the rapid increase of population brought with them causes which called for increase of dimensions of the principal penal institution. With the additions and improvements which have been made in the buildings and grounds, it is now one of the best appointed congregate prisons in the country.

The first report of the Board of Penitentiary Commissioners was made in 1878. In this document the value of the property was set forth as being \$11,421.49, of which sum \$6,463.59 was placed on furniture, fixtures and implements, the balance being set down as working capital.

The average number of prisoners has steadily increased each year, as will be seen by the following:

YEARS.	Av. No. of prisoners
1887-8	112
1879-80	164
1881-2	251
1883-4	344
1885-6	356
1887	321

The average number of prisoners for the years 1885-6 appears to have increased but little over the previous two years, while the figures for 1887 show a decrease. This is accounted for by the following extract from the commissioners' report for that period:

"On account of the famous decision of the Supreme Court in the Lowrie case, we lost, by writs of *habeas corpus*, one hundred and six prisoners."

It will be remembered that the decision referred to was based upon the then common practice of taking prisoners, committed for trial by the courts presided over by justices of the peace, directly to the upper courts, without obtaining indictment by the grand jury, which method the Supreme Court decided irregular and unlawful.

This was in the fall of 1886; therefore, the biennial report of that period shows a small increase in the average number of prisoners in the institution. The number of convicts in the prison November 30, 1886, was three hundred. From that time until November 30, 1887, the average number rose to 321, while at this writing the number confined is over four hundred.

One of the remarkable features in connection with penal matters in Colorado, is that the number of convicts in the penitentiary is out of proper proportion to the population of the State, and much greater than that of other States.

This gives rise to the question demanding the cause of it. This query may be partly answered by referring the inquirer to the large aggregate number of persons convicted of forgery, larceny, and burglary, and connecting the figures with the pernicious practice which has long been, and still is, in vogue, of inducing persons from all parts of the world, nearly, to come to Colorado to obtain situations, when there is no employment for them. In their disappointment, and often moneyless and friendless condition, they become discouraged, then desperate, and at last, either with the willful determination of seeking refuge, and with it, food and shelter, even in prison, or with the feeling of taking chances of capture or escape, commit crime, and thus swell the number of malefactors, which must be supported by the tax-payers of the State.

The cost of maintaining the penitentiary in this State for ten years, as taken from figures in the commissioners' books for 1879-80, 1881-2, 1883-4, and 1885-6, and for 1887-8, as estimated, reaches a total of \$967,186.56. The earnings of convicts for the same period, and arrived at in the same manner, foot up \$272,283.40. This table gives the years' figures, as follows:

	EXPENSES.	EARNINGS.
1879-80.	\$ 92,809 19	\$ 22,023 05
1881-2.	204,736 04	59,787 14
1883-4.	223,154 89	50,405 83
1885-6.	226,486 44	70,067 38
1887-8.	*220,000 00	*70,000 00
Totals	\$ 967,186 56	\$ 272,283 40

*Estimated.

It will be seen by this showing that the expenditures exceeded the earnings of the institution by \$694,903.16. The cost of improvements in grounds and buildings is included in the expense column.

The figures contained in the report of the National Bureau of Labor Statistics, concerning convict labor, for the year 1886, are herewith presented in tabulated form. The table shows the comparative cost of maintenance of convicts in the penitentiaries in each of twenty-five States. The earnings of prisoners are not taken into consideration, some of these institutions being self-sustaining:

COST OF MAINTENANCE FOR 1886 IN TWENTY-FIVE STATES.

STATE.	Convicts.	Running expenses.	Per capita.
California—two institutions	1,805	\$ 287,379 17	\$ 158 95
Colorado	300	130,000 00	433 33
Connecticut	281	33,396 32	118 85
Illinois—two institutions	2,287	366,785 30	160 38
Indiana—two institutions	1,298	178,187 52	137 28
Iowa—two institutions	690	122,686 57	177 81
Kansas	869	126,406 61	145 46
Maine	171	15,300 00	89 47
Maryland	539	60,814 32	112 83
Massachusetts—three institutions	1,512	313,082 92	207 07
Michigan	710	93,588 31	131 81
Minnesota	411	65,135 82	158 48
Missouri	1,655	197,231 03	119 17
Nevada	130	28,875 40	222 14
New Hampshire	130	18,485 46	142 20
New Jersey	873	135,960 34	155 74
New York—three institutions	2,993	392,780 59	131 23
Ohio	1,974	215,657 27	109 24
Oregon	272	29,920 26	110 00
Pennsylvania—two institutions	1,807	236,059 42	130 64
Rhode Island	238	33,711 55	141 65
Vermont	85	15,510 00	182 47
Virginia	1,024	48,357 96	47 22
West Virginia	261	37,152 29	142 22
Wisconsin	456	55,738 59	122 23
Totals and average	22,774	\$3,238,206 02	\$ 142 19

In the following States the lease system is in operation, and there are no means of accurately determining the cost of maintenance of convicts under that system:

Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, *Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nebraska, *North Carolina, *South Carolina, Tennessee.

*Some convicts in these States are employed under the public-account and the contract systems.

In order to ascertain the cost of maintenance of convicts for the year 1887, letters were addressed to the wardens of the penitentiaries in the country. Some responded, and forwarded the figures asked for, while others, who also answered the communications, stated that they make biennial reports, on years of even numbers, and, by the system of keeping accounts pursued, were unable to separate one portion from the other. In other instances, an officer of this bureau made personal visits to penitentiaries, and secured the required information. By these means the cost of maintenance in fifteen penal institutions was obtained, and is here presented in tabulated form.

It should be noted that the earnings of prisoners are not taken into consideration, the earnings of some of the institutions being equal to the amount of the entire cost of conducting the establishments for the year :

COST OF MAINTENANCE FOR 1887 IN FIFTEEN PENITENTIARIES
AND PRISONS.

STATE.	NAME OF INSTITUTION.	CONVICTS.	RUNNING EXPENSES.	PER CAPITA.
Colorado .	State Penitentiary	321	\$ 111,497 36	\$ 347 34
Conn . . .	State Prison	268	32,645 08	121 81
Illinois . .	State Penitentiary at Joliet . .	1,459	236,264 09	161 94
Indiana . .	State Prison at Jeffersonville .	508	79,934 94	157 35
Iowa . . .	Penitentiary at Anamosa . .	284	63,270 05	222 75
Iowa . . .	Penitentiary at Ft. Madison .	386	66,674 75	172 73
Kansas . .	Penitentiary	934	137,844 00	147 58
Mass. . . .	State Prison, (Charlestown) .	546	113,995 16	208 78
Missouri .	State Penitentiary	1,636	220,221 85	134 61
New York .	Clinton Prison	612	93,511 62	152 80
New York .	Sing Sing State Prison	1,514	202,164 05	133 53
Ohio . . .	Penitentiary	1,401	221,152 90	157 85
Penn . . .	Eastern Penitentiary	1,096	111,183 51	101 44
Penn . . .	Western Penitentiary	655	122,416 80	186 89
Wisconsin.	State Prison	449	62,027 05	138 14
Totals and average		12,069	\$ 1,874,803 21	\$ 155 34

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE COST PER CAPITA OF MAINTENANCE OF CONVICTS IN PENITENTIARIES OF TWENTY-FIVE STATES FOR THE YEAR 1886.



Previous to 1878 the prisoners in the Colorado Penitentiary were employed on such work as the Commissioners and Warden could procure for them. On January 1, 1878, a contract was entered into with a person named A. Cohen, who, by the terms of the agreement, was to employ a certain number of prisoners in the manufacture of boots and shoes, the State to receive for each convict working, fifty cents per day for nine and a half hours labor.

This contract was continued until September of that year, when it was transferred into the hands of a company calling itself the "Colorado Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Company, of Denver." This corporation held the contract until January, 1881, when its foremen were expelled from the premises of the penitentiary for a violation of prison rules. The company took offense at this action, refused to furnish other foremen, and the contract was canceled.

Still another contract for the manufacture of boots and shoes was entered into with a firm named Herriman & Hirsch, who commenced work October, 1881. By agreement, this firm was to employ a minimum number of eighty convicts, and promised to increase the number to one hundred and fifty within a year. This contract lasted until February, 1883, when it was canceled by mutual consent.

This ended all boot and shoe contract ventures on the part of the State. All the work performed now by convicts in the penitentiary is done under the public-account system; the State law prohibiting either the leasing out of the prisoners, or the contracting of their labor.

The first section of a law enacted by the legislature of 1887, provides as follows:

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for the State of Colorado, its officers or representatives, to hire out the persons confined, or that may be confined, as convicts in any penitentiary, or prison, that is or may be established in the State of Colorado, for the confinement of persons convicted of misdemeanor, or crimes of any description whatsoever;

such person shall not be hired out to perform labor of any description, for pay or gain of any description, nor shall their services be given free to any person, or class, or association of persons, under penalty hereinafter provided.

In the spring of 1881, a lime-rock ridge was purchased by the Commissioners, and the burning of lime began. This occupation has since grown to be one of the principal employments of the convicts.

During the period of 1885-6, the making of brick for other than penitentiary use was commenced. A brick-yard, situated about a mile distant from the penitentiary, was leased, and brick-making began, the owner of the yard receiving a royalty on each thousand of brick made. This industry still continues. Rock is quarried near the institution, and is sold to all requiring it in Cañon City and vicinity, for building purposes, at prices which the Warden declares "can not be competed against." Boots and shoes are still made, however, for prison use only. Convicts also find employment in prison duties, to which they are assigned by the officers.

The injury done free labor by its having to compete with convict labor of the penitentiary of this State is but slightly felt, excepting in the vicinity of the prison. The burning of lime, as stated, being one of the chief and most diligent occupations at the institution, inquiry was made concerning it. It was found that it is nearly all "gray" lime which is burned, and of a kind used at smelters, where it is mainly disposed of. Officers of smelting companies, on being spoken to by an officer of this bureau concerning the use of the lime, stated that should its cost be increased, they would discard its use entirely, and employ unburned rock, as some other smelting corporations were doing.

Some complaints were made in regard to the occasional burning of white lime, as well as the quarrying of rock, a

few persons who had been engaged in these industries, at Cañon City and vicinity, declaring that prison competition had driven them out of the trades.

The making of brick, however, is an industry which offers greatest competition with outside free labor, and would appear to be carried on in violation of law.

At the session of the General Assembly in 1883, the people of Cañon City and the vicinity presented a memorial, protesting against the custom of employing the penitentiary prisoners outside the walls of the institution. The Legislature at that session enacted the following law:

"That no labor shall be performed by the convicts of the Colorado State Penitentiary off the grounds belonging to said penitentiary, except such as may be incident to the business and management of the penitentiary; *Provided*, that this act shall not be construed to affect any existing contract."

Notwithstanding that the provisions of this law are plain, a large number of convicts are employed daily, during the season, at the brickyard already spoken of. This yard is situated nearly one mile distant from the grounds of the penitentiary, and this year millions of brick are being manufactured, sold, and shipped to various parts of the State. The task required, daily, of the convicts working in the brickyard, is four-fifths the amount of work performed by free labor employed in the brickyards in and around Denver. So seriously has the convict work interfered with free labor, that people of Cañon City who were formerly in the brick-making business, declare they were unable to compete, and were compelled to suspend operations and close up their establishments.

The cutting of stone by the prisoners engages from twelve to twenty of them at that work, and contracts for cut stone are taken whenever they can be procured. This work is carried on inside the walls of the prison, and the product is afterward shipped to its place of destination.

Business men of Cañon City, who are affected by the competition of prison labor as described, very pertinently ask, "Why should we be compelled to contribute more than our share for the support of the penitentiary? We bear our portion of the burdens of the government, and is it just to impose upon us destruction of business also, because of a supposed necessity of procuring employment for convicts, so that their health may not be impaired by too close confinement?"

Thus is Colorado brought face to face with the problem agitating the people of other States, as to "How shall we employ our convicts?"—a problem of which, although social economists and philanthropists have devoted nearly their whole lives to its study, no satisfactory solution has yet been given. Experiments are being conducted in many States, the results of which are being watched with eager interest, and anything approaching a successful test will be hailed with corresponding gratification.

This great question should be one of comparatively easy solution, so far as this State is concerned, at least for years to come—*provided*, that the system now in vogue for the management and reformation of convicts, and which system was inaugurated with the establishment of the penitentiary, is to be continued. It is not the displacement of labor by convict workers that is objected to so much as the ruinous competition in the sale of the products of such labor. Should fair selling prices be maintained for prison-made articles, producers of similar articles outside penal establishments could continue in business, and under the laws governing supply and demand, combined with business tact on their part in securing a market, would receive a share of the public patronage at ruling prices.

The State of Colorado, however, with its enormous area and with so vast a portion of territory needing opening up,

and its almost illimitable resources awaiting development, could surely employ its prisoners to general public advantage, and without inflicting injustice and hardship on any portion of its honest citizens. Enterprises, the execution of which should not be entrusted either to individuals or private companies, could be designed and carried out by the State, and those convicts who are not required for prison duty, or the making of clothing, boots, shoes, etc., for prison use, could be employed as workers. Among such undertakings may be mentioned works that have already been urged upon public attention, such as the construction of large irrigating ditches, concerning which the following is taken from the report of the Penitentiary Commissioners for 1885-6:

"We believe that the State should take steps to locate two large irrigating ditches, on each side of the Arkansas river, starting from the mouth of the Grand cañon, running in an easterly direction, so as to reclaim large tracts of fine agricultural lands, now worthless. The construction of these ditches would give employment to the surplus prison labor, and not compete with outside labor, and do work that would be a source of income and add to the wealth and taxable property of the State."

Another method of employing the prisoners would be in the construction of much needed roads in the mountain districts. This work was recommended by the Democratic party of this State, in a resolution adopted in convention two years ago, which proposition has been endorsed by many responsible citizens who consider it a partial solution of the great problem of prison labor in Colorado at least. The following is the resolution:

"Resolved, That the only practical solution of the convict labor question is to keep the convicts employed in some labor, not in competition with any recognized industry of the people; and that this can be done by their organized, systematic and permanent employment in the construction and improvement of public roads."

The tunneling of mountains so as to secure "short cuts" between important stock, agricultural and mining localities, is another proposition for which a bill for an act was introduced in the House of Representatives at the last session of the Legislature, by a member from the San Juan country, who, with others, strenuously urged its passage. It is claimed by those well acquainted with the topography of the country that this work would assist farmers of the State to enter into competition with those of Utah and California, and enable miners to convey to smelting points low grade ores, which cannot be carried such long distances as now required, without loss to the mine owner. This would afford them opportunity to convert into cash, at remunerative figures, "dumps" on which they have long gazed with despair of ever realizing anything from their investments.

Why should not the building of a chain of great reservoirs for irrigation purposes, about the cost of construction of which so much has been said, of late,—and for sites whereon to locate the same the General Government is about to make surveys—be carried out by convict labor?

Among the chief objections offered to employing prisoners in this manner is the expense which might be incurred for guards and care, and the facilities afforded by out-door employment for escape. It will be seen, however, by reference to the tables given, which show the cost of maintaining prisoners in Colorado for the period of 1886-7, that the average cost *per capita* for these two years was \$780.67, or \$7.50 per week. The report of the commissioners for 1885-6 states the number of guards and overseers employed at the penitentiary during the last quarter of 1886 to be forty-nine or, one guard or overseer to watch every six prisoners. It is believed that no larger outlay than \$7.50 *per capita* per week, nor a greater proportion of guards than one for every six prisoners, as now engaged, would

be needed, should convicts be employed on public works, as suggested. Neither is it believed that escapes of prisoners would be more numerous than during the years 1885-6, when, of twenty-three attempts made by convicts to break away, eleven were successful.

It should not be inferred from what is here said relative to the employment of convicts on public works, that any endorsement is intended of systems which employ prisoners in populous cities or towns, where their presence has a degrading and demoralizing influence. But by employing them in the manner suggested they would, owing to the sparse population of the State, be almost as much in obscurity as if they were confined within the prison walls.

The idea of working penitentiary convicts as mentioned, is based on the supposition that no greater effort will be made in the future than has been in the past, looking to the reformation of criminals, and that the system first adopted will not be subjected to change.

It would appear that the system now in practice is carried out apparently with but one effect in view—the detention of those who are consigned to within precincts of the prison, and the procuring of as much work as possible out of them. Reformation of prisoners seems to be the last object sought to be attained, and judging from what the officials themselves say in regard to their experiences in that line, one would imagine it to be a “lost art” in that institution. In the report of the commissioners for 1879-80, appears the following:

“The law provides that each convict, when discharged from the penitentiary, shall be paid ten dollars. We find that there are many objections to that method. Very many of them, by drunkenness or other means, spend every cent the first day they are out, and thus they become a burden upon the people of Cañon City, many of them resorting to larceny. We would recommend that the law be so changed that discharged convicts shall receive transportation to the

place from which they were sent to the penitentiary, or to any other place of equal distance."

A similar recommendation is made by the commissioners in each report issued since, and these expressions, couched as they are in terms of evident despair and resignation, show that reformation, whether attempted or not, is not successfully accomplished by our prison officials.

In 1887, the convicts discharged from the penitentiary became such an affliction in Cañon City, that its citizens are reported to have formed a vigilance committee, which soon rid the place of the presence of the objectionable characters.

Our prison system can be appreciated when an ex-warden describes it as "abominable and barbarous." In a late report by the officers of the institution, the necessity of change in the manner of caring for criminals, with a view to their reformation, is forcibly set forth in the following language:

"A prison without officers filled with zeal for reformation, and not under a benign influence, is but a nursery for crime, and a hot-bed for the propagation of vice. Men go from these dens of wickedness and cruelty filled with thoughts of crime therein learned, and overrunning with hatred, malice, and revenge. * * * Of all the damning and contaminating influences an officer finds to contend with in a prison, the worst is the herding all together with the professional villain, who, sent up for a term of one or two years, has a term so short that he considers it only a respite to recover from debauch, and to be cured of a loathsome disease, so as to be in a physical condition to go hence and prey upon the human family."

