

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

FOREIGN REPORTS.

Volume IX.

DENMARK, SWEDEN AND NORWAY, AND SPAIN  
AND PORTUGAL.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.  
June 1893.



LONDON:

PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,  
BY EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE,  
PRINTERS TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

to be purchased either directly or through any Bookseller, from  
TINSLEY, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C., and  
32, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or  
RITCHIE & Co., 12, HANOVER STREET, EDINBURGH, and  
53, WEST NILE STREET, GLASGOW; or  
HUGHES & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1894.

[C.—7063.—XIII.] Price 7d.

# ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

---

## FOREIGN REPORTS.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY'S  
BRANCH LIBRARY  
BOMBAY

### NOTE.

*On the 19th May 1891, a letter was addressed by the Chairman of the Commission to the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, requesting that instructions might be given to Her Majesty's Representatives in the principal European countries and in the United States to forward for the use of the Commission any publications which might have been recently issued in those countries bearing upon certain specified questions connected with the inquiry of the Commission, together with Reports containing such information as Her Majesty's Representatives might be able to supply.*

*In accordance with this request the Foreign Office obtained and forwarded to the Commission a large number of books, documents, and reports drawn up by Diplomatic or Consular Officers.*

*Some of the Reports last mentioned have been published as part of the Foreign Office series, but in order to arrange upon a systematic plan the information obtained from the Foreign Office and that derived from other sources, the Secretary of the Commission was directed to prepare Reports compiled from all these materials. These Reports are published in connexion with the proceedings of the Commission, but the Commission is in no way responsible for the statements of fact or opinion which they contain. Nor are Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Officers responsible for any statements contained in them except in so far as their own Reports are quoted.*

L 79979.

---

LONDON:  
PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,  
BY EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE,  
PRINTERS TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

And to be purchased, either directly or through any Bookseller, from  
EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C., and  
32, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or  
JOHN MENZIES & CO., 12, HANOVER STREET, EDINBURGH, and  
90, WEST NILE STREET, GLASGOW; or  
HODGES, FIGGIS, & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1894.

[C.—7063.—XIII.] Price 6½d.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

---

THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES . . . . .	Page. 4
SPAIN AND PORTUGAL . . . . .	50

---

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

---

---

44, Parliament Street, London, S.W.,  
December 24th, 1893.

MY LORD DUKE,

I have the honour to submit to you the reports I have been directed to draw up on the Labour Question in (1) Denmark, Sweden and Norway; and (2) Spain and Portugal.

The material at my disposal for these reports differs largely from the material available for the previous reports of the series, and I have therefore adopted a different plan.

In connexion with the Danish report, I should like to be permitted here to acknowledge my obligations to M. de Bille, the Danish Minister, and Count Ahlefeldt of the Danish Legation, as well as to M. Marcus Rubin, Director of the Statistical Bureau at Copenhagen.

In connexion with the report on Sweden and Norway, my best thanks are due to M. Elis Sidenbladh, Director of the Central Statistical Bureau at Stockholm, and to M. O. Dehli, Hoiesteretsadvokat of Christiania.

In connexion with the Spanish report, I am deeply indebted to Senor Don Gumersindo de Azcarate, Member of the Chamber of Deputies, who has supplied me with much valuable material.

I am,

Your Grace's obedient servant,

GEOFFREY DRAGE,

Secretary.

To

His Grace the Duke of Devonshire, K.G.,  
Chairman of the Royal Commission on Labour.