Singularly enough, in another portion of the same report appears the following:

"What we have done in the way of reformatory work has been merely to treat the prisoners as men, not brutes."

It should be allowed that wardens must not be blamed for defects in the prevailing system, for before they can be-

come really conversant with the needs of such an establishment, or can put into practice desirable methods, a change in the administration of the State government may occur, and the incumbent in charge of affairs at the penitentiary has to step aside to make room for his successor, who may or may not be a man whose experience and intelligence fit him for the discharge of such important duties as are required of persons occupying the position of warden. In order to show the disadvantages of this method, it may be stated that during the twelve years in which the penitentiary has been under State control, no less than six changes have been made in the wardenship. It may well be imagined what difficulties are encountered by, and how little chance there is for, any one warden to establish an advantageous system. It will be conceded that the first very essential step to be taken, in the matter of considering economy and reformation in the administration of the prison affairs, consists in removing the wardenship from the boundaries of politicians' control, and not allow that officer to be subject to removal at each and every change brought about by elections.

Another step of vital necessity is to ascertain if any other system than the one in vogue can be devised, or whether there is not some system in existence which can be patterned after, so as to secure the great *desideratum* necessary in the treatment of prisoners, reformation. Economy would be one of the grand results of this.

The State penitentiary is in a very over-crowded condition, and it is expected that additional accommodations will be asked for. This will necessitate great outlay. Would it not be advisable, and even wise, for the State legislature, rather than vote money for this purpose, to first make inquiry into the feasibility of establishing a new prison on the plan of some eastern institution, conducted as a model reformatory, and on the most economical basis, continuing the use of the present penitentiary as long as may be deemed

advisable? The plan of the eastern penitentiary, of Pennsylvania, is commended to the attention of the Legislature. A description of the methods pursued at that institution is given in another part of this section, under the head of Pennsylvania; but, in order that a substantial and practical idea and knowledge of the advantage of the method may be obtained, it is necessary that the establishment be visited, and personal examination made of the workings of the system, so that its actual operations may be thoroughly understood.

One item in connection with the management and cost of running that penitentiary may be given for purposes of comparison. For maintaining 1,096 convicts during the year 1887, the cost was \$111,183.51, or \$101.44 *per capita*. For the maintenance of three hundred and twenty-one prisoners in the Colorado penitentiary for the same year, the cost was \$111,497.36, or \$347.34 *per capita*. In the Pennsylvania prison the number of paid officials was twenty-four, for the guarding, etc., of 1,096 convicts, while, for the care of Colorado's three hundred and twenty-one prisoners, between fifty-five and sixty officers were required.

While the officers of this bureau entertain no "pet scheme" for the management of the penitentiary, they do recommend the advisability of the State authorities inquiring into the matter of establishing a more economical and reformatory method than that pursued in the Colorado institution.

CALIFORNIA.

Some years ago the people of California began an agitation against convict labor, which resulted in the enactment of laws for the abolishment of the lease and contract systems in that State.

The new Constitution, which was adopted in May, 1879, contains the following:

"After the first day of January, 1882, the labor of convicts shall not be let out by contract to any person, co-partnership, company or corporation, and the Legislature shall by law provide for the working of convicts for the benefit of the State."

In accordance with this provision of the Constitution, the Legislature, at its session in 1880, enacted that after the first day of January, 1882, the labor of convicts should not be let out by contract, nor should contracts be made extending beyond that date. The law also prescribed the manner in which convicts should be employed. Notwithstanding the plain provisions of the Constitution and the law made in pursuance thereof, the prison authorities refused to be governed by them, and went on contracting the labor of convicts as though the law was not intended for their government.

Through investigation made by the Labor Bureau and by labor organizations, public attention has been called to what are considered violations of law, without having any apparent effect.

In answer to an inquiry from this office, the present Labor Commissioner, J. J. Tobin, writes:

"The system of convict contract labor, although prohibited by the Constitution of California, exists to-day, not by contracting for the hire of convicts, but for the produce of his labor."

CONNECTICUT.

The Legislature of Connecticut, in 1879, authorized the Governor to appoint a commission, consisting of five persons, who should inquire into the feasibility of abolishing the system of contract labor, and to further inquire as to the kind of employment that could be successfully carried on in the prison, which would least conflict with the established manufacturing interests of the State. This commission reported in 1880, and in its report says:

Every avenue of information, at home and abroad, has been carefully searched; months have been devoted to the inquiry; reports of similar investigations in the United States, Canada, and Europe have been read and considered; the written opinions of men who have made the science of penology a careful study have been obtained; all who have had complaints to make have been heard, and, as a result, the commission have failed to discover any ground for the complaints made against the Connecticut State Prison, or the contract system. They are satisfied—

That there are no favored contractors in this State. The complaints of wardens and directors all over the country is: "We have great difficulty in finding reasonable parties to take our prison labor." Prison contracts can be had at almost any time by responsible parties. Three hundred convicts are now idle, waiting to be contracted for New Jersey;

That the price paid for convict labor is not greatly below its value, for while convicts can, and in some cases do, do as much work as a free man, yet, as a rule, they do not accomplish more than half; while they may, after sufficient practice, do as good work as is done by free labor, yet, almost without exception, they are entirely ignorant of the work, unskilled in any work, and have no interest in working fast;

That, with the exception of the hatting trade, the commission have nothing to satisfy them that the industries of this State are affected by competition with prison industries, or by speculation of corrupt competition between prison contractors of this or any other State;

That there is justice in the demand for a greater diversity of industries in prison, and that efforts should be made by legislators to secure such a result; that it would not be just to the State or the prisoner to abolish machinery from the prisons, or to prohibit convicts from being employed at skilled industries; that the public account system is not practical under ordinary circumstances, because—

[A.] Wardens are very seldom good managers of convicts and also good managers of manufacturing industries. The wages of the ordinary prison warden are but small temptation to a successful business man.

[B.] With the State for a master, business would be neglected; officers would become careless of those details which insure success.

[C.] The State can not, as a rule, either buy or sell as well as an individual. If the State pays cash, it cannot buy any less than an individual, and if it buys on credit it must pay more on account of the uncertainty as to when appropriations will be made, and because,

[D.] Of the great temptation to fraud, especially if the tenure of office depends upon the success of political parties.

That the contract system, while not so strictly reformatory as is desirable, yet inasmuch as it teaches habits of industry, a love of work, and so much of a trade as will enable a released convict to earn an honest livelihood, and, also, as it insures the State constant employment for its convicts, and fair financial returns, is the best system to follow until the time shall arrive when the present prison buildings can be abandoned for reformatories, and labor shall only be used as an aid to reformation. And in reformatories this system will be decided the best until men are found of the dual ability required to be a successful warden and manufacturer, for, while men may be found who will succeed admirably in one position, few men will succeed in both. While the Commissioners have set forth their reasons for believing that it is not expedient to abolish the contract system, they are not insensible to the fact that the system has many defects. The remedy for one class of these defects has been shown to be the appointment, by the States, of competent, judicious and honest officers, who shall be, as they are in this State, free from partisan influence, and secured in the tenure of their offices during good behavior. There is also great need of some safeguard restricting the, at present, unlimited power which permits contracts to be made for convict labor without consulting any of the industrial interests of the State.

The laws of Connecticut give the warden permission, with the consent of the prison directors, to employ prisoners, not exceeding ten at one time, outside of the prison walls, but within one-half mile of them.

ILLINOIS.

The following amendment to the Constitution of the State of Illinois, was submitted to the people to be voted upon at the regular election in November, 1886:

"That hereafter it shall be unlawful for the commissioner of any penitentiary or other reformatory institution in the State of Illinois, to let out by contract to any person or persons, or corporation, the labor of any convict confined within said institution."

This amendment was adopted by a majority of 19,525.

In order that the people might be informed, so as to vote intelligently upon the foregoing proposition, the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a most thorough investigation of the experiences had by that State in employing convicts under the leasing and contract systems. The result of the investigation is contained in the bureau's report for 1886. Facts and figures are therein presented in such a manner as to make the report valuable to the statistician, and entertaining to the ordinary reader.

The fifty-five years' experience had by Illinois in the management and care of its prisoners, as detailed in that report, will no doubt greatly assist younger States in their treatment of the subject of convict labor.

The Illinois penitentiary was first established at Alton, in 1831, and was continued there until 1860, when the prisoners were removed to Joliet. During the first eight years of its existence, the convicts were employed as the prison inspectors thought best. In 1839 the penitentiary was leased for three years, and at the expiration of the lease the people of Alton protested against its renewal. In a memorial to the Legislature, in 1843, they reasoned that the leasing out of convicts neither punished nor reformed them, but had a tendency to render them more dangerous. They said :

"That which more immediately concerns your petitioners is the unjust and highly oppressive effect which the competition of prison labor has upon the free labor of the citizens of this vicinity. It is well known that among the large number of our State prisoners, there are some acquainted with almost every branch of mechanical trade pursued among us, and that, besides the common laborers, the mechanics from the prison are hired out to our neighbors, and may be found everywhere at work in the vicinity of Alton. They may be seen on our public landing, in our streets, our pork-houses, laboring on new buildings, and even in our forests cutting down and hauling timber; and all this at a time when free laborers can not obtain sufficient employment, even at the lowest rates, to protect their families from want and actual suffering."

This memorial had no apparent effect. The lease was renewed and the system continued until 1867, under the management of small "factions who were said to have dominated not only the penitentiary, but the policy and politics of the State for a period of thirty years."

In 1867, owing to a combination of circumstances, the lessees, who found themselves no longer able to make money out of the labor of convicts, notified Governor Oglesby, on the twelfth of June of that year, that they would abandon their lease, with all its responsibilities, on the twentieth of that month, and that, therefore, the State should make some provisions for the care of convicts after that date.

The Governor was compelled to issue a proclamation convening the Legislature in extra session, for the purpose of meeting this emergency. A committee was appointed to examine into the details of the situation, and

"It was found that nothing except the naked walls and the naked convicts remained to the State. All the machinery, tools, fixtures, stock, furniture, beds and bedding, dishes, and the clothing on the backs of the prisoners, was the property, not of the State, but of private persons. Even the guards, overseers and officials, were

simply the employés of an insolvent firm about to retire precipitately alike from its obligations and responsibilities."

The State took charge of the penitentiary July 1, 1867, and retained control of it for nearly five years. In 1872, the contract system was inaugurated, and it remained in operation until 1887, when its further continuance was prohibited by the adoption of a constitutional amendment. The prisoners are now being employed under the public account system, as rapidly as existing contracts expire.

The concluding portion of the commissioner's report reads:

The maintenance and management of convicts is as much a public interest, to be provided for from the public treasury, as charitable institutions, or courts of justice, or police systems. It is a mere accident of the penal system that some part of the public money invested in it may be recovered by judicious management; and it is an error, rife with evil consequences, past and present, that this recovery of the money expended should be made, as it has been for years, a paramount object, instead of an industrial feature, of penal detention.

The fact remains that all the processes for the repression of crime are, like public interests of the gravest character, deserving, first of all, whatever expenditure of money public morals and public safety demand. The cost of the maintenance of penitentiaries should especially be accepted as a part of the cost of good government. Appropriations should be made, upon careful estimates, as they are made for charitable institutions, and sufficient in amount to defray whatever expenses the most approved method of management may involve. Then, whatever earnings may accrue from the wisest direction of the labor of convicts will constitute a legitimate credit to that fund, and reduce to that extent the cost to the State of the protection of society.

But, aside from whatever diversity of opinion may be held as to the true penal system, or whatever means may be considered feasible by the Legislature as the wisest first step towards a modification of the present system, it must be considered that the contract system rests under a pro-

nounced popular disapproval; that it is a bar to any progressive scientific treatment of the criminal classes; that it imposes a special burden, which should be borne by the whole people, upon half a dozen industries, and those who subsist by them; and that under it the State practically barter the birthright of a portion of its people to industrial prosperity and contentment, for a mere money consideration.

It should not be too much to expect that such a system should be abandoned, or that an enlightened statesmanship, with all modern experience as a guide, and backed by the revenues and intelligence of a great State, should be able to devise a better one.

IOWA.

A portion of the report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Iowa, for 1884-5, is devoted to the question of convict labor. In discussing the contract system, the Commissioner, E. R. Hutchins, uses the following language:

Unquestionably, employment should be given the inmates of our prisons. This is necessary upon sanitary as well as humanitarian grounds, but it will be seen by reference to views of individual working men later in this report, that very strong objections are raised against this system. It is claimed, and with great justice, that this kind of labor operates very harmfully upon skilled mechanics outside the prison walls. Manufacturers also complain that they are unable to compete with the cheap labor employed by prison contractors. The chief argument in its favor—that it renders the institution nearly self-supporting—is not a logical nor a liberal one. The welfare of the honest citizen who has never been within the prison-gate for crime, the industrious, hard-working man, or the persevering employers, ought not, in this enlightened age, to be placed in the balance to be weighed by the economy of a State in supporting a penitentiary.

These contractors [the State too] are receiving the fruits of the labor of these criminals, but what are their families receiving? Who is giving bread, and meat, and fuel, and clothes to the innocent wives and children of the criminals, many of whom are hungry, and illy clad, and cold, while

the contractors are accumulating wealth at the hands of their husbands and fathers? The one [the families] needy and suffering; the other [contractors] growing rich, and the State endorsing the condition of the one equally with the other. Is this right?

KANSAS.

Convicts are employed in Kansas under the contract and public account system. By the law of the State, which went into operation in March, 1871, the convicts are allowed to participate in their earnings to the amount of five per cent. upon each day's labor, the value of a day's labor being computed at seventy-five cents. While disabled from sickness, or other cause, or while undergoing punishment for violation of prison rules, convicts do not have any sum placed to their credit. At the end of each year the prisoner may cause his part of the earnings to be sent to his family, or to such other person as he desires.

The effects of this law are considered beneficial.

MASSACHUSETTS.

By a resolution of the Massachusetts Legislature, passed in 1878, the Bureau of Statistics of Labor was directed to make a full investigation of all the facts pertaining to the work performed in the penal institutions of the State, and to recommend such legislation as may be deemed advisable, to prevent competition between the labor performed in such institutions and in the industries of the State. In the report, in 1879, the bureau reduced the propositions relative to this subject to seven, as follows:

I. The abolition of all labor in penal institutions.

II. The prohibition, by law, of any contract for convict labor, at lower rates per day than the average paid for outside labor of the same kind.

III. The reduction of hours of labor in penal institutions to six per day.

IV. The general introduction of the "public account" system.

V. Greatly increased diversity of employment under either system.

VI. The employment of convicts upon public works by the Government.

VII. The employment of convicts on work requiring the greatest expenditure of muscle, and the least outlay of capital, either in raw material or in machinery, work on stone, etc.

Concerning the conclusion arrived at, and the legislation considered advisable, the report reads :

The seven propositions have been considered, as the advocates and opposers present them, with some of the prominent arguments for or against. The conclusions, which to our minds seem logical, as the result of the evidence, are :

First—That convict labor should not be abolished,

Second—That legislation to restrain officials in penal institutions from contracting out the labor of convicts, at lower rates than the average of outside labor, without allowing contractors to employ, or not, the men contracted for, simply abolishes labor in such institutions.

Third—The reduction of the hours of labor in prisons to six hours per day, simply abolishes labor in penal institutions.

Fourth—The general introduction of the public account system, as a rule, simply aggravates the grievances arising from whatever competition may result from the contract system.

Fifth—The increased diversity of employment in penal institutions tends not only to lessen whatever competition now exists, but has an excellent reformatory effect upon the prisoners.

Sixth—The employment of convicts upon public works, when it can be done, is a feature of prison labor commend-

able, not only from the standpoint of the prison reformers, but from that also of the manufacturers and workingmen.

Seventh—The employment of convicts in breaking and dressing stone and kindred work, while it palliates the evils of competition, induces to a large degree other conditions far more injurious to the body politic; and that work which requires the most expenditure of muscle, and the least expenditure of capital, is, if it can be had, the best for a large class of convicts, all things considered.

In addition to these conclusions, from the seven propositions suggested, it seems to the writer:

That with the present policy of prison administration in Massachusetts, the contract system of labor, either by the day or by the piece, is the wisest, as a rule, but that the administration should have power to adopt the public account system, if for the interest of the State.

That Massachusetts has no right to expect to make profits, or permit others to do so, out of the labor of convicts, at the expense of their reformation.

That, whatever evils may result from convict labor, they can not be remedied by State legislation, but should receive the attention of the National Legislature. There can be no systematic regulation by States alone.

That there is a certain amount of competition arising from prison manufactures that works injuriously at times and in localities, but no general or alarming injury affecting the industrial interests of the State.

That the principle involved is not changed by the degree of injury worked by prison labor.

That a desirable result to be reached is, that a prisoner ought, if possible, to earn enough to support himself and those dependent upon him before his incarceration, as they often suffer the most severely for the crime committed by the convict.

That State prisons should be self-supporting, if possible, provided the industrial interests of the State and the reformatory measures of the administration are not prejudiced to an unreasonable extent.

The candid consideration of all the premises leads us to make the following recommendations:

I. That the Legislature memorialize Congress to take action looking to the thorough classification of all facts for the whole country, relative to industrial labor in penal institutions, with a view to place before the country full and reliable *data* on a subject whose ramifications preclude full and satisfactory State investigation and action.

II. That legislation be instituted looking to the production in the prisons of the State of all goods required by them or by any other department of the State.

III. That the greatest diversity of employments consistent with the capacity of the prisons be insisted upon; this diversity of employment to be secured by limiting the number of convicts to be contracted for, or the amount of products, in any one industry, such limitation to be under the direction of the Governor and Council.