---

# REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page.
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	5
Political situation	5
(a.) In the past	5
(b.) At the present time	5
Parliamentary systems	5
Industrial condition	6
Proposed revision of the Danish Industrial Code	7
<b>A.--CONDITIONS OF LABOUR:</b>	
<b>I. WAGES</b>	7
1. Wages and the cost of living	7
(a.) In Sweden	7
(b.) In Norway	9
(c.) In Denmark	11
Emigration and migration	14
2. Deferred payment and insurance	16
(1.) Sick funds	16
(a.) In Sweden	16
(b.) In Norway	16
(c.) In Denmark	17
(2.) Pension funds	18
(a.) In Sweden	18
(b.) In Norway	19
(c.) In Denmark	19
(3.) Co-operation, profit-sharing, and industrial partnership	20
Co-operation, industrial and agricultural	20
Profit-sharing	20
<b>II. HOURS:</b>	
Hours and limitation of hours, including the eight hours' day	20
(a.) In Sweden	20
(b.) In Norway	21
(c.) In Denmark	22
<b>III. STATE OR MUNICIPAL PROVISION FOR THE UNEMPLOYED:</b>	
1. Poor law administration	23
(a.) In Sweden	23
(b.) In Norway	24
(c.) In Denmark	25
<b>IV. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERE TO:</b>	
(a.) In Sweden	26
(b.) In Norway	29
(c.) In Denmark	31
<b>V. ACCIDENTS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERE TO:</b>	
(a.) In Sweden	32
(b.) In Norway	33
(c.) In Denmark	35
<b>VI. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR:</b>	
1. Apprenticeship	35
(a.) In Sweden	35
(b.) In Norway	36
(c.) In Denmark	36
Technical education	36
2. Notice required for termination of engagement	37
(a.) In Sweden	37
(b.) In Norway	37
(c.) In Denmark	37
<b>B.--ORGANISATIONS:</b>	
<b>I. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED</b>	38
1. Organisations of employers	38
2. Organisations of employed	38
(1.) Trades Unions	38
(a.) In Sweden	38
(b.) In Norway	39
(c.) In Denmark	39
(2.) Socialist organisations	40
(a.) In Denmark	40
(b.) In Sweden	41
(c.) In Norway	42
Attitude of the Danish Church towards the labour movement	42
<b>II. CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION</b>	42
(a.) In Sweden	42
(b.) In Denmark	43
<b>C.--TRADE DISPUTES:</b>	
<b>I. STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS</b>	43
(a.) In Sweden	43
(b.) In Denmark	45
<b>APPENDICES.</b>	
<b>A. SIXTH MEETING OF THE UNITED NORWEGIAN WORKMEN'S ASSOCIATION</b>	46
<b>B. BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS CONSULTED IN THE PREPARATION OF THE REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES</b>	47

# REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

## INTRODUCTION.

official  
situation.  
2) In the  
text.

The present industrial conditions of the three kingdoms of Scandinavia present many striking similarities which may be largely traced to the close political connexion which has existed for centuries between the three countries. In the earliest times for which any historical evidence is available, each of the three kingdoms had its own king, but even then the special characteristics, which distinguish the political constitution of the different kingdoms at the present day, had already begun to make their appearance. In Sweden and Denmark the king was elected by his subjects, whereas in Norway the monarchy was hereditary; but, under a king of their own election, the nobility, and later on the clergy, of Sweden and Denmark exercised great power and influence, whilst in Norway an almost absolute monarchy vested directly upon a powerful democracy. The power of the Swedish nobility was, however, exercised at the expense of the burgher classes, and in Denmark the peasants also suffered from the oppression of the landowners, whilst in Norway the peasantry have always maintained their freedom, a circumstance which has been of immense importance in the development of the national life. Norway, on the other hand, has always been behind the other kingdoms in the development of its political constitution, and during the centuries of its union with Denmark its independent parliament grew weaker and weaker, until in 1536 it vanished entirely. The Union of Calmar, which brought the three countries under the rule of a Danish sovereign, was entered into in 1397 chiefly through the efforts of Margaret of Norway, who believed that the union of the three kingdoms would advance the interests of all. Denmark, however, proved to be the only one which reaped any advantage from the scheme. Norway, as already stated, lost all independent political life, whilst the commerce of Sweden was depressed by the tyranny of the Hanseatic League, of which it found itself an unwilling member. Early in the sixteenth century Sweden withdrew from the Union under the leadership of Gustavus Vasa, and, when once more independent, it was able to develop its political institutions in its own way. The Swedish throne was now made the hereditary possession of the descendants of Gustavus Vasa, and the limited powers at first attached to the king were gradually increased until towards the end of the 17th century the monarchy had become absolute. Absolute power was, however, so abused by Gustavus IV. that it became necessary to depose him, and the revolution of 1809 gave to Sweden its present form of constitutional government. The constitution then drawn up exists, with some modifications, at the present time, and, together with three other acts, forms the fundamental law of the Swedish realm. The other Acts are the Parliamentary Representation Act (*Riksdagordning*) of 1810, the Act of Succession, and the Act on the Freedom of the Press.