IV. That whenever possible, farms shall be carried on by the prison administration for the supply of the institution.

V. In order that the best possible pecuniary results may be obtained for prison labor, and at the same time the advantages secured in making contracts which accrue from free and open competition in bidding for the labor of convicts, we recommend a law providing that no contract shall be entered into for the use of such labor, by the day or by the piece, except after thorough advertisement in different parts of the State for proposals, publication of notice for proposals to be for at least two months; and, further, that no contract shall be executed, except upon the approval of the Governor and Council; and that the Governor and Council shall decide upon the expediency of instituting the public account system, when the same may be proposed by any prison administration, or may be deemed to work less injury to the industrial interests of the State.

The bureau made a supplemental report in 1880, which contained the following:

The conclusion arrived at last year, as well as the recommendations made, have not suffered by another year's study

and research, on the contrary, they have been emphasized. Three other suggestions have, however, either been made or brought out by reflection, and are well worth consideration. They are:

[1.] That the Legislature should limit by law the number of convicts to be employed in any one branch to ten per cent. of the number employed in the same branch outside.

[2.] That the use of all power machinery be prohibited in prison shops, and the convicts be employed upon hand-work, as upon hand-made boots and shoes, hand-woven goods for prison wear, and other State purposes, etc.

[3.] That all idea of making prisoners self-supporting be abandoned, and the convicts be taught, under the Russian or some other system, to turn their hands to any trade requiring skill and training.

In 1879 the State Legislature appointed a committee, consisting of five Representatives and two Senators, to investigate the system of letting out to private contractors the labor of convicts in the penal and reformatory institutions of the State.

Charles H. Litchman, the present General Secretary of the Knights of Labor organization, and James H. Mellen, a prominent member of that association, were members of this committee. It met with commissions from Connecticut and New Jersey, appointed for a similar purpose, and, at a joint conference held at New Haven, in October, 1879, the following propositions were unanimously agreed to:

1. The general purpose of incarceration is the protection of society by the punishment of crime; and, in carrying out this purpose, the reformation of the prisoner should be constantly kept in view.

2. Partisan politics should be absolutely excluded from the management of penal and reformatory institutions.

3. The welfare of the State and the prisoner both demand that the latter should be employed in productive labor.

4. The right of the State to make its prisoners self-supporting should be conceded; but it should not expect to make a profit out of the labor of its criminals, at the expense of their reformation, or to the injury of the industrial classes.

5. The product of convict labor, when compared with that of the entire mechanical industry of the Nation, is insignificant; but its concentration upon a very few branches of industry may be seriously injurious to the citizens engaged in those branches.

6. The burden of the competition of convict labor should be distributed as widely and equally as possible.

7. The injury to any branch of industry from prison labor may be reduced to very small proportions by the greatest practicable diversity of employment in the prisons.

8. Where the contract system prevails, contracts for convict labor should be so drawn as to give the State absolute control of the discipline of the prisoners, and the State should prescribe all rules governing contractors and their employes.

9. The proper diversity of employment in the prisons should be secured by limiting the number of convicts to be employed in any one industry; such limitation should be adequate to secure the industrial interests of the country from serious injury, and to afford the convict a reasonable certainty of employment upon his release.

The law of Massachusetts permits the prison authorities to lease out "in domestic service" female prisoners, having regard for their welfare and reformation. It also permits the letting out to hire during the daytime, the prisoners confined in the several county jails and houses of correction, to employers who live near these institutions, so that "the master of the house can have the general inspection of the conduct of the person so let out." Persons committed to

the several county institutions may also be employed on public lands and buildings belonging to the county.

The law prohibits the employment of prisoners in engraving or printing of any kind. It also restricts the number that may be employed in the manufacturing of brushes, or of harness, to one hundred, and provides that the number employed in any other industry shall not exceed one-twentieth of the number of persons employed in such industry in the State, based on the census of 1880.

MICHIGAN.

John W. McGrath, the Labor Commissioner of Michigan, in 1884, made an interesting report concerning convict labor in that State. In this report he pointed out the manner in which the Constitution was being violated, wherein it provides that:

No mechanical trade shall hereafter be taught convicts in the State prison of this State, except the manufacture of those articles of which the chief supply for home consumption is imported from other States and countries.

The commissioner says that the contract system should be abolished, because:

First—The contractor has no interest in the prisoner, except in his ability to produce. The prisoner is the ward of the State. His employment is a means, not an end, and no contractor with arbitrary rules as to time, etc., should come between the prisoner and the State. The incentive to labor should be shortened terms, care for dependents, and payment of a stipend when discharged.

These men are required to work an average of ten hours per day for the year, eight and one-half hours in mid-winter, and eleven and one-half hours in mid-summer, and they work diligently. They have not the relief incident to outdoor labor—no rainy days—all their time is employed, except nights and Sundays. Is it not idle to expect reformatory or educational influences to be exerted, except those incident to industry, or to operate upon men who work ten

hours per day? The inmates are tired, the keepers have been with the men all day, and the warden or superintendent has been engrossed with the management of the financial and commercial transactions of the prison.

The reason why prisoners should be allowed to participate in the profits of their labor, he illustrated by citing a case of a criminal who was sentenced to the State prison for a term of years:

"He left destitute a wife in delicate health, and about to be confined, and two children, aged respectively four and six years. Within a short time she was compelled to move into one room, and is now living in that room, subsisting upon the charity of the public.

"This is one of the many instances of the kind. The husband is laboring for the State at Jackson, the wife and children are suffering for the necessities of life, and the children are being educated, by force of circumstances, to beggary."

In 1887, Labor Commissioner C. V. R. Pond, submitted to the Legislature an elaborate report, relating to the same subject, in which it is shown that the contract system, as operated in Michigan, is injurious both to the manufacturer and to the wage-workers. He, therefore, recommends that it be abolished, and that the State account plan, without the use of power machinery, be substituted.

NEW JERSEY.

In 1878 the Legislature authorized the appointment of a commission, consisting of five persons, "who shall make careful inquiry into the subject of prison labor, and whether it comes into competition with free labor, and if so, in what manner, to what extent, and what, in their opinion, is the best means of preventing such competition."

The conclusion arrived at by this commission may be summed up as follows:

First—The convict should do all the work he is capable of performing—as much, at least, as a free man of equal capacity could do, under the same restrictions.

Second—The nature of the convicts' employment must be safe, it must be healthy, it should be reformatory, and it must be productive.

Third—The labor of convicts in New Jersey do not, to any large extent, enter into competition with the free labor of the State, and the best means of preventing convict labor from becoming injurious to free labor, is to employ prisoners in the greatest number of trades that can be carried on advantageously in the prisons.

The contract system was abolished in New Jersey, in 1884, by a special act of the Legislature. The law declares it to be unlawful for the authorities of any prison, penitentiary, jail, or reformatory institution within the State, to, in any wise, contract for the labor of the inmates of such institutions.

The piece-price plan has been substituted for the contract system, but the advantages gained by the State, or the people, by the change are not apparent. All goods manufactured in the penal institutions of the State are required to be stamped as prison made goods. The law also prohibits the employing of more than one hundred convicts in any one industry.

NEW YORK.

As early as 1841, investigations of prison labor and discipline were begun by legislative authority in New York. A committee's report, in 1841, says that the mechanical interests of the State were to some extent injuriously affected by the then established system of employing prisoners, but that the system was not as oppressive and ruinous, as had been urged and insisted.

In 1867, the Commissioners of the Prison Association of New York made a report to the Legislature in which they say:

"Upon the whole, it is our settled conviction that the contract system of convict labor, added to the system of political appointments, which necessarily involves a lower grade of official qualifications and constant changes in the prison staff, renders nugatory, to a great extent, the whole theory of our penitentiary system. Inspection may correct isolated abuses; philanthropy may relieve isolated cases of distress; and religion may effect isolated moral cures; but genuine, radical, comprehensive, systematic improvement is impossible."

In accordance with a resolution of the Legislature, the State Commissioners on Prison Labor submitted a report in 1871, in which they declare that:

I. The contract system of prison labor is bad and should be abolished.

II. The industries of a prison, as well as its discipline, ought ordinarily to be managed by its head.

III. The successful management of the industries of a prison requires experience and business tact; qualities that can be acquired only by long practical familiarity with such management.

IV. It would not be wise to commit the industries of a prison to the management of its head, so long as he is not liable, but sure to be displaced on every transfer of power from one political party to another.

V. Considering the extent of the industries carried on in our State prisons, and the frequent changes of officials therein, the result of which is that inexperienced persons are for the most part at their head, it would be unwise and unsafe to change the system of labor while the system of government remains what it is at present.

VI. In order to a safe and successful change of the labor system from contracts to State management, it will be an essential condition precedent that political control be eliminated from the government of our State prisons, and that their administration be placed and kept in the hands of honest and capable men.

In response to a Senate resolution, in 1879, the superintendent of the State prison made a report concerning convict labor. In this report the objections to the several systems of employing convicts are set forth, and in concluding the superintendent says:

The subject is surrounded with difficulties. While it is manifestly unfair that the State should enter upon injurious competition with its citizens, no practicable method has yet been suggested for the employment of prisoners at any labor that will not interfere with one or more of its industrial interests. It is the conclusion of the best authorities, after the most careful investigation of all the facts, that "the experience of civilized States relative to productive labor in the penal institutions is too brief to indicate clearly what is the very best method to be adopted."

The first annual report for 1883, of the New York Commissioner of Labor Statistics, is devoted to the convict labor problem. The report is quite exhaustive in its treatment of the subject. Mr. C. H. Peck states that:

In submitting to your honorable body the recommendations as to the future policy of prison management which seems best adapted to the moral training of the convicts, and attended with least injury to existing interests, it is proper that the evil to be avoided, and which attach to existing systems should be briefly stated.

He then proceeds to set forth the objections to the contract and public account systems, as administered in that State, and declares that the contract system has been found imperfect, because:

The contractor seeks to make money from the convict's labor, without regard to his reformation.

It is destructive of prison discipline.

It renders impossible a diversity of employment, suited to the prisoners' capacities, and necessary to their moral training.

It is for the best interest of society that the prisoner's term of imprisonment be shortened for good conduct; it is to the contractor's interest that it be not shortened.

It makes impossible any proper classification and separation of prisoners, and is a constant menace to the discipline of the prison and the reformation of the convicts.

Manufacturers claim to be injuriously affected by its operations, and the mechanical and laboring interests are opposed to it on the ground that it tends to loss of employment and reduction of wages.

The public account system, as administered in that State, was found to be imperfect for the following reasons:

It was extremely costly.

It was used to furnish places for small politicians.

The convicts were not properly employed.

The officers did not attend to their duties.

The large outlay of money gave opportunity for wholesale extravagance and speculation.

The councils of the administration were divided, and as the officers held positions on account of their skill in politics, the prisoners were consequently put in the hands of scheming incompetents.

The Commissioner further states:

It seems to me not impossible to outline such a plan of general prison discipline and management as will, if embodied in the law, enable the superintendent of State prisons to so administer the affairs of that department that the grievances now existing and complained of, may be removed, and a system established which will make the prison reformatory and self-sustaining, without infringing upon the rights of free labor or of invested capital.

In this connection, and to this end, I have the honor to submit to your honorable body the following recommendations, to wit:

First—That certain contracts for convict labor be annulled, and that the Superintendent of prisons be prohibited from making other contracts only on certain conditions.

Second—That the maximum number of convicts employed in any industry shall not exceed ten per cent. of the number of free mechanics employed in that same industry in the State, but in no case shall there be more than three hundred convicts employed in any one industry or its separate branches.

Third—That the appointment of all officers under the superintendent of prisons, should be non-partisan, and that their term of office be during good behavior.

The agitation against the contract system in New York, assumed such proportions in 1883, as to cause the Legislature, at nearly the close of the session in that year, to agree to submit to a popular vote, at the election in November, the question of the abolishment of the system in that State.

The interest manifested by the people upon this question was shown by the immense vote polled at that election, which was forty-five thousand larger than was cast upon any proposition ever submitted to the people of the State. The full vote was as follows:

For abolition	405,882
Against abolition	266,966
Majority for abolition	138,916

It will thus be seen that the people were overwhelmingly opposed to the continuance of the convict contract system.

In 1886, the Legislature created a Prison Labor Reform Commission, for the purpose of ascertaining how best to employ the convicts other than by the contract system, and also to inquire what improvements were necessary to be made in the discipline of the prisons. After a most thorough investigation of the whole subject, the conclusions of the committee are contained in a bill for an act, which

they submitted with their report, in 1887. This bill contained ten sections. The first section reads as follows:

SECTION 1. The system of labor in the State prisons, reformatories and penitentiaries in this State, under State control, shall hereafter be that known as the "State" or "Public Account" system; and the system of labor in the various county penitentiaries of the State, under county control, shall be that of the "County Account System."

The other nine sections describe the manner of carrying into effect the propositions contained in section 1.

The concluding remarks of this report are:

"The honor of the State, the interests of the great army of free laborers, the best good to be attained to the convicts in the work of reformation, humanity and charity, join to urge the adoption of a system designed to meet the requirements of the hour, and which has been adopted and herewith ended by the commission, in a spirit of earnest endeavor to gather from out the conflict of interests and opinions, practical suggestions and attainable ends."

At its regular session, in 1888, the Legislature did not make provisions for maintaining convicts for the year, therefore, it was convened in special session, in July last, for the purpose of considering the making of appropriations, and adopting some system of employment for convicts.

At that special session a law was enacted, the first section of which provides:

SECTION 1. No motive power machinery, for manufacturing purposes, shall be placed or used in any of the penal institutions of the State; and no person in such institutions shall be required or allowed to work, while under sentence thereto, at any trade or industry where his labor, or the production or profit of his labor, is farmed out, contracted, given, or sold to any person or persons whomsoever."

Section 2 provides substantially that such articles only as are commonly needed in public institutions in the State, shall be manufactured by prisoners.

Section 3 provides that the comptroller, superintendent of State prisons, and other officials, shall fix the price at which the goods made shall be sold to State institutions.

Section 4 provides for an amount of funds, to be taken out of the State treasury, for the purchase of materials to be converted into manufactured goods.

Section 5 declares that the act shall go into effect immediately.

OHIO.

The Ohio House of Representatives, in 1877, appointed a committee to investigate the effect of convict labor upon the manufacturing interest of the State, its effect upon free labor, upon the reformation of criminals, the profits of prison contractors; also, the feasibility of abolishing the contract system, and the adopting of a system which would give profits of convict labor to the several counties and the State.

After giving the subject due consideration, the committee reported :

The contract system interferes, in an undue manner, with the honest industry of the State. It has been the cause of crippling the business of many manufacturers; it has been the cause of driving many of them out of business; it has been the cause of a large percentage of the reductions which have taken place in the wages of our mechanics; it has been the cause of pauperizing a large portion of our laborers, and increasing crime in a corresponding degree; it has been no benefit to the State; as a reformatory agency, it has been a complete, total, and miserable failure; it has hardened more criminals than any other cause; it has made total wrecks, morally, of thousands and thousands who would have been reclaimed from the paths of vice and crime under a proper system of prison management, but who now have resigned their fate to a life of hopeless degradation; it has not a single commendable feature; its tendency is pernicious in the extreme. In short, it is an insurmountable barrier in the way of the unfortunates who

are compelled to live and labor under its evil influences; it enables a class of men to get rich out of the crimes committed by others; it leaves upon the fair escutcheon of the State a relic of the very worst form of human slavery; it is a bone of ceaseless contention between the State and its mechanical and industrial interests; it is abhorred by all and respected by none except those, perhaps, who make profits and gain out of it. It should be tolerated no longer, but abolished at once.

The committee also recommended the following:

First—That the penal institutions of the State be placed under the management of men who, after a rigid examination, proved themselves thoroughly competent and efficient.

Second—That the prisoners should be allowed to participate in the profits of their labor, as a reward for good behavior.

The committee reasoned, "That if the profits of convict labor were shared by the State and prisoners, it would be much better for the prisoners and for society, than it could be under a system which gave the entire earnings of prisoners to contractors."

Third—That the prisoners should be classified according to the degree of their crime.

Fourth—As much as possible a multiplication of trades, and the selection of such branches of industry as would least interfere with the industries of the State.

The report continues:

The adoption of a system, such as your committee recommends, we feel confident would obviate all the evils connected with the contract system. Our manufacturers would then have no cause for complaint, and the contention which has for the past thirty-five years existed between the State and its mechanical interests, would lead to a higher plane and a higher order. There would then be opportunity for his reformation and to reclaim him from the path of vice and crime, and send him out into society with his reformation complete. To the accomplishment of

this end the State is in duty bound to exert every effort, no matter at what cost. Reformation should be the paramount aim, and all financial, as well as other aims, should be merely secondary considerations. The State has no right to make money out of the prisoner at the expense of his reformation, much less delegate that power to other parties.

We, therefore, trust that immediate steps will be taken looking to a change in the management of our penal institutions. In doing this we are put to no risk, for the reason that it would be hardly possible to adopt a system more injurious than the contract system. It is a duty we owe to society and the unfortunate human beings behind our prison walls, that measures be adopted which will give them opportunity to reform and re-enter society, morally and intellectually better men.

In 1883, the Governor, by authority of the Legislature, appointed a commission to investigate the subject of convict labor. This commission made a report in 1884, and in that year the Legislature enacted, "That the contract system of employing prisoners shall not exist in any form in the Ohio penitentiary;" and further, the prisoners under certain restrictions, are to have placed to their credit an amount not to exceed twenty per cent. of their earnings.

The piece-price plan is now being substituted for the contract system, as fast as existing contracts expire. But the advantage to either the convicts, the State or to free labor, by the change, is not apparent—at least to persons making a tour of inspection through the penitentiary and its work-shops.

The prisoners who were employed under contract are required to perform the same amount of work, and in the same manner, under the piece-price system. The persons who acted as foremen for the contractors are retained in apparently the same capacities under the new system. The guard or guide, who conducts visitors through the prison, scarcely understands which portion of the establishment is

engaged under the contract, or which on the piece-price plan, the operations of the systems so closely resembling each other.

PENNSYLVANIA.

In 1877, the Legislature of Pennsylvania appointed a committee to inquire into the convict labor system, as in operation in that State. This committee reported, in 1878, that contract convict labor, as then carried on in the State, had little or no effect upon its manufacturing interests, but that the principle involved in the contract system, and the manner in which contracts were let, as well as the competition it caused with voluntary labor, were all injurious to the interests of free labor.

In relation to this subject the report contains the following :

The contractor of prison labor has many advantages which are not always easy to estimate in money, when the matter of profits is considered. Among them are to be estimated, no rent for building, no insurance, no cost for storage, and the want of all competition in the price paid for convict labor, either by the day or other fixed period, and the compulsion under which the convicts toil, the time saved by his location near his work, and the supervision of the convict in performing his task-work. It is true, much depends on the trade carried on, and the agreement made between the institution and the contractor. There is no doubt that very large profits are made by contractors, or some of them, and it is equally true that very large losses are made by the State, in many cases.

To avoid the profits made by contractors, to the injury of free labor, it is not only necessary to abolish the contract system, but also to modify the convicts' labor, so that it will not injuriously affect the private enterprise of any class of outside manufacturers.

Your committee believes that this can best be done, with a due regard to the burden of taxation, State, county, or city, and the proper support of prison inmates, by teach-

ing each person a full trade, avoiding the use of machinery, and disposing of the product of the convict labor in the open market, where the best article commands the highest price, confining, as far as possible, the industries taught to those articles that are used in public and penal and charitable institutions, supported by taxation. This may not be practicable, to a great extent, but if it is left to the management of each penal institution of the State to direct its labor, on these principles, the profits, if any, will directly result to the benefit of the tax-payers. Diversifying the trades taught, seeking for those that are least injurious on free labor, trying to dispose of the products of these industries where the competition is hardly ascertainable, and placing on the management of those institutions the duty of supervision of the trades taught, and the disposition of their productive labor, so that the closest economy will be the positive effect of their administration, and the necessary reduction to the smallest amount of taxation, are the remedies to be sought, and are both feasible and practicable.

In June, 1883, the Legislature adopted "An act to abolish the contract system in the prisons and reformatory institutions of the State of Pennsylvania, and to regulate the wages of the inmates."

It is provided by this law that, at the expiration of existing contracts, the officers of the various prisons, reformatory institutions, county jails, and work-houses, shall employ the inmates thereof for, and in behalf of, the State and their respective counties.

Section 4, of this act, reads:

SEC. 4. All convicts under control of the State and county officers, and all inmates of reformatory institutions engaged in manufacturing articles for general consumption, shall receive, quarterly, wages equal to the amount of their earnings, to be fixed from time to time, by the authorities of the institutions, from which board, lodging, and clothing, and the costs of trial shall be deducted, and the balance paid to their families or dependents. In case none such appear, the amount shall be paid to the convicts at the expiration of the term of imprisonment.

The law also provides that all goods manufactured in the penal institutions, and intended to be sold in the State, shall be branded with the words "convict-made."

The eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania, located at Philadelphia, employs its prisoners and maintains a discipline entirely different from that of any other prison or penitentiary in the country. Similar methods were introduced into the Auburn prison, of New York, but, after years of experiments, were finally discarded.

This penitentiary was established in 1829, and its management has been nearly the same ever since. It is conducted upon the "individual treatment plan." The labor of the inmates has never been contracted out. All the prisoners except those engaged in "prison duties," perform their work in their cells, by hand, the use of power machinery being entirely dispensed with, even in washing the prisoners' clothing.

Work, in this penitentiary, is all performed under the piece-price and public account systems. Shoes, hosiery, mats, chairs and cigars are manufactured in this institution; cane chairs are also re-seated. Within the walls is a flouring mill to grind flour for prison use only. Cloth is also woven for the same purpose.

Each prisoner is required to perform a certain amount of work daily. This is imposed as a "task," and is equal to what a free man would do in about three hours. It takes the prisoner about six hours to perform it. After the "task" is finished he can work over-time. One-half of the over-time credit belongs to him. As the prisoner works in his own cell, he can work as he pleases, provided he performs his "task." Many of them work from six o'clock in the morning until nine at night. All the extra money earned is deposited for them until they are released, or it is turned over to their friends upon their order.

Under this system the prisoners are kept entirely separate. They do not see each other, nor are they seen by the public. The warden says, "We do not put our prisoners on exhibition at so much per head." When they are taken out of their cells to bathe, or for any other purpose, they are masked in such a manner as to completely conceal their identity. The bath tubs are separated by partitions, the meals are eaten in the cells. There are no weapons kept about the institution, except one revolver carried by the guard at night.

In this prison, reformation of criminals is the first consideration, and the amount of work to be accomplished is but a secondary one. Such numbers of the prisoners as exigency may require, are assigned to prison duties. These men are permitted to see and converse with each other. In explanation of this, the warden informed an officer of this bureau that these men were considered beyond the pale of reformation and could, therefore, not be morally contaminated by coming into contact with one another.

The common impression concerning prison cells is that they are very small, very dimly lighted, ill-ventilated rooms, about four by eight feet, with very low ceilings. For some prisons this description will answer, but not for the cells in the penitentiary under notice. They are more properly entitled to be called rooms, being eight by sixteen feet, and twelve feet high, having sky-lights twelve inches wide and five feet long, which afford ample ventilation. The wish of the officials is to give each prisoner a cell to himself, but the lack of space forbids this in every instance, therefore, in some cells two men, as nearly alike as possible in temperament and habits, are selected and put together in what are termed double cells, each twelve by sixteen feet, and containing work-benches.

During good behavior, prisoners are allowed to receive visits once in three months and to write letters once a

month. They are not allowed any extras. Striped uniforms are not used. A razor and a pair of shears are furnished prisoners, so that they can cut their hair and shave, or not, as suits themselves.

In speaking of this system, the warden says: "I presume the reason it has not been more extensively adopted is because it is too much trouble to manage it. Our system inculcates habits of industry and work, which many who come here never knew before. Some of our men are never changed from the work to which they are first assigned, and learn a trade in full. * * * * Under our system a prisoner makes no associates; he is certain to go out as good, at least, as when he came in."

Concerning the contract system, the warden uses the following language:

"It is wrong for a great State to engage with an individual in a manufacturing business, sharing the profits of the labor of persons, convicted of crime, with a contractor. When a State places one of its citizens in prison for the violation of law, it assumes the responsibility of his care, and should not transfer any part of that responsibility to a contractor, whose only interest in the prisoner is to make money out of his labor, without any care for his reformation or well-being.

"Punishment for crime should not mean the using of the offenders as a part of a machine to produce an income to the State, without any consideration as to their future, nor does it mean that they should be used in conjunction with a contractor's machinery, to the disadvantage of its citizens, who have always conformed to its laws."

The system of discipline maintained in the eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania is not in operation anywhere else, except, perhaps, in the *Maison Centrale*, a prison located in the city of Louvain, Belgium, which prison was modeled after the Philadelphia penitentiary. The faces of persons

committed to that prison are not exposed even to the warden; the doctor is the only person by whom a prisoner's face is ever seen. The convicts are clad entirely in white linen, the head and face are masked by a hood of the same material, in which are four holes for the eyes, nose and mouth. Prisoners work in cells, the earnings of each are equally divided between the State and himself; his portion is again subdivided, one-half is retained for him until the expiration of his sentence; if not incarcerated for life, the other is deposited for his private use.

The convicts are employed as shoe-makers, book-binders, tailors, carpenters, smiths, and the well educated as copyists. Those who know no trade are taught one. They are all exercised for an hour each day in the open air, in separate yards, but they must not unmask.

Although a common impression prevails that solitary confinement causes insanity, such has not been the experience at this prison, which contained more than six hundred prisoners in 1887, some of whom have dwelt in it since its establishment, in 1864.

Neither has it been the experience of the officials at Philadelphia penitentiary, which contains nearly twelve hundred convicts. The officer of this bureau, who visited the institution, was told by the warden that, some time ago, a comparative showing, for a period of twenty years, was made between his penitentiary and the Massachusetts State prison, located at Charlestown, that institution being considered one of the best managed "congregate" prisons in the country: The object of the comparison was to ascertain the relative effects of the system upon the minds of convicts, and the outcome of the test was a signal victory for the Pennsylvania system. The officers of this bureau took pains, while visiting prisons where the "congregate" system was in vogue, to hold conversation with prisoners

of either sex and made the closest observations of their general conduct. He came to the conclusion that the individual system pursued at Philadelphia was in no manner more calculated to unseat the reason of prisoners than was the "congregate" system.

WISCONSIN.

In the report of the Wisconsin Labor Bureau for 1885-6, the commissioner, Frank A. Flower, treats briefly the convict labor problem, and recommends for the State that "The contracts run until we shall have discovered, and are prepared to put in operation, something besides idleness as a substitute for them. But if the labor of our prisoners shall be contracted again after January 1, 1889, I am firmly of the opinion that the employment should be diversified; that two or more other branches of manufacturing should be added to that of boots and shoes, so as to equalize competition amongst the various industries of the State."

SECTION II.

COUNTY JAILS.

The State law relating to the keeping of records at county jails is so plain that it would seem but very little difficulty would be encountered in gathering such facts and figures as would be valuable to those interested in prison statistics.

The following is the section of the statutes which covers this matter :

Section 1821, page 588, of the General Statutes. "It shall be the duty of the keeper of each county jail to keep in a book, provided by the county for that purpose, a daily record of the commitments and discharges of all persons delivered to his custody, which record shall exhibit the date of entrance, name, offense, term of sentence, fine, age, sex, country, how and by whom committed, when and by whom discharged, which record shall be open to the inspection of the public at all reasonable hours, and shall be delivered by the sheriff to his successor in office."

It will be seen by the following tables that but few sheriffs have complied with the law. In order to obtain the statistics of the Arapahoe county jail, the officers of the bureau had to repair to the institution, and then succeeded, after a great deal of hard work, in securing partial figures. For the purpose of completing their information, they were obliged to spend a considerable time in the office of the county clerk looking over vouchers and other documents, containing figures relating to cost of maintenance, etc.

Of the forty-two counties, only twenty-two furnished figures and other information, whole or in part. Four sheriffs acknowledged not having kept record, one says his was destroyed by fire, twelve say they received no prisoners for the year 1887, and some, that they have not had any prisoners confined in their jails from two to three years.

The whole number of prisoners on record for 1887 was nine hundred and seven. The tables make showing of one remarkable feature, in the fact that, of the whole number of these prisoners, only three performed any work, and earned, as an offset to their board, \$180.00, or say \$60.00 each. Nine of the sheriffs only, returned the cost of maintenance. The total amount is \$20,100.31. Deduct the total amount earned, and \$19,920.31 is shown to be the cost of keeping in idleness, in only a few of the county jails in the State, a number of offenders, many of whom,

owing to the comfort afforded in these institutions, in the winter time, especially, seek incarceration therein.

The figures showing the daily cost *per capita*, it will be seen, have a wide range, which is accounted for by the fact that where the higher figures appear, cost of guard and other service, mileage, etc., are included. Where figures are below a dollar, they represent, probably, the actual daily cost *per capita* of maintenance, including guarding and sheriff's fees, as is the case in Arapahoe county.

Insane persons, confined in the county jails awaiting examination preparatory to being sent to the State Insane Asylum, or set free, are not included in the number of prisoners represented:

TABLE NO. XIX—COUNTY JAILS.

NUMBER, CONDITION, COST OF MAINTENANCE, ETC., OF PERSONS IMPRISONED IN COUNTY JAILS DURING THE YEAR 1887.

COUNTY.	NO. OF PRISONERS.			MARRIED.		SINGLE.		AVERAGE IMPRISONM'T.				Value of the prod'ct of the prison-ers' lab.or.	Cost of main-tenance for 1887.	Daily cost per capita.
	NO. OF PRISONERS.		Total.	MARRIED.		SINGLE.		AVERAGE IMPRISONM'T.						
	Male.	Female		Male.	Female	Male.	Female	Male.	Female.	M'nths.	Days.			
Arapahoe	508	19	527										\$15,386 96	\$ 76
*Archuleta														
†Bent														
‡Boulder														
Clear Creek	8	2	10		2	3	5		1	8	1	8		
Chaffee	20		20											
Conejos	2		2				2			20			125 00	3 12½
Costilla	4	1	5		2	1	2		2		1	10	130 00	44
*Custer														
*Delta														
Douglas														
*Douglas	3		3				3							75
*Dolores														
*Eagle														
Elbert														
El Paso	67	4	71						1	3½	1	3½		
Fremont	11		11							25				
*Garfield														
Gilpin					1				1					
Grand	1		1				1			6			30 00	1 00
Gunnison														
*Hinsdale	30	1	31		6		24		1		3			
*Huerfano														
*Jefferson														
Lake	28		29											
La Plata	16		16		2		14			24¾		4		
Larimer	21		21		7		14		2				955 75	99
Las Animas									4				1,241 60	41

[illegible]

* No persons sentenced during the year 1887.

† Records destroyed by fire January 10, 1888.

† Records incomplete.

2. No record kept.

Prisoners confined in Arapahoe county jail.

TABLE No. XX—COUNTY JAILS.

NATIVITY AND SEX OF PERSONS IMPRISONED IN COUNTY JAILS DURING THE YEAR 1887.

COUNTY	AMERICA		AUS- TRIA		ENGLAND		PO- LAND		SCOT- LAND		WALES		ITALY		GER- MANY		MEXICO		SCANDA- NAVIA		IRELAND		ALLOTHERS		Total
	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	
Arapahoe . . .	399	13	11	22	2				5				4		29				8	1	31	2	89	1	527
Archuleta . . .																									
Bent . . .																									
Boulder . . .																									
Clear Creek . .	4	1											1		1		1		1				1		10
Chaffee . . .	11			2					1						2						4				20
Conejos . . .																									2
Costilla . . .	1	1															1						1		5
Custer . . .																	3								
Delta . . .																									
Douglas . . .																									
Dolores . . .	1																					2			3
Eagle . . .																									
Elbert . . .																									
El Paso . . .																									
Fremont . . .	30			1							1				1		2				32			4	71
Garfield . . .	4			1													2		1		3				11
Gilpin . . .																									
Grand . . .																									
Gunnison . . .	1																								1
Hinsdale . . .	12						2				1										10		3	1	31
Huerfano . . .																									
Jefferson . . .																									
Lake . . .																									
La Plata . . .	15	1		1					1				2		1						7		1		29
Larimer . . .	10												2								3		1		16
Las Animas . .	15														2						4				21

[illegible]

General total—Males, 877; Females, 30; Total, 907.

TABLE NO. XXI—ARAPAHOE COUNTY JAIL.

CRIMES AND NATIVITY OF PERSONS IMPRISONED IN THE ARAPAHOE COUNTY JAIL, DURING THE YEAR 1887.

CRIME	America	Austria	Canada	China	Cuba	Eng-land	France	Ger-many	Ireland	Italy	Russia	Scanda-navia	Scot-land	Nationality not given	Total
Arson	1														1
Abortion	4														4
Adultery	3													1	3
Assault	27	1	1	2		2		3	2					10	50
Assault to kill	3		4			2		1		1			1		12
Buying votes	1														1
Bastardy	1														1
Burglary	17	1	1												18
Contempt of Court	2							1	1					7	2
Embezzlement								1							1
Forgery	13	1	2			1	1	1	1					1	24
False pretenses	13					1								4	14
Incest	2														2
Larceny	174														270
Malicious mischief	8		10		1	11	3	15	20	1		6	1	28	9
Murder	2		1					1					1	1	5
Murder (accessory to)													1		1
Perjury												1			1
Riot	2														4
Vagrancy	5	8													13
Violation of election law	15								1						21
Aiding escap'd prisoners	1				1			1						5	2
Robbery	17		2			2	1			1					20
Crimes not registered	10					5	1	6	3	1			1	2	30
Totals	322	11	21	2	1	24	6	29	33	4	1	9	5	59	527

TABLE NO. XXII—ARAPAHOE COUNTY JAIL.

AGES AND CRIMES OF PERSONS IMPRISONED IN THE ARAPAHOE COUNTY JAIL DURING THE YEAR 1887.

CRIME	Under 20	20 to 25	25 to 30	30 to 35	35 to 40	40 to 45	45 to 50	50 to 55	55 to 60	60 to 70	No age given	Total
Abortion			1		3	1						5
Adultery		2			1							3
Aiding persons to escape		1										1
Arson			1	1								1
Assault	2	12	15	2	7	5	2	3	2			50
Assault to kill		3	1	4	2			1	1			12
Bastardy		1										1
Burglary		5	14	3	1	1	1					28
Contempt of Court	3	1	1			1		1				2
Embezzlement		1										2
False pretences	2	3	5		2	1			1			14
Forgery	4	4	5	4	2	3	1	1				24
Incest					1	1						2
Larceny	49	62	63	26	27	12	16	6	8		1	270
Malicious mischief		3	2	2	3							9
Murder	1					1			1			5
Murder, accessory to			1							1		1
Perjury		1					2	1				4
Riot	2	5	2	1	3							13
Robbery	2	11	6	5	4	1	1					30
Vagrancy	4	5	7	1	1	3						21
Violation election law		2	1	1								3
Crime not registered	1	8	3	3	3	2	2			1	3	26
Totals	70	126	130	53	60	32	25	13	13	1	4	527

TABLE No. XXIII.