Norway had meantime continued to be united with Denmark, but after the loss of Finland the possession of the western kingdom became of increasing importance to Sweden, and an agreement was accordingly entered into between England and Russia, by which Norway was to be transferred to Sweden in return for the assistance furnished by Sweden against Napoleon. This agreement was confirmed at the Peace of Kiel in January 1814, by which the king of Denmark was obliged to cede Norway to the king of Sweden. Norway, however, elected the crown prince of Denmark as its king, and prepared to resist the claims of Sweden. The hopelessness of the struggle soon became apparent, the new king abdicated, and the union was effected in November 1814. By the terms of the union Norway possesses its own fundamental law (*Grundlov*), drawn up in May 1814; its constitution also includes the Act of Union (*Rigsakt*) of 1815, and the Swedish Succession Act of 1810. The union between Sweden and Norway is known as a personal union, that is, both kingdoms are free and equal, though united under one king. The Act of Union states expressly that Norway is a free, independent, and indivisible kingdom. The union is, in fact, designed to afford both countries the greatest possible

measure of internal freedom, while it enables them to present a united front to a foreign foe. One ambassador represents both countries at foreign courts, and the power of making war or peace, together with the conduct of all foreign affairs, rests with the king.

Since the union, both countries have enjoyed unbroken peace, and Norway has become twice as prosperous and independent as she formerly was. Occasional troubles have, however, arisen from time to time in connexion with the king's right of absolute veto upon measures passed by the Norwegian Parliament. The Norwegian Left contest this right of the king, whilst the king and the conservative party assert that the absolute veto is implied in the principle of monarchy, and claim such a veto for the king in all matters concerning amendments of the constitution. Of late years, also, a keener sense of national life has grown up in Norway, and the movement has found its political expression in discontent with the existing arrangement of foreign affairs, and demands for a freer and more independent form of government. The Norwegian radical party, which is supported to some extent by the radicals in Sweden, now demand an entirely distinct flag, separate consuls, and a separate Minister for Foreign Affairs.<sup>(1)</sup>

The Swedish parliament (*Riksdag*) consists of a first (upper) and second (lower) chamber. The members of the first chamber are elected by the corporations of the communes and by the towns. Each county (*län*) with 30,000 inhabitants elects one representative. Towns with 25,000 inhabitants constitute separate electoral districts. The number of electoral districts is therefore variable, as is also the number of representatives in the first chamber; in 1886 the number of representatives was 142, and the number of electoral districts 29, of which 26 elected more than one member. Members remain in office for nine years. For purposes of election to the second chamber each assize district (*Domsaga*) in the country constitutes a separate electoral district, but if it contains more than 40,000 inhabitants it may be sub-divided. Each division or sub-division elects one representative. Every town of 10,000 inhabitants and upwards forms an electoral district, and elects one representative for every 10,000 inhabitants. Thus the towns have proportionately to their smaller size a much larger number of representatives than the rural districts. In 1886 the second chamber consisted of 214 members, 69 of whom were representatives of towns, and 145 of rural districts; at the present time the number of members is 228.\* Election to the second chamber may be direct or indirect according to the choice of the electoral district. At present, direct election is the custom in all towns and in more than 70 per cent. of the rural districts, and members are elected for a period of three years. Electors to the second chamber must possess property worth at least 1,000 kr., or pay an income tax of at least 800 kr.<sup>(2)</sup>

The relations prevailing between the two Swedish chambers are different from those of most other European States. Certain matters fall within the competence of each chamber, and as to these, each chamber may act separately, without requiring the sanction of the other. Matters which call for the sanction of the united *Riksdag* must, however, receive the consent of both chambers, and if one chamber withholds its consent the measure is brought to a standstill. The two chambers never assemble in a joint session as in Norway, but a very close connexion is kept up between them by means of the institution of permanent committees (*Utskott*). The matters referred to committees include subjects of the greatest importance; the constitutional committee, consisting of 20 members, for example, decides when a minister can be impeached, to which committee a bill shall be referred about which the two chambers have not been able to agree, and in case the president (of a committee)

(3) At the present time.

Parliamentary systems. (a) In Sweden.

(1) Aschehoug. Das Staatsrecht der vereinigten Königreiche Schweden und Norwegen, pp. 5-17. Alison's "History of Europe," Vol. XIX., p. 201.