The following are the occupations given by those who were confined in the Arapahoe county jail during the year 1887:

Actress	1	<i>Brought forward</i>	140
Architects	1	Gardener	1
Artists	4	Glass-blowers	3
Attorney	1	Harness-makers	2
Baker	1	House-keepers	10
Barbers	3	Janitors	4
Bartenders	8	Laborers	229
Blacksmiths	4	Laundry-men	3
Boiler-makers	4	Nurse	1
Book-binder	1	Machinists	3
Book-keepers	9	Merchants	10
Brakemen	4	Miners	12
Brewer	1	Moulders	4
Brick-makers	5	Painters	19
Broom-makers	3	Plasterers	2
Butchers	11	Plumber	1
Carpenters	19	Printers	5
Carriage-makers	3	Ranchmen and cowboys . . .	24
Cigar-makers	2	Real estate men	3
Clerks	18	Sailors	3
Contractors	2	Servants	3
Cooks	20	Shoemakers	5
Coopers	2	Solicitors	8
Doctors	5	Stenographers	1
Druggists	5	Stone-cutters	7
Employment agent	1	Tailors	1
Engineers (stationary)	1	Waiters	4
Firemen (locomotive)	1	No occupation	19
<i>Carried forward</i>	140	<i>Total</i>	527

SECTION III.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Probably the greatest responsibility assumed of late years by States, is the care of children, who, from various causes, promise to become, unless restrained in time, or have become criminals—that is, have been guilty of offenses of a more or less serious character. The timely interference of paternal governments, in rescuing very young children from the jaws of vice, the reclamation of others, who have already taken first steps on the high road to villainy, and the reformation of numbers of juveniles, who, for years have been embryo professionals, has been a noble work.

It is one that, in view of many existing conditions in the country, which need not be dwelt upon here, but which must present their character to every thinker, must be pursued and persevered in, not only for the sake of present, but for future social relations.

Many reason that the State should not be charged with the care of juvenile offenders, and claim that the duty, cost and responsibility should devolve upon counties to which the offenders belong, while other people insist that cities and towns should take care of their own juvenile offenders. There is, however, no room in this report for discussion of this phase of the matter, or the merits of the respective claims made by exponents or advocates on either or any side. That the work is one of present and growing great importance none will deny, and it matters not whether it be undertaken by city, county or State, provided, methods put in practice be humane and efficient and the objects sought be attained.

This good work is undertaken, however, by a number of States. Grand results have been accomplished, and thousands of children, of either sex, have been saved from lives of sin and crime, put on pathways of virtue and industry, and made to fill useful spheres in life.

In every city, town, and village, almost, in America, are to be found children needing moral care, whose helpless and pitiable condition may arise from the inroads of death, bad and vicious examples, or absence of proper parental care in permitting children to keep bad associations. While, as said before, opportunity is not given for discussion of the merits of respective arguments relative to which branch of government should assume responsibility of the moral redemption of young offenders, it may be said that in very few instances, either here or in the Old World, has it been found that city or county corporate care has yielded appreciable benefits to the great work. Wherever, on the other hand, general governments of Europe and the State governments of this country have undertaken the task, and have placed institutions dedicated to the purpose, as far as possible, remote from political influence and interferences, beneficial results have followed.

Frequent meetings and discussions of methods by officers having charge of these institutions, have led to adoption, by some of the State governments, of very effective means of reclamation and reformation of youth. That the tax involved is a heavy one in some States, there is no doubt, when regarded from a strictly financial standpoint, but from a moral and humanitarian point of view, the outlay is nothing compared with the benefits derived.

By the earlier system which obtained, in times gone by, of treating juvenile offenders the same as older vio-

lators of the law, and without the least consideration for their tender years, or their stage of progress in offending, the little ones were subjected to the contamination of hardened criminals, and learned to imitate the blackest vices. The separation of the sexes was the only decent feature in administration at these establishments. Happily, however, with the dawn of enlightenment and the rapid progress made in matters of a sociological nature the past few years, those days have gone by, with nearly all the crudities of what some people affect to call "the good old times." No longer are child offenders permitted to be treated like veteran criminals past all hope of reformation. Instead of the gloomy, fortress-like looking prison, with iron-barred doors and windows, and premises surrounded with heavy stone walls or stockades; in place of a forbidding cell-lined interior, all suggestive of the horrors told in history of the Dark Ages, are found cheerful piles of architecture, containing within them almost every home feature of domestic comfort. Bright, intellectual faces, instead of the severe, stony and repulsive ones of the "Old Guard" greet the visitor. In place of assortments of hand-cuffs, iron leg-gear and other implements of restraint, are seen beautiful flowers on almost every side, while birds sweeten the surroundings with merry song. There is no frowning stockade, nor armed and uniformed guard on the outside. Every endeavor is made to impart to these institutions, both inside and out, a homelike aspect calculated to win at a glance the confidence of the little ones who may enter their portals. There is no room left for the young offender to entertain the horror of entering on prison life, and the putting into practice of natural principles has its effect upon his or her mind instantly on entering these places.

Speaking of this subject, in the report of the Connecticut Reform School for 1881, appears the following,

which every benevolent person who has given the matter of child reformation any consideration, can appreciate:

“The prison principle is more or less hateful to the adult delinquent; it is an abhorrence to the youthful offender. The prison principle in reform peculiarly outrages the nature of child life. The shock penetrates to the ends of his being, and body and soul rise up against it in the fiercest antagonism; for, as soon as born, the great law is upon the child, that he spring toward the development of a man. To this end his Creator has endowed him with the most intense activity and restlessness. The child loves and pants for freedom. His every contact with nature is but his communion with a second mother. To a boy, the bolted door, the barred window, the walled yard, the shadowy cell, and the divers contrivances of brute force, are not so much terrors as enemies, that he is not afraid to fight, and with which every impulse of his nature does wage implacable conflict; though, for the time being, he may be rendered helpless against them. These barriers against the deep cravings of his child nature, instead of becoming factors in his reform, become like Carthaginian altars, and he, like a young Hannibal, swears upon them undying hatred to them, to the builders of them; and such is the desperate growth of his ferocious hate, that he fancies in every man the architect of some new prison and its penalties.”

There are at the present time two systems in practice in the country for the treatment of child offenders, namely, the “congregate,” and the “open,” or “family” system. In the congregate system all the inmates are accommodated in one or two buildings, the sexes, of course, being separated, but put under rules, regulations and discipline similar to those existing in ordinary convict establishments, but devoid of a great many features which characterize them in detail.

Instead of the children being placed in cells, they have day rooms, and at night sleep in neat and comfortably appointed dormitories; the discipline is as relaxed

as possible, consistent with conditions, the food is good, hours of study and recreation provided, approved friends are permitted to visit the children, and the latter are allowed correspondence with relatives. In some instances a system of parole exists whereby children are permitted, after having been in the institution some length of time, to return to their friends, if they have any, and stay there, subject to the friends sending regular weekly, bi-weekly or monthly report of their charges' whereabouts and behavior, to the officials of the establishment, on whose books their names appear.

In visits by an officer of this bureau, but one institution, where profession is made of "reforming children," at which old-time severity is kept up, was found. This is the St. Louis House of Refuge. There, are high walls and other repulsive Middle Age features, besides color distinction, which is rigidly enforced among the females. A visit to this place, followed by one to establishments conducted on the modern, model plan of seeking reformation of the young by "inspiring them with sentiments of love and esteem for others, and cultivating and moulding the mind, temper and other attributes of the children," as the potter tempers and moulds the clay, or the farmer tends his seedlings and plants, gives rise to feelings not easily described, but which can be appreciated by lovers of humanity.

The "home" system, sometimes known as the "cottage plan," compares with the old one about as glorious sunlight does with midnight blackness. This system is in vogue at Lancaster, Ohio; Meriden, Connecticut, and Westboro, Massachusetts, and has also been adopted, either wholly or in part, with some modifications, in New Jersey, Wisconsin, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, Michigan, Western Pennsylvania and the District of Columbia.

This system was first inaugurated at Lancaster, Ohio, in 1858, and was copied somewhat after that in use at the "Rauhe Haus," at Horn, Germany, also as well as after the military school at Mettray, France.

The plan pursued is to provide separate homes for the pupils, instead of herding them together under one roof. A brief description of the plan at Meriden, Connecticut, will explain it:

In the center is the superintendent's house. Surrounding it, at convenient distances, are five smaller domiciles, constructed to accommodate fifty children each. Each house has a separate staff of officials, teachers and matrons, while a school-room and workshop are in each domicile. There is a laundry, a bake-house and other necessary departments, but these are in the central or superintendent's house. The children are required to do light work, principally cane-seating chairs, and attend school a certain number of hours daily. Hours of play are appointed, and every means afforded for healthful recreation and exercise. A vacation is given each year in the summer, during which there is no school, but the usual amount of work is performed by the scholars. There are over four hundred pupils in the establishment, which is conducted almost like a large boarding-school, while the most scrupulous cleanliness and neatness are apparent on every side, and the most cheerful demeanor characterizes the pupils.

Attempts to escape are exceedingly rare. To give an illustration of the disinclination of the children to take advantage of the facilities afforded them to run away, it may be said that one day this last summer, on the occasion of a circus visiting the city, all the children were taken by their teachers, in a body, to the show, and not one turned up missing.

The large house occupied by the superintendent is a relic of old times, and once served the purpose of a "reformatory" for children. It was conducted on the cellular plan, and was simply a prison. As many of the old cells as possible, consistent with the safety of the buildings, have been torn out, and those which remain are used for closets, pantries or storage places. In this house a number of the pupils are accommodated, and, as already stated, there, also, are situated the laundry and bakery of the entire establishment.

A handsomely designed and finely constructed chapel is situated in the extensive grounds, where services are conducted at regular periods. These grounds comprise a veritable park, with a wealth of verdure and richly tinted floral beauty, which rob the visitor to, as well as the little inmate of, the establishment, of the very last lingering idea that he is within the precincts of a "prison."

Children leaving such an institution do so devoid of the feelings which possess the minds of those who have stepped from the portals of a convict prison. Feelings of regret and of attachment animate those who leave the fostering care of one institution, while hatred and revenge are breathed by those who are turned out of the other.

The pupils of the Meriden institution go forth without fear of looking the world in the face, and are ready to take their share in active life and apply, practically, the principles instilled into them by the benign system of education and training to which they have been subjected, and by the instrumentality of which they have been rescued from moral destruction.

COLORADO.

The Colorado Industrial School, at Golden, is conducted on the "congregate plan," and was established nearly eight years ago. The superintendent and family, with the children committed to their care, from nearly all parts of the State, occupy two sets of buildings, the dwelling of the superintendent being separate. The industries at which the children are engaged comprise the making and repairing of boots and shoes for the inmates, and the manufacturing of all classes of brooms, which are sold wherever a market can be found. The larger boys are also engaged in cultivating a portion of the grounds belonging to the institution, and, where possible, doing needed repairs upon the buildings. The pupils attend school at such portions of the day as have been established by rule, and considered most convenient. Religious exercises occur regularly, morning, evening and on Sundays, on which latter occasions pastors from various portions of the State address the pupils. The boys have a fairly well trained band of music, and plenty of out-door amusement and exercise.

Since the establishment of the school, the State of Colorado has appropriated \$204,000 for its support. Of this amount, \$24,000 belong to the building and grounds fund, leaving \$180,000 used in carrying on the institution in eight years, or at the rate of \$22,500 per annum. The average number of pupils in the establishment has been ninety-five, which would make the cost *per capita* per annum \$236.83.

As already stated, the principal industry is the manufacture of brooms and broom brushes. These articles are brought into direct competition with those made in Denver or elsewhere in the State by free labor, a fact which draws continual protest from manufacturers, who declare they have to sell the goods made in their estab-

lishments twenty to twenty-five per cent. less than they would were it not for the competition of the Golden Industrial School. During last year no less than 2,132 dozens of brooms, representing all sizes, were made in the reform school, and were put on the market.

Inquiry has developed the fact that Denver broom manufacturers have not only to compete with workers at the Industrial School, but also with those at the United States military prison at Ft. Leavenworth, Kansas, as well as with convicts of the State of Nebraska, products of the labor of both these elements being shipped into and sold in Colorado. It will therefore be seen that the prohibition of the manufacture of brooms at the Colorado Industrial School would be of little benefit to Colorado manufacturers of those articles, while convict-made goods from other States are permitted to be poured into the market.

In investigating the matter of the sale of brooms, it was ascertained that State institutions, which would be supposed to patronize the article made in our Industrial School at Golden, purchase elsewhere, and may be using the goods sent into Colorado by the prison contractors in Kansas and Nebraska.

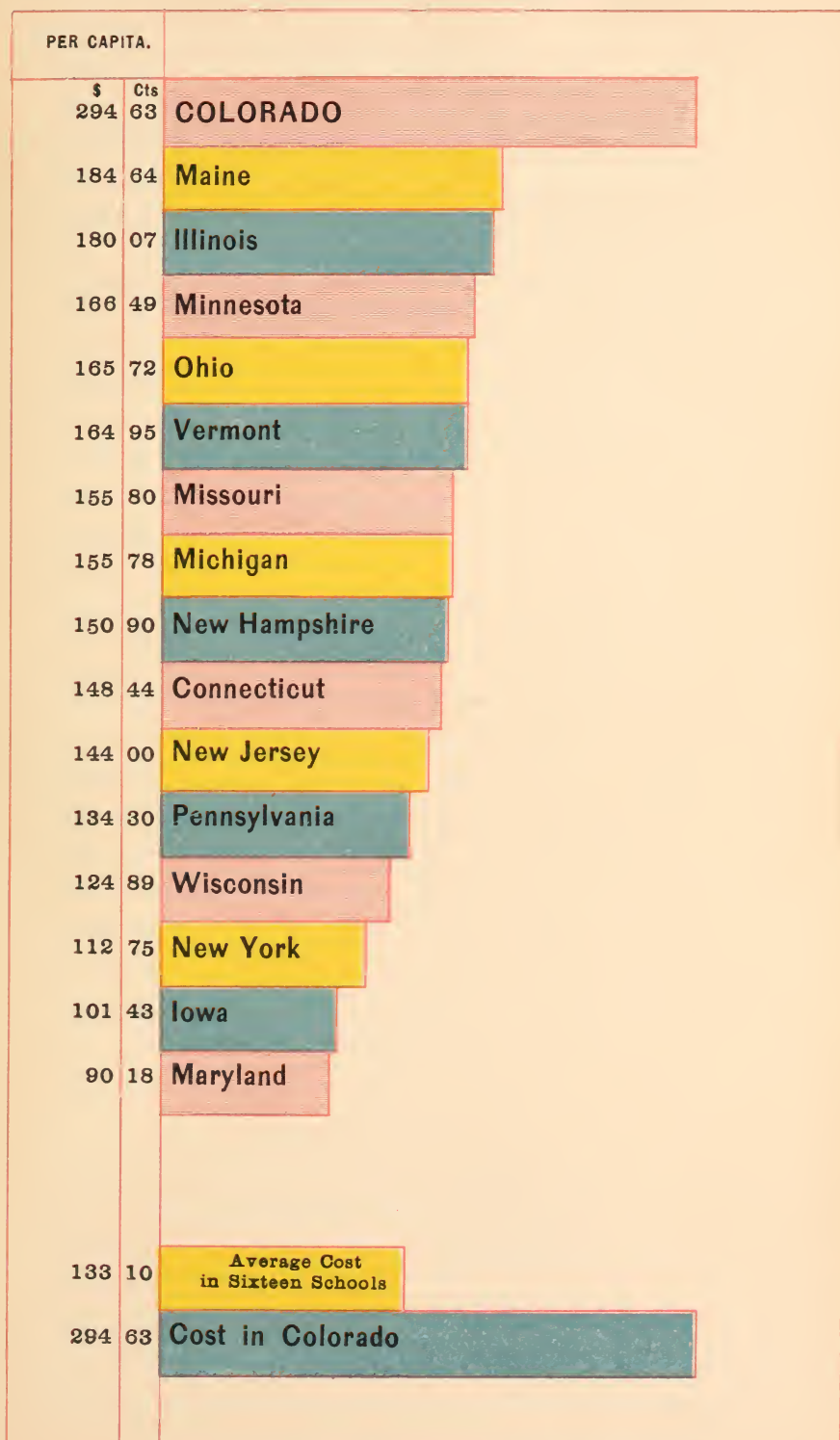
That a certain amount of good is done by the existence and general workings of such an institution in the State, no one will pretend to deny. If it be true, as claimed by the superintendent and judges and justices of the peace, that the establishment is already too limited in dimensions for the demands made upon it, necessary additions might be effected, but the cost of maintaining this school should be considered in comparison with that of others situated elsewhere, and conducted on the "home" system of Ohio and Connecticut, as well as under the "congregate" plan in vogue in other States.

For the purpose of showing the cost of carrying on such establishments, the figures pertaining to reformatories of sixteen States, as contained in the report of the National Bureau of Labor Statistics, are here given, for the year 1886:

Cost of maintenance for the year 1886, of the reform and industrial schools of sixteen States:

STATE.	Prisoners.	Running expenses.	Per capita.
Colorado	90	\$ 26,516 73	\$ 294 63
Connecticut	659	97,822 26	145 44
Illinois	322	57,983 70	180 07
Iowa	420	42,600 00	101 43
Maine	108	19,942 00	184 64
Maryland	698	62,943 14	90 18
Michigan	624	97,206 74	155 78
Minnesota	234	38,959 47	166 49
Missouri	224	34,900 00	155 80
New Hampshire	113	17,051 22	150 90
New Jersey	480	69,118 49	144 00
New York	3,209	361,820 28	112 75
Ohio	878	145,501 90	165 72
Pennsylvania	1,218	163,575 32	134 30
Vermont	87	14,351 06	164 95
Wisconsin	477	59,571 68	124 89
Totals and average	9,841	\$ 1,309,863 99	\$ 133 10

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE COST PER CAPITA FOR MAINTENANCE OF INMATES IN SIXTEEN REFORM AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, FOR THE YEAR 1886.