(2) 100 öre = 1 krone = about 1s. 14d., 10 kr. = about 11.

(3) The *Riksdag* has adopted a Bill modifying the constitution in respect to the two chambers. The first chamber will henceforth comprise 150 instead of 148 members, while in the second chamber the number of members is increased from 228 to 230, of these, 150 will represent rural and 80 urban constituencies. "Times," March 1st, 1894.

maintains, in opposition to the opinion of the chamber, that a certain bill is contrary to the constitution, this committee decides how far the president is justified in his opinion.

Other committees are, the Committee of Finance (*Statsutskott*), with 24 members, the Committee of Ways and Means (*Bevillningutskott*), with 20 members, the Bank Committee, with 16 members, and the Legal Committee (*Lagutskott*), with 16 members, whose duty is to prepare memoranda on the bills referred to it, if these are concerned with civil, criminal, or ecclesiastical law.<sup>(1)</sup> The *Rigsdag* may also appoint committees for special purposes (*Nämnd*), the members of which are chosen in equal numbers from both chambers. These special committees may decide the succession to the throne when there is no direct male heir in the royal family, and provided that the chambers have not been able to agree in their choice. Several important civil appointments may also be made by them.\*

(b) In Norway.

The Norwegian Parliament consists of 114 members chosen by indirect election. Towns put forward one elector (*Valgmand*) for every 50 enfranchised inhabitants, in country parishes every 99 enfranchised inhabitants choose one elector, parishes with from 100 to 199 voters two electors, and so on. The representatives are chosen from the electoral body thus formed, partly by *scrutin de liste* and partly by *scrutin d'arrondissement*. Electors must be over 25 years of age, must be resident in Norway, they must also:—

- (1.) Either hold or have held an official position.
- (2.) Own land which is entered in the land tax register, or farm, or have farmed such land for five consecutive years.
- (3.) Be a burgher of a town (*Kjöbstad*) or possess property, real or personal, to the value of 600 kr.
- (4.) Pay an income tax of 500 kr. in the country or 800 kr. in towns.

The result of these restrictions is that the great majority of the members of the *Storting* are peasant proprietors. This circumstance is not, however, peculiar to Norway, but is also a distinguishing feature of the Danish *Folkething*.

At its first meeting the newly elected *Storting* chooses one quarter of its members (29 in the year 1886) to form the *Lagthing*, whilst the remainder form the *Odelsting*. The *Odelsting* is a legislative body whose function is to prepare bills which are then sent to the *Lagthing* for its approval. If the *Lagthing* approves, the bill becomes law, if not the project is sent back with proposed amendments (if any) to the *Odelsting*. After any bill has twice passed the *Odelsting* and been twice rejected by the *Lagthing* a meeting of the *Storting* must take place, when the question is decided by a two-thirds majority of votes.

In 1884 after a long continued struggle the ministry obtained the right to be represented in the *Storting*.<sup>(2)</sup>

(c) In Denmark.

The Danish *Rigsdag* consists of the *Folkething* (lower house) and the *Landsting* (upper house). The members of the lower house are supposed to represent the population in the proportion of one member for every 16,000 inhabitants. The actual number of electoral districts (102), each of which chooses one member is, however, rather smaller at the present time than is required by the above proportion. The qualifications of electors to the *Folkething* are that the person in question must be over 30 years of age, must not be in service having no home of his own, must not be in receipt of poor relief at the time of the election, nor at any previous time, unless he has refunded the amount of his relief, and must have lived for one year in the town or electoral district where he resides at the time of the election. The *Landsting* consists of 66 members; of these 12 are chosen by the king. The rest are chosen by indirect electors (*Valgmænd*), and, according to the rules for proportionate representation, one-half of the electors must possess the same qualifications as those required from electors to the *Folkething*, the other half must possess a certain minimum income (in Copenhagen, 4,000 kr.).

Each chamber has the power of managing its own internal affairs, of presenting addresses to the king, and of appointing commissions, without reference to the other chamber; certain matters of general and national

importance which are specified in the constitution require the consent of both chambers, and must be discussed in a session of the united *Rigsdag*.<sup>(1)</sup>

In considering the economic position of Scandinavia, it must always be remembered that industry is not the main support of the people. Agriculture and fishing in Denmark, and agriculture, forestry, and fishing in Sweden and Norway, occupy by far the greater part of the population.

Industrial