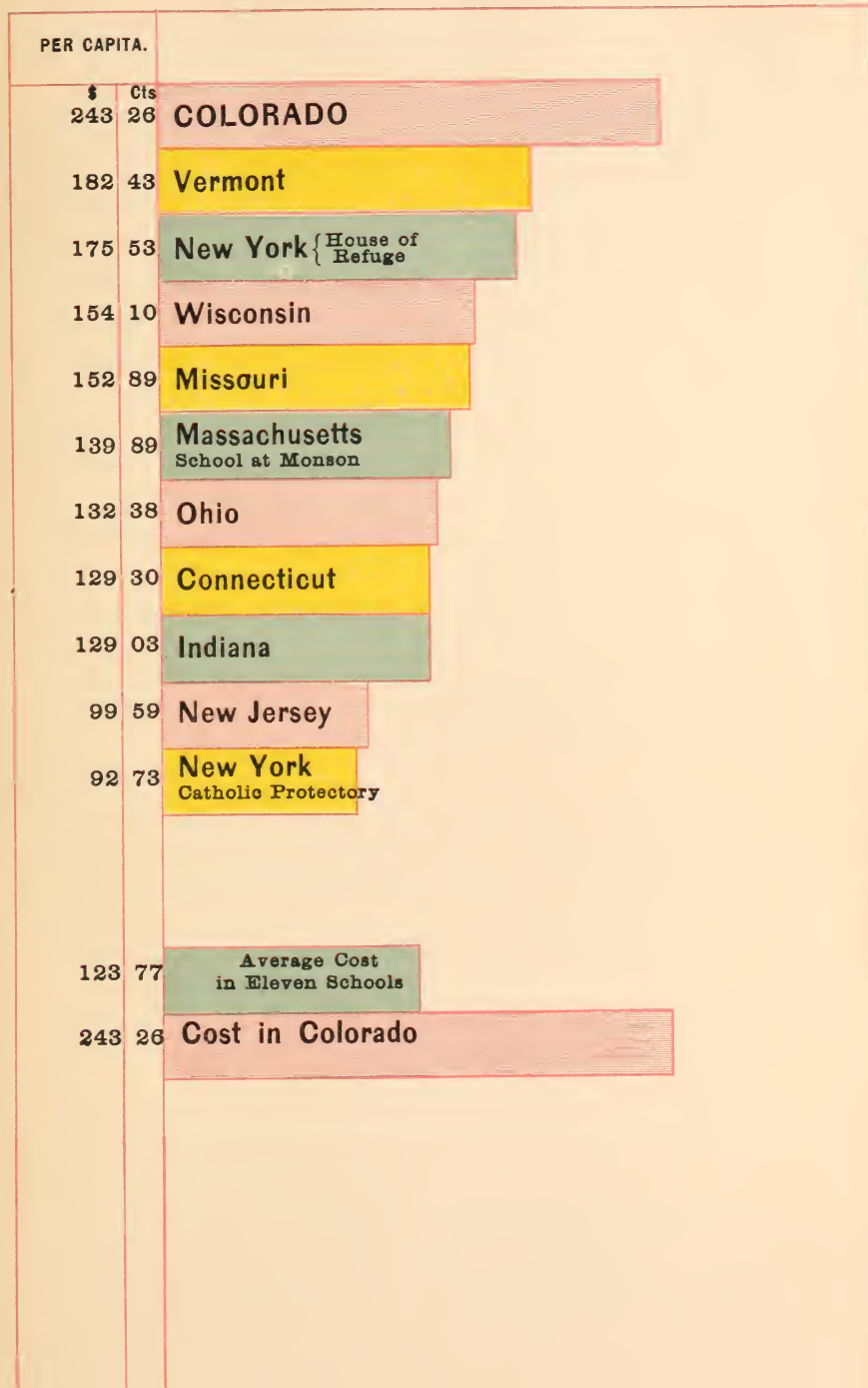


Similar measures for ascertaining the cost of maintenance in the industrial schools for 1887 were adopted as in obtaining like figures pertaining to the support of convicts. Letters of inquiry were sent to some institutions, while others were visited in person by an officer of this bureau, and the desired information was obtained from eleven reformatories, which is presented here in tabulated form. The earnings of the institutions have not been considered in these tables, either for 1886 or 1887. The expenses include maintenance of inmates, salaries of officers and outlay for ordinary repairs, and wear and tear of furniture, etc.

Cost of maintenance for the year 1887, of eleven industrial and reform schools:

STATE	NAME OF INSTITUTION.	INMATES	RUNNING EXPENSES	PER CAPITA
Colorado . . .	Industrial School	99 .	\$ 24,083 04	\$ 243 26
Connecticut . .	State Reform School	433 .	55,987 66	129 30
Indiana	Reform School for Boys	465 .	60,000 00	129 03
Massachusetts.	{ State, Primary and Reform School at Monson . . . }	332 .	46,443 65	139 89
Missouri	St. Louis House of Refuge	242 .	37,000 00	152 89
New Jersey . .	State Reform School	441 .	43,919 71	99 59
New York . . .	Catholic Protectory	2,263 .	209,843 16	92 73
New York . . .	House of Refuge	629 .	110,409 81	175 53
Ohio	Boys' Industrial School	536 .	70,954 26	132 35
Vermont	Reform School	90 .	16,418 42	182 43
Wisconsin . . .	State Industrial School	311 .	47,925 28	154 10
Totals and average		5,841 .	\$ 722,984 99	\$ 123 77

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE COST PER CAPITA FOR MAINTENANCE OF INMATES IN ELEVEN REFORM AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, FOR THE YEAR 1887.



A law enacted at the session of the State Legislature in 1887, provided for the establishment of a State Home and Industrial School for Girls.

Section 13 of that law provided that "until the State Home and Industrial School for Girls, as provided for in this act, shall be erected, the board of control shall, by and with the consent and approval of the Governor of the State, contract with one or more of the reformatory institutions for females in the State of Colorado, for the safe keeping, care, maintenance, and instruction of girls committed under this act," etc.

At this writing a bill has been rendered by the authorities of the House of the Good Shepherd, of Denver, to the county commissioners of Arapahoe county, for the "safe keeping, care, maintenance, and instruction" of forty-two girls, committed to their charge under the provisions of the legal section quoted. The bill shows an average cost *per capita, per diem*, of 41 cents, which is at the rate of \$149.65 *per capita, per annum*.

In reference to the Golden Industrial School, complaints were made at this office, by citizens of Golden, that the labor of the boys committed to that institution had been "farmed out" to firms and individuals in the city and vicinity. Inquiry developed the fact that, in many cases, the complaints were justifiable, and that the labor of the boys had not only been farmed out to persons carrying on small businesses, but had also been hired out to the proprietors of the glass works at Golden, to supply the places of boys employed there who had "struck," for some reason.

As the Industrial School is supposed to be established for the purpose of the reclamation and reformation of erring youth committed to within its precincts, many persons will wonder how those desirable and laudable

objects can be brought about when children are employed, day in and day out, in a large manufacturing establishment, where they not only come in contact with adults, who may or may not be possessed of even common traits of morality, but are permitted to board outside the school at nights, free from any restraint whatever. By this, not only is the labor of honest free citizens undermined, but an institution established by the fostering care of the State for the purpose of reforming youthful offenders becomes a menace to wage-workers, and loses the sympathy and respect which it and its objects ought to command from people of every class.

APPENDIX.

Labor Laws of Colorado, Etc.

APPENDIX.

Labor Laws of Colorado, Etc.

APPRENTICES.

AN ACT CONCERNING APPRENTICES.

Approved, April 8, 1885. •

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. All minors may be bound to some appropriate industry, art, calling or trade, males to the age of twenty-one years, and females to the age of eighteen [years] or to the time of their marriage within that age, in the manner prescribed in this act, and not otherwise.

SEC. 2. Minors under the age of fourteen years may be bound by their father, or in case of his death or incompetency, or when he shall have wilfully abandoned his family for six months without making suitable provisions for their support, or has become an habitual drunkard, by their mother, or legal guardians; and if illegitimate, they may be bound by their mother, and if they have no parent competent to act and no guardian, they may bind themselves, with the approbation of the county court of the county wherein they reside; but the power of a mother to bind her children, whether legitimate or illegitimate, shall cease upon her subsequent marriage, and shall not be exercised by herself or her husband at any time during such marriage.

SEC. 3. Minors above the age of fourteen may be bound in the same manner; *Provided*, That when they are bound by their parent or guardian, the consent of the minor shall be expressed in the indenture and testified by his signing the same.

SEC. 4. The executive or testamentary guardian, who, by the will of the parent, is directed to bring up such parent's child to some

trade or calling, shall have power to bind such child, by indenture, in like manner as the parent, if living, might have done, or shall raise such child according to such direction.

SEC. 5. Every orphan minor, who has not estate sufficient for his maintenance, may be bound by his guardian, under the order and direction of the county court; and the counterpart of the indenture, binding such minor, shall, for the benefit of the minor so bound, be deposited with the clerk, or, if there be no clerk, with the judge of the county court in which such binding shall take place, for safe keeping.

SEC. 6. When any poor child is, or may be, chargeable to the county, or shall beg for alms, or whose parents are, or may be, chargeable to the county, or shall beg for alms, or when the parents of such children [child] are poor, and the father an habitual drunkard, or, if there be no father, when the mother be of bad character, or suffer her children to grow up in habits of idleness, without any visible means of obtaining an honest livelihood, it shall be lawful for the superintendent of the poor of the county wherein such child resides, who, for this purpose, shall be considered *ex officio* guardian of such child, to bind such child, under the order and direction of the county court of such county, in like manner, and with like effect, as is provided in section five of this act for the binding of orphan minors by their guardians.

SEC. 7. Facts of incapacity, desertion or drunkenness shall be decided in the county court by the judge thereof, or by a jury, if one be demanded, before the indenture shall take effect, and an endorsement on the indenture, under the seal of the court that the same are proved, shall be sufficient evidence of the mother's or guardian's power to bind or consent to the binding of such minor; but, if the judge or jury do not find the charge of incapacity, drunkenness or desertion to be true, the person at whose instance such proceedings may have been had shall pay all costs attending the same, except in the cases where the superintendent of the poor officially institutes or causes to be instituted such proceedings, in which cases the costs shall be paid by the county.

SEC. 8. No minor shall be bound as aforesaid, unless by an indenture of two parts, sealed and delivered by both parties, and when made with the approbation or under the order and direction of the county court or the judge thereof, its approval shall be certified in writing, under the seal of the court, indorsed upon each part of the indenture.

SEC. 9. One part of the indenture shall be kept for the use of the minor by his parent or guardian, when executed by them respec-

tively, and when made with the approbation or under the order or direction of the county court, shall be deposited with the clerk, or if there be no clerk, with the judge, and be safely kept in his office for the use of the minor.

SEC. 10. The age of every apprentice shall be inserted in the indentures, and all indentures entered into otherwise than as in this act provided, shall be as to all apprentices under age, utterly void.

SEC. 11. In all indentures for binding out any minor as an apprentice, there shall be inserted among other covenants, clauses to the following effect: That the master shall furnish to such minor at all times and seasons suitable clothing, food, and attention in sickness and in health, and shall teach him the industry, art, calling or trade, to learn which such minor shall be bound, as fully and completely as the same may be in the power of the representative parties, to teach and receive; and shall cause such minor to be instructed in the common English branches of education, in some public or other school, at which such branches are taught, at least three months in every year until such minor shall arrive at the age of fourteen years, and until such minor shall have received a common school education; and shall, at the expiration of such apprenticeship, give to such apprentice at least a new bible, and two new suits of clothes to be worth each fifteen dollars, and twenty-five dollars in current money of the United States; *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to limit or restrict the parent, guardian, court or minor executing such indenture, from requiring other or further covenants to be incorporated in such indentures.

SEC. 12. No indenture of apprenticeship or service, made in pursuance of this act, shall bind the minor after the death of his master; but the apprenticeship of service shall be thenceforth discharged, and the minor may be bound out anew.

SEC. 13. Parents, guardians, the superintendents of the poor, and the judges of the county courts, shall inquire into the treatment of the minors bound by them, respectively, or with their approbation, or by their order or direction, and of all who shall have been bound by or with the approbation of, or by the order or direction of their predecessors in office, and defend them from all cruelty, neglect and breach of contract on the part of their masters.

SEC. 14. The county courts shall hear the complaints of apprentices who reside within the county, against their masters, alleging undeserved or immoderate correction, insufficient allowances of food, raiment or lodging, want of instruction in their industry, art, calling, or trade, or in the common English branches of education, or that they are in danger of being removed out of the State, or any viola-

tion of the indenture of apprenticeship, and may hear and determine such cases, by a jury or otherwise, and make such order therein as will relieve the injured party in the future.

SEC. 15. The county court shall also be empowered, upon complaint being filed by the master, that an apprentice has, without cause, left his service, to cause the same to be inquired into by a jury or otherwise, and make such order or orders in the premises as may be just and proper; and for the proper execution of such order or orders such court may, upon due notice, as justice shall require, compel any person or persons employing such apprentice, or using the labor or services of such apprentice, to pay to such master the reasonable value of the services and labor of such apprentice during the time of such employment or use, and within the term of such apprenticeship.

SEC. 16. The county court shall have power, when circumstances require it, to discharge an apprentice from his apprenticeship, and in case any money or anything has been contracted to be paid by either party in relation to such apprenticeship, the court shall make such order concerning the same as shall seem just and reasonable. If the apprentice so discharged shall have been originally bound by or under the order and direction of the county court, it shall be the duty of the court, if it shall judge necessary, to again bind, or order to be bound, such apprentice, if under age.

SEC. 17. Every master shall be liable to an action on the indenture for the breach of covenants on his part therein contained, to be brought and prosecuted by a guardian *ad litem* to be appointed by the county court for that purpose; and all damages recovered in such action, after deducting the necessary charges in prosecuting the same, shall be the property of the minor, and shall be applied and appropriated to his use by the person who shall recover the same, under the direction of the county court, and shall be paid to the minor, if a male, at the age of twenty-one years, and if a female, at the age of eighteen years, or at the time of his or her marriage within that age.

SEC. 18. If such action is not brought during the minority of such apprentice, he may commence such action in his own name at any time within two years after he becomes of age, and not after.

SEC. 19. If any such apprentice shall be guilty of any gross misbehavior or refusal to do his duty, or willful neglect thereof, his master may make his complaint to the county court of the county in which he resides, setting forth the circumstances of the case, to which complaint shall be attached a citation, signed by the clerk or judge of the court, requiring the apprentice and all persons who have covenanted on his behalf, to appear and answer to such complaint, a

copy of which complaint and citation shall be served on them in the usual manner of serving civil process.

SEC. 20. The court shall proceed to hear and determine the cause with or without a jury, and after a full hearing of the parties, or of the complainant alone, if the adverse party shall neglect to appear after due notice, the court may render judgment or decree; that the master be discharged from the contract of apprenticeship or service, and for costs of the suit; such costs to be recovered of the parent or guardian of the minor, if there be any, who signed the indenture; and execution thereof be issued accordingly; and if there be no parent or guardian liable for such costs, execution may be issued therefor against such minor, or the amount thereof may be recovered in an action against him after he shall arrive at full age, and any minor discharged as aforesaid may be bound out anew; *Provided*, That nothing in this section shall be construed to authorize any judgment against any superintendent of the poor of any county who may have signed any indenture in his official capacity, or his successor in such office.

SEC. 21. The parties to such indenture, except a superintendent of the poor and his successors, shall also be liable to the master in an action on the indenture, for the breach of any covenant on their part therein contained, committed before the master was so discharged from such indenture.

SEC. 22. It shall not be lawful for any master to remove an apprentice out of this State. Whenever any master of an apprentice shall wish to remove out of this State, or to quit his trade or business, he shall appear with his apprentice before the county court of the proper county, and if the court be satisfied that the master has done justice to the said apprentice for the time he has had charge of the same, such court shall have power to dissolve the indenture upon such terms as may be just, and again bind him or order him to be bound, if necessary, to some other person.

SEC. 23. The provisions of this act shall apply as well to mistresses, female guardians, apprentices and wards, respectively, as to masters, male guardians, apprentices and wards.

SEC. 24. Nothing contained in this act shall prevent or affect the right of a father, by the common law, to assign or contract for the services of his children, for the term of their minority or any part thereof.

SEC. 25. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

ARBITRATION.

State Constitution, Article 18, Section 3.

It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to pass such laws as may be necessary and proper to decide differences by arbitrators, to be appointed by mutual agreement of the parties to any controversy, who may choose that mode of adjustment. The powers and duties of such arbitrators shall be as prescribed by law.

LAWS OF 1887, PAGE 65, SEC. 9 OF AN ACT TO ESTABLISH AND SUPPORT A BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

SEC. 9. If any difference shall arise between any corporation or person, employing twenty-five or more employes, threatening to result, or resulting, in a strike on the part of such employes, or a lock-out on the part of such employer, it shall be the duty of the commissioner, when requested to do so by fifteen or more of said employes, or by the employers, to visit the place of such disturbance, and diligently seek to mediate between such employer and employes.

BLACKLISTING.

AN ACT TO PROHIBIT THE BLACKLISTING OR PUBLISHING OF EMPLOYÉES WHEN THEY SHALL HAVE BEEN DISCHARGED, AND FIXING THE PUNISHMENT OF THE SAME.

Approved April 2, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. That no corporation, company or individual shall blacklist, or publish, or cause to be blacklisted or published, any employe, mechanic or laborer, discharged by such corporation, company or individual, with the intent and for the purpose of preventing

such employe, mechanic or laborer from engaging in or securing similar or other employment from any other corporation, company or individual.

SEC. 2. If any officer or agent of any corporation, company or individual, or other person, shall blacklist, or publish, or cause to be blacklisted or published, any employe, mechanic, or laborer, discharged by such corporation, company or individual, with the intent and for the purpose of preventing such employe, mechanic or laborer from engaging in or securing similar or other employment, from any other corporation, company or individual; or shall in any manner conspire or contrive by correspondence, or otherwise, to prevent such discharged employe from securing employment, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof, shall be fined not less than fifty (50), nor more than two hundred and fifty (250) dollars, or be imprisoned in the county jail not less than thirty, nor more than ninety days, or both.

LAWS RELATING TO CHILDREN.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION MAY BE REQUIRED.

State Constitution, Article 9, Section 11.

The General Assembly may require, by law, that every child of sufficient mental and physical ability, shall attend the public school during the period between the ages of six and eighteen years, for a time equivalent to three years, unless educated by other means.

EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN MINES SHALL BE PROHIBITED.

State Constitution, Article 16, Section 2.

The General Assembly shall, * * * * prohibit the employment in the mines of children under twelve years of age.

AN ACT TO PREVENT AND PUNISH WRONGS TO
CHILDREN.

Approved April 1, 1885.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. That it shall be unlawful for any person having the care, custody, or control of any child, under the age of fourteen years, to exhibit, use, or employ, or in any manner, or under any pretense, sell, apprentice, give away, let out, or otherwise dispose of any such child, to any person, in or for the vocation or occupation, service or purpose, of singing, playing on musical instruments, rope or wire walking, dancing, begging or peddling, or as a gymnast, contortionist, rider or acrobat, in any place whatsoever, or for any obscene, indecent or immoral purpose, exhibition or practice whatsoever, or for or in any business, exhibition or vocation injurious to the health or dangerous to the life or limb of such child, or cause, procure, or encourage any such child to engage therein. Nothing in this section contained shall apply to or affect the employment or use of any such child as a singer or musician in any church, school, or academy, or at any respectable entertainment, or the teaching or learning the science or practice of music.

SEC. 2. It shall also be unlawful for any person to take, receive, hire, employ, use, exhibit or have in custody any child under the age and for the purpose prohibited in the first section of this act.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person having the care or custody of any child, wilfully to cause or permit the life of such child to be endangered, or the health of such child to be injured, or wilfully cause or permit such child to be placed in such a situation that its life or health may be endangered, or wilfully and unnecessarily expose to the inclemency of the weather, or in any other manner injure such child. In case any person or persons shall establish, keep or maintain any house, institution or foundlings' home for the care or custody of children, and shall cause or permit the life or health of any child or inmate therein to be endangered or injured, the board of county commissioners of the county in which such house or institution is situated, may, and they are hereby empowered to take such child or children from such house or institution and place them in the county hospital or poor house, or otherwise dispose of such child or children as they may deem best, and, if necessary to prevent further injury to children or inmates, they may and they are hereby authorized to declare such place a public nuisance, and abate the same in the manner provided for the abatement of nuisances injurious to public health.

SEC. 4. Any person who shall be convicted [of] violating any of the provisions of the preceding sections shall, for the first offense, be fined not exceeding one hundred dollars, or imprisonment in the county jail not exceeding three months, or both, in the discretion of the court; and upon conviction for a second or any subsequent offense shall be fined in any sum not exceeding five hundred dollars, or be imprisoned in the penitentiary for a term not exceeding two years, or both, in the discretion of the court.

AN ACT TO PROHIBIT THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN,
UNDER FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE, FOR CERTAIN
WORK.

Approved March 7, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. That any person who shall take, receive, hire or employ, any children under fourteen years of age in any underground works, or mine, or in any smelter, mill or factory, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof before any justice of the peace or court of record, shall be fined not less than ten dollars nor more than fifty dollars for each offense; *Provided*, That a jury on the trial of any such case, before a justice of the peace, shall be called and empaneled as in the case of assault and battery, and that the jury in such cases shall designate the amount of the fine in their verdict.

SEC. 2. That whenever any person shall, before a justice of the peace, make oath or affirm that the affiant believes that this act has been or is being violated, naming the person charged with such violation, such justice shall forthwith issue a warrant to a constable, or other authorized officer, and such officer shall arrest the person or persons so charged and bring him or them before the justice issuing such warrant for a hearing. And it shall be the duty of all constables and policemen to aid in the enforcement of this act.

SEC. 3. That in default of the payment of the fine or penalty imposed under any of the provisions of this act, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace or court of record, before whom any person may be convicted of a violation of any of the provisions of this act, to commit such person to the county jail, there to remain for not less than twenty days nor more than ninety days.

AN ACT CONCERNING CRUELTY TO CHILDREN
AND OTHERS.

Approved April 4, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. Any person who shall willfully and unnecessarily expose to the inclemency of the weather, so as to impart or injure in health, body or limb, or shall in any other manner impair or injure the health, body or limb of any child, apprentice or other person under his or her legal control, shall be deemed guilty of an offense, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined not exceeding five hundred dollars, or imprisonment in the penitentiary not exceeding two years.

CONVICT LABOR.

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE LABOR OF THE CONVICTS
OF THE PENITENTIARY OF THE STATE.

Approved February 11, 1883.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. That no labor shall be performed by the convicts of the Colorado State Penitentiary; off of the grounds belonging to said penitentiary, except such as may be incident to the business and management of the penitentiary; *Provided*, That this act shall not be construed to affect any existing contract.

AN ACT CONCERNING CONVICT LABOR AND THE PRO-
DUCT OF CONVICT LABOR.

Approved April 2, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for the State of Colorado, its officers or representatives, to hire out the persons confined, or that may be confined, as convicts in any penitentiary, or prison, that is or may be established in the State of Colorado, for the confinement of persons

convicted of misdemeanor or crimes of any description whatsoever; such person shall not be hired out to perform labor of any description, for pay or gain of any description, nor shall their services be given free to any person or class or association of persons, under penalty hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any person, or corporation, or association whatsoever, or any county, city or town within the State of Colorado, to hire or bring into the State to perform labor, any persons convicted of crimes or misdemeanors of any description whatsoever, in any State or Territory of the United States, under penalty hereinafter provided; *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be construed to apply to ex-convicts.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for the State, its officers or representatives, or any county, city or town, or their officers or representatives, to knowingly bring into the State, or cause to be brought into the State, any material for use in the erection of, or repairing of any public building, the labor in preparing which, or any part of which, has been performed by convicts.

SEC. 4. A violation of any provision of this act shall be punished by a fine of not less than three hundred (300) dollars, or more than one thousand (1,000) dollars, or imprisonment for not less than three (3) months, or more than five (5) years, or both.

DETECTIVES.

AN ACT TO REGULATE DETECTIVE BUSINESS IN THIS STATE.

Approved April 4, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. No person, firm, or corporation shall carry on the detective business within this State, without having first obtained a license so to do, in the manner hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. Any person, firm, or corporation desiring to carry on the detective business in this State, shall make application, in writing, to the Governor of the State, for a license, which application shall set forth:

First—The name and residence of the person, or the names and places of residence of the members of the firm, or the corporate name, and principal place of business, of the corporation making such application.

Second—The principal office, or place of business of such person, firm, or corporation within this State.

Third—The name of the individual, or individuals, in charge of such business within this State.

Fourth—The names of not less than three persons, as references, of whom inquiry can be made as to the character, standing, and reputation of the person, firm, or corporation making such application.

Fifth—In the event that a corporation be the applicant, a duly certified copy of the certificate of incorporation.

SEC. 3. After the receipt of such application, and upon being satisfied that the person, firm, or corporation making the same is in good repute, and intends to carry on an honest and legitimate business, the Governor shall fix the amount of the bond to be given by the applicant, and shall direct the Secretary of State, upon compliance by the applicant with the conditions hereinafter set forth, to issue such applicant a license, authorizing the person, firm, or corporation making such application to carry on the detective business within this State, for the period of two years from and after the date of such license; which license shall contain a condition, to be accepted by the licensee (and the acceptance of the license shall be taken and held to be an acceptance under the condition therein expressed), that the same may be revoked, by the Governor of the State, at any time during the term for which the same was granted, and without refunding the license fee, hereinafter provided for, or any part thereof, upon just cause being shown, and after a fair opportunity, upon reasonable notice, has been offered to such licensee to show cause why such license should not be revoked.

SEC. 4. The Secretary of State shall not issue any license without the authority provided for by the preceding section, nor until the licensee named therein shall have paid to the State Treasurer a license fee of one hundred dollars, nor until the said licensee shall have entered into bond with at least two good and sufficient sureties, residents and freeholders of this State, to be approved by the Secretary of State, payable to The People of the State of Colorado, in

such sum as the Governor shall have fixed, which shall not be less than three thousand dollars, nor more than twenty thousand dollars, conditioned that the principal obligor in such bond shall lawfully, honestly and faithfully, without oppression, and without compounding any criminal offense, carry on the detective business within this State, and perform such services in such business as he may have been employed to do or perform; which said bond shall be filed with and safely kept by the Secretary of State, and may be sued upon, in the name of The People of the State of Colorado, by and to the use of any person or persons injured by a breach of any of the conditions thereof.

SEC. 5. The license granted under the provisions of this act, shall be sufficient authority to the person, firm or corporation named therein as licensee, to carry on and engage in the detective business in this State, and to that end to employ such agents, servants, assistants and employes, as such licensee may deem necessary; but the said licensee, and the sureties upon his, her, their or its bond, shall be liable upon such bond as well as for the act or acts of any such agent, servant, assistant or employe, as for the act or acts of the principal obligor in said bond.

SEC. 6. A license having once been granted under the provisions of this act, may be renewed by the Secretary of State at the expiration of the term for which such previous license was granted, upon the payment of the license fee and the filing of the bond required in the case of the original applications, unless such previous license shall have been revoked, or the Governor of the State shall otherwise direct; *Provided*, That an application for such renewal be made at least fifteen days before the expiration of the term for which the previous license was granted.

SEC. 7. No license granted under the provisions of this act shall, in any event, be transferable; but this section shall not be construed as to prevent or prohibit a change by the licensee, in the resident manager, superintendent, or other person in charge of the business in this State, of such license; *Provided*, That a certificate setting forth the change made, be first filed by the licensee with the Secretary of State.

SEC. 8. The Secretary of State shall keep a register in which shall be entered the name of every person, firm or corporation to whom a license shall have been issued, the date when the same was issued, the principal office or place of business of the licensee, the name and address of the resident manager, superintendent, or other person having charge of such business, and if revoked, the date when, and the cause for which such license was revoked.

SEC. 9. Every person who shall carry on the detective business in this State, without having first obtained a license under the provisions of this act, and every person not being the agent, servant, assistant or employe of a person, firm, or corporation duly licensed under the provisions of this act, to carry on the detective business in this State, who shall engage in any such business in this State, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not less than three hundred dollars, nor more than one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail not less than three months, nor more than one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 10. Every person, firm or corporation, to whom a license shall have been granted under this act, and every employe of any such person, firm or corporation, who shall induce a confession of any crime by any threat, or torture, or promise of immunity from punishment, or offer of a reward, and every such person, who shall, by a threat of publicity, or by a threat of communication to any particular person, or persons, of facts, or information gained, or acquired, in the transaction of such business, or by any other threat, induce, persuade, or compel any other person to pay or deliver to the person making such threat, any money, or other valuable thing, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, be punished as in the last section; *Provided*, That this section shall not apply to the restitution to the rightful owner, or his duly authorized agent, of any stolen property, or the value thereof.

EXEMPTIONS FROM EXECUTIONS AND ATTACHMENTS.

HOMESTEADS.

General Statutes, Page 539.

SECTION 1631. Every householder in the State of Colorado being the head of a family shall be entitled to a homestead, not exceeding in value the sum of two thousand dollars, exempt from execution and attachment arising from any debt, contract or civil obligation entered into or incurred after the first day of February, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight.

SEC. 1632. To entitle any person to the benefit of this act, he shall cause the word "homestead" to be entered of record in the margin of his recorded title to the same, which marginal entry shall be signed by the owner making such entry, and attested by the clerk and recorder of the county in which the premises in question are situated, together with the date and time of day upon which marginal entry is so made.

SEC. 1633. Such homesteads shall only be exempt as provided in the first section of this act, while occupied as such by the owner thereof, or his or her family.

SEC. 1634. When any person dies seized of a homestead, leaving a widow or husband or minor children, such widow, or husband, or minor children, shall be entitled to the homestead, but in case there is neither widow, husband or minor children, the homestead shall be liable for the debts of the deceased.

SEC. 1635. The homestead mentioned in this act may consist of a house and lot, or lots, in any town or city, or a farm consisting of any number of acres, so that the value does not exceed two thousand dollars.

PERSONAL PROPERTY.

General Statutes, Page 601.

SEC. 1865. The necessary wearing apparel of every person shall be exempt from execution, writ of attachment, and distress for rent.

SEC. 1866. The following property, when owned by any person being the head of a family, and residing with the same, shall be exempt from levy and sale, upon any executions, or writ of attachment, or distress for rent, and such articles of property shall continue exempt while the family of such person are removing from one place of residence to another within this State:

First—Family pictures, school books, and library.

Second—A seat or pew in any house or place of public worship.

Third—The sites of burial of the dead.

Fourth—All wearing apparel of the debtor and his family; all beds, bedsteads, and bedding, kept and used for the debtor and his family; all stoves and appendages, kept for the use of the debtor and his family; all cooking utensils, and all the household furniture not herein enumerated, not exceeding one hundred dollars in value.

Fifth—The provisions for the debtor and his family, necessary for six months, either provided or growing, or both, and fuel necessary for six months.

Sixth—The tools and implements, or stock in trade, of any mechanic, miner, or other person, used and kept for the purpose of carrying on his trade or business, not exceeding two hundred dollars in value.

Eighth—Working animals to the value of two hundred dollars.

Ninth—One cow and calf, ten sheep, and the necessary food for all the animals herein mentioned for six months provided or growing, or both; also, one farm wagon, cart or dray, one plough, one harrow, and other farming implements, including harness and tackle for team, not exceeding fifty dollars in value; *Provided*, That nothing in this chapter shall be so construed as to exempt any property of any debtor from sale for the payment of any taxes whatever legally assessed; *And provided, further*, That no article of property above mentioned shall be exempt from attachment, or sale on execution, for the purchase money for said article of property.

And provided, also, further, That the tools, implements, working animals, books and stock in trade, not exceeding three hundred dollars in value, of any mechanic, miner or other person not being the head of a family, used and kept for the purpose of carrying on his trade or business, shall be exempt from levy and sale on any execution or writ of attachment, which such person is a *bona fide* resident of this State.

SEC. 1867. Whenever in any case the head of a family shall die, desert or cease to reside with the same, the said family shall be entitled to and receive all the benefit and privileges which are in this chapter conferred upon the head of a family residing with the same.

SEC. 1868. If any officer or other person, by virtue of any execution or other process, or by any right of distress, shall take or seize any of the articles of property hereinbefore exempted from levy and sale, such officer or person shall be liable to the party injured for three times the value of the property illegally taken or seized, to be recovered by action of trespass, with costs of suit.

SEC. 1869. If any debtor shall be engaged in removing his or her property from this State, such property shall not be exempt from levy and sale under execution or attachment; *Provided*, That nothing in this chapter contained shall be held to authorize the levying upon and selling the necessary wearing apparel, or beds and bedding, of any debtor, or of the family of any debtor, under any execution of attachment.

EXEMPTION OF WAGES.

AN ACT TO EXEMPT CERTAIN WAGES AND EARNINGS OF DEBTORS FROM LEVY AND ATTACHMENT, FOR DEBT.

Approved March 28, 1885.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. There shall be exempt from levy, under execution, or attachment, or garnishment, the wages and earnings of any debtor to an amount not exceeding one hundred dollars, earned during the thirty days next preceding such levy under execution or attachment, or garnishment of the same; *Provided*, Such debtor shall at the time of levy under execution, or attachment, or garnishment, be the head of a family, or the wife of the head of a family, and such family is dependent in whole or in part, upon such wages or earnings for support; *Provided, further*, That no debts incurred prior to the approval of this act shall be affected thereby.

LABOR DAY.

AN ACT DESIGNATING THE FIRST MONDAY IN SEPTEMBER OF EACH YEAR AS A PUBLIC HOLIDAY, TO BE KNOWN AS "LABOR DAY."

Approved March 15, 1887.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. The first Monday in September of the present year of our Lord, and each year thereafter, is hereby declared a public holiday, to be known as "Labor Day," and the same shall be recognized, classed and treated as other holidays under the laws of this State.

SEATS FOR FEMALES.

AN ACT FOR THE PRESERVATION OF THE HEALTH OF
FEMALES EMPLOYED IN MANUFACTURING, MECHANICAL,
OR MERCANTILE ESTABLISHMENTS.

Approved April 2, 1885.

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Colorado:

SECTION 1. Every person, corporation, or company employing females, in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishments in this State, shall provide suitable seats for the use of the females so employed, and shall permit the use of such seats by them when they are not necessarily engaged in the active duties for which they are employed.

SEC. 2. Any person, corporation, or company violating any of the provisions of this act, shall be punished by fine of not less than ten dollars, nor more than thirty dollars, for each offense.

SEC. 3. In the opinion of the General Assembly, an emergency exists; therefore, this act shall take effect on and after its passage.

PRUD' HOMMES.

ORGANIC LAW FOR THE COUNCILS OF PRUD' HOMMES.

As allusion has been had in another part of this report to the organizations and workings of the *Conseils des Prud' Hommes*, of the Canton of Geneva, Switzerland, and as the law under which they exist is of an interesting character, it is here given in full:

ARTICLE 1. The differences which arise between patrons, merchants, manufacturers, and their working men, employes or apprentices relatively to the hire of services or contract of apprenticeship in industrial or commercial matters shall be adjusted or tried by Tribunals of Prud' Hommes.

NUMBER OF COUNCILS OF PRUD' HOMMES.

ARTICLE 2. The Councils of Prud' Hommes will be ten in number, corresponding to the following groups of industries and professions:

FIRST GROUP.

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|-----------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Watch-makers, that is all those that work on watches. | <i>d.</i> Spring-makers, etc. |
| <i>b.</i> Case-makers, hingers and inside case-makers. | <i>e.</i> Ring-makers, drop-makers and crown-makers. |
| <i>c.</i> Dial-makers, hand-makers, etc. | <i>f.</i> Jewelers. |

SECOND GROUP.

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|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Chain-makers, and fine jewelry-workers. | <i>d.</i> Enamelers and painters on enamels. |
| <i>b.</i> Engravers, stampers, draughters, decorators, designers for jewelry and watches. | <i>e.</i> Diamond-cutters. |
| <i>c.</i> Tinner. | <i>f.</i> Gilders, and silver, and nickel-plate workmen. |
| | <i>g.</i> Polishers, foundry-men, etc. |

THIRD GROUP.

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|---------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Plasterers, paper-hangers, house-painters. | <i>g.</i> Stove-makers and chimney-sweeps. |
| <i>b.</i> Masons. | <i>h.</i> Decorators and house-gilders. |
| <i>c.</i> Roofers, tilers and brignet layers. | <i>i.</i> Glaziers, frame-makers, etc. |
| <i>d.</i> Asphalters and cementers. | <i>k.</i> Sign-painters and carriage-painters. |
| <i>e.</i> Graders and pavers. | <i>l.</i> Potters, clay-manufacturers, etc. |
| <i>f.</i> Stone-cutters, marble-cutters, and stone-sculptors. | <i>m.</i> Moulders. |

FOURTH GROUP.

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|-------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Cabinet-makers and joiners. | <i>g.</i> Coopers, basket and chair-makers. |
| <i>b.</i> Wood-cutters. | <i>h.</i> Trunk-makers. |
| <i>c.</i> Billiard table-makers. | <i>i.</i> Upholsterers. |
| <i>d.</i> Carpenter-sawyers, (old fashioned pit saw). | <i>k.</i> Mattress-makers. |
| <i>e.</i> Floor-makers. | <i>l.</i> Wood-trailers. |
| <i>f.</i> Boot-makers. | <i>m.</i> Turners and wheel-wrights. |

FIFTH GROUP.

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|-------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Machinists, etc. | <i>h.</i> Foundrymen, iron, brass, etc. |
| <i>b.</i> Tool-makers. | <i>i.</i> Metal turners. |
| <i>c.</i> Surgical instrument makers. | <i>k.</i> Blacksmiths, forgers, etc. |
| <i>d.</i> Telegraph, telephone and piano instrument makers. | <i>l.</i> Kettle-makers. |
| <i>e.</i> Opticians, etc. | <i>m.</i> Tinsmiths. |
| <i>f.</i> Gun-makers and cutlery-makers. | <i>n.</i> Plumbers. |
| <i>g.</i> Locksmiths. | <i>o.</i> Stove manufacturers, etc.' |
| | <i>p.</i> Wire baskets, velocipedes, manufacturers of, etc. |

SIXTH GROUP.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Tailors. | <i>i.</i> Manufacturers in hair brushes, etc. |
| <i>b.</i> Hatters, artificial flower makers, feather workers and weavers. | <i>k.</i> Shoemakers. |
| <i>c.</i> Rope-makers. | <i>l.</i> Tanners. |
| <i>d.</i> Dyers. | <i>m.</i> Hide-dressers. |
| <i>e.</i> Lace embroiderers. | <i>n.</i> Sabot-makers (wooden shoes). |
| <i>f.</i> Turners. | <i>o.</i> Saddlers and harness-makers. |
| <i>g.</i> Shirt-makers. | <i>p.</i> Curers of hides. |
| <i>h.</i> Boiler-makers. | <i>q.</i> Glove-makers. |
| | <i>r.</i> Morocco workers. |

SEVENTH GROUP.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Milkmen and fruit men. | <i>g.</i> Restaurant cooks. |
| <i>b.</i> Bakers and pastry makers. | <i>h.</i> Millers. |
| <i>c.</i> Confectioners. | <i>i.</i> Druggists. |
| <i>d.</i> Butchers. | <i>k.</i> Chandlers and soap-makers. |
| <i>e.</i> Liquor and lemonade dealers. | <i>l.</i> Barbers. |
| <i>f.</i> Coffee-house keepers and brewers. | |

EIGHTH GROUP.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>a.</i> Printers and lithographers. | <i>e.</i> Book-binders. |
| <i>b.</i> Typographers. | <i>f.</i> Architects, civil engineers, geometers and draughtsmen. |
| <i>c.</i> Photographers. | |
| <i>d.</i> Pasteboard-makers. | |

NINTH GROUP.

Drivers, hackmen, conductors, railroad, tramway, and navigation companies' employes.

TENTH GROUP.

Bankers, stock exchange agents, merchants, clerks, janitors of offices, etc.

ELECTION OF COUNCILS OF PRUD' HOMMES.

ARTICLE 3. The persons eligible as electors are the patrons, [bosses], manufacturers or merchants, the Swiss workingmen or employes, residing in the Canton and being in possession of political rights. The directors and managers of societies are to be considered as patrons.

ARTICLE 4. The Council of State shall furnish for each group a double election list. On one will be inscribed the names of patrons, and on the other those of the workingmen or employes. No person can belong but to one group. The lists shall be posted up in conformity with the law on voting and elections.

ARTICLE 5. A commission of forty members, composed of an equal number of patrons and workingmen or employes, chosen in each group by the Council of State, will receive all the reclamations. The commission will be presided over by a delegate chosen from the Council of State, who has deliberative power. Presentations may be made by the Syndical Chambers, regularly constituted. This commission proceeds according to the rules concerning voting and elections.

ARTICLE 6. Each Council of Prud' Hommes will be composed of thirty members, fifteen of whom shall be patrons and fifteen workingmen or employes.

ARTICLE 7. The Prud' Hommes shall be elected for a period of two years, and are eligible for re-election. The regular elections shall take place on the first Sunday in October. In each group of patrons assembled in special session, they shall elect from among their number fifteen Prud' Hommes.

ARTICLE 8. Each group of workingmen or employes assembled in special session, shall elect fifteen of their number Prud' Hommes. These assemblies do not deliberate. The divers classes that form the groups must be as nearly as possible represented. The elections shall be by secret ballot, and a majority of the ballots cast shall be required to elect.

ARTICLE 9. The Council of State shall call the election and select the voting places, and, at least eight days in advance, select the president and vice-president of each electoral assembly.

ARTICLE 10. The election board will be composed of three members, drawn by chance among the electors present, at the beginning of the election. The president and vice-president will have consultative power in the deliberations. The board will select two secretaries among the electors.

ARTICLE 11. The polls shall be open at nine o'clock and remain open for six consecutive hours. The counting of the ballots shall take place immediately after the closing of the polls.

ARTICLE 12. If, within six months previous to the regular election the number of patron Prud' Hommes, or working men Prud' Hommes of any group had decreased more than one-sixth, by resignation or decease, the Council of State must be advised of such fact by the board of the council where such vacancies have occurred. A special election shall be called and the vacancies shall be filled. The following persons will be considered as having resigned: the Prud' Homme who has ceased to work at his trade for one year, the Prud' Hommes' patron who becomes a workingman, and *vice versa*; also persons who become bankrupt within one month from the notification.

ORGANIZATION.

ARTICLE 13. Before entering upon their duties the members of Councils of Prud' Hommes, shall take the same oath that judges do before the grand council.

ARTICLE 14. During the week following the election, each Council of Prud' Hommes shall assemble to organize. The Counselor of State having in charge the interior department, gives the first convocation. Each council from its body shall select, by secret ballot, a board composed of one president, one vice-president, one secretary and one vice-secretary. The presidency shall alternately be given to a patron and a workingman. If the president is a patron, the vice-president must be a workingman. The same rule shall apply to secretary and vice-secretary. The members of the board are not re-eligible to these offices. Each six months the members of the council shall establish a calendar of meetings of the board. At the expiration of his term, the president shall convoke the council in full session, make a report of his labors during his incumbency, and invite the council to proceed to the election of a new board.

FUNCTIONS.

ARTICLE 17. Each Council shall be divided into a Board of Conciliation, Tribunal of Prud' Hommes and a Chamber of Appeal.

BOARD OF CONCILIATION.

ARTICLE 18. The Bureau of Conciliation will be composed of one patron of Prud' Hommes and one workingman, who presides at the audience each in turn, commencing by majority of age. All disputes must be submitted within two days from the time that the deposition has been filed in the hands of the Greffier.

ARTICLE 19. The parties are summoned by simple letter of the clerk of court.

ARTICLE 20. Each conciliatory transaction is a process verbal [official act] that is signed by the president and the two parties; if one of them cannot sign, mention of it is made. This act is executive as a judgment.

ARTICLE 21. The sessions of the Board of Conciliation are not to be public.

ARTICLE 22. If one of the parties fail to appear, the board may, according to the case, summon him the second time.

TRIBUNAL OF PRUD' HOMMES.

ARTICLE 23. Cases that can not be conciliated shall be set before the Tribunal of Prud' Hommes.

ARTICLE 24. The Tribunals of Prud' Hommes will be composed of a president, of three Prud' Homme patrons and three Prud' Homme workmen. The sessions will be alternately presided over by the president and by the vice-president of the council.

PROCEDURE BEFORE THE TRIBUNAL.

ARTICLE 25. If the parties don't appear voluntarily, the defendant will be cited before the Tribunal of Prud' Hommes, by summons emanating from the president. When the parties are inscribed in different groups, the defendant is summoned before the Tribunal of Prud' Hommes of the group competent to judge the case in litigation.

ARTICLE 26. The defendant is summoned for the next session, having at least one day of interval (for certain places named), and two days from the balance of the canton. In case where speed is required, the president may summon at a shorter time.

ARTICLE 27. The parties shall appear in person, without the help of a third party, and without the power to present, or send, a report. In case of sickness, absence, or incapacity only, a pleader may be represented by a colleague.

ARTICLE 28. When there is need of an inquest, the parties are free to bring their witnesses, or to summon them. If the witness, regularly summoned, does not appear, without legitimate excuse, he will be condemned to pay a fine, not exceeding thirty francs. The witnesses are examined by the president.

ARTICLE 29. The parties state their grievances outside the presence of the witnesses.

ARTICLE 30. The witnesses, after having given their names, professions, ages, and residence, will take the oath to tell the truth, and will state if they are patrons, or employes of the patrons.

ARTICLE 31. They will be heard separately, and the parties shall not interrupt them.

ARTICLE 32. Objections to witnesses must be offered before their testimony is given.

ARTICLE 33. In cases susceptible of appeal, the secretary shall make a summary official act of the disposition, and it will be read to each witness.

ARTICLE 34. If there is need of recourse to experts, the tribunal shall assign the objects on which their advice must be given. When the dispute arises in professions most exclusively exercised by women, female experts may be chosen. The experts will take an oath to fulfill faithfully their mission.

ARTICLE 35. The cases of recusation [refusal] of experts are the same as for the *Prud' Hommes*.

ARTICLE 36. The secretary shall keep a report of the sessions in the cases susceptible of appeal, and shall take note of the testimony of the parties, and their debates, to use as documents.

ARTICLE 37. The judgment shall be pronounced while the tribunal is in session.

ARTICLE 38. The Tribunal of *Prud' Hommes* shall be a tribunal of last resort in all cases where the value in controversy does not exceed five hundred francs.

ARTICLE 39. If the judgment is by default, it may be enjoined within three days from the decree, in accordance with the rules of Articles 21 and 22 of the present law. The opposition will be carried before the same judges. The cost of the decree will be charged to the opponent.

ARTICLE 40. Each judgment will be executed eight days after the decree, unless there is an appeal taken in the usual time.

ARTICLE 41. The judgment by default, not executed within the three months shall be null and void. Other judgments that have not been executed within ten years, shall also be null and void.

COURT OF APPEAL.

ARTICLE 42. In amounts over five hundred francs, the judgment may be submitted to the Chamber of Appeals in the week following the decree.

ARTICLE 43. The Chamber of Appeals shall be composed of one president, of six Prud' Homme patrons and six Prud' Homme workmen.

ARTICLE 44. No one can act on the board if he has previous knowledge of the matter in dispute. If the president has presided in the cause, he is replaced by the vice-president, and *vice versa*. It is the same for the secretary and vice-secretary.

ARTICLE 45. The formalities prescribed by articles 25 to 32, and from 34 to 37, are equally applicable in appeal.

The judgments rendered by the Board of Appeals will be served like those of first instance, and will [be] executed in the same manner.

PUBLICITY AND RULES OF SESSIONS.

ARTICLE 47. The sessions of the Tribunal of the Prud' Hommes, or Chamber of Appeals, shall be public. They shall take place in the evening in the places designated by the Council of State.

ARTICLE 48. There will be made by each Council of Prud' Hommes special rules on the days and hours of its ordinary sessions, and on the order of service of its members. This rule will permit the president and vice-president in any special cases to replace two members of the Tribunal by two Prud' Hommes of the profession interested in the issue. It will be posted in the halls of sessions.

REFUSALS.

ARTICLE 49. Any Prud' Hommes may be objected to:

First—When they have a personal interest in the contestation.

Second—When one is a parent of or allied to one of the parties, to the degree cousin-germain, inclusive.

Third—If, during the preceding year, there has been a criminal lawsuit between him and one of the parties, his partner, his parents or allies [relatives] in direct line.

Fourth—If there is a civil suit in existence between him and one of the parties or his partner's [wife].

Fifth—If he has formed an opinion in the case. The objection is made and decided at the session.

INDEMNITY.

ARTICLE 50. There will be allowed to each Prud' Homme three francs per session.

ARTICLE 51. Any Prud' Homme who absents himself from any session, when properly notified, without legitimate excuse, shall be fined thirty francs.

ARTICLE 52. The secretaries of groups will receive a supplementary indemnity of two francs per session. Each one of them must transmit to the sheriff, within twenty-four hours, the decree of the session, duly signed by the president and himself.

CENTRAL COURT CLERK'S OFFICE.

ARTICLE 53. There is created a Clerk's Central office for all the councils of Prud' Hommes.

ARTICLE 54. The Council of State shall name the clerk and will supply him with necessary help.

ARTICLE 55. The pay of the clerk shall be three thousand francs; he will not receive any further perquisites.

ARTICLE 56. The clerk will receive demands, send the invitations and summons, and convoke the Prud' Hommes for the different sessions. He shall take care of the session decrees, that the deliberations may be carried to the General Assembly of the Archives of the Council of Prud' Hommes. He writes the judgments and executions and has them served.

REDUCTION OF JUDGMENTS AND INEXPENSIVE PROCEDURE.

ARTICLE 57. Judgments shall contain:

1. Designation of parties.
2. The summary expose of the demand and of the defense.
3. The motives in support of the disposition.
4. The signature of the president and the clerk.

ARTICLE 58. All procedures before the Council of Prud' Hommes shall be free of charge.

ARTICLE 59. There shall be no charge attached to decrees.

SPECIAL TARIFF.

ARTICLE 60. There shall be charged for the following purposes the sums herein named:

For recording judgment in last appeal by Tribune of Prud' Hommes, 1 franc; for serving it, 1 franc.

For recording a judgment in first resort or Chamber of Appeal, 2 francs; for serving it, 2 francs.

These costs will be charged finally to the parties that caused them.

ARTICLE 62. The sheriff is entitled to the following fees:

For seizure, 5 francs.

For information, 1 franc.

For obtaining from the president the necessary permission, 50 centimes.

For calling locksmiths to force entrance, or unlocking drawers, etc., 50 centimes.

For helping the clerk at the sale, including cartage to the place of sale, for the first hour, 1 franc 50 centimes, each following hour, 50 centimes.

For a decree of carance [when he can not find anything to attach], 2 francs.

These costs will be charged to the debtor and privileges. [This means here the party deriving benefit.]

ARTICLE 63. The relative contestations to the execution of judgment of the Tribunal of Prud' Hommes are returned before the civil tribunal, that acts summarily upon them, without appeal.

SUPPLEMENTARY ARBITRATION.

ARTICLE 64. Each council of Prud' Hommes will select from among them, a special committee, whose duty it shall be to look after the fulfillment of contract apprenticeship, and to the professional instruction of apprentices. When their intervention has failed this commission informs the council, who, after consultation, if there be need, sends the complaint to the Tribunal of Prud' Hommes. The commission must see to the hygiene of the workshop, etc., and to the healthfulness of the material used.

ARTICLE 65. On the order of the Council of State, or of the Grand Council, the Councils of Prud' Hommes shall be convened in general assembly to legislate on the questions concerning the industries or national commerce.

TRANSITORY DISPOSITIONS.

The time of the first election of the Council of Prud' Hommes is set by the Council of State.

This election must occur at the latest, six months after the promulgation of the present law.

The debital tribunal shall act until the present law goes into effect. The Council of State shall promulgate the present law in the form and time prescribed.

Done and given at Geneva, the third day of October, 1883, under the seal of the Republic, and the signatures of the president and of the secretary of the Grand Council.

The President of the Grand Council,
L. COURT.

The Vice-Secretary of the Grand Council,
E. BINDER.

THE D. & R. G. EMPLOYÉS' STRIKE.

LETTER FROM EX-U. S. MARSHAL SMITH.

On August eighteenth a communication was sent from this bureau to Hon. Walter A. Smith, Ex-United States Marshal of this district, asking him to express his opinion as to what part, if any, the labor organizations, or their leaders, took in acts of violence perpetrated at the time of the strike of employes on the Denver and Rio Grande Railway in 1885.

The Ex-Marshal's reply was received too late for insertion among those received from other officials, whose replies to similar communications from this bureau, on the subject, are given in the part dedicated to "Strikes and Lock-outs."

The following is a copy of the Ex-Marshal's letter:

DENVER, COLORADO, September 28, 1888.

C. J. DRISCOLL, ESQ.,

Deputy Commissioner Bureau of Labor Statistics:

Dear Sir: In reply to yours of recent date relative to the late strike on the D. & R. G. R. R., I will say that I was satisfied through my investigations, made at the time, that the outrages perpetrated by the use of dynamite, and other explosives, were not ordered or counseled by the leaders of any labor organization as a whole, but by individuals belonging to what is known as the Socialistic Order.

Very respectfully yours,

WALT. A. SMITH,
Ex-U. S. Marshal District of Colorado.

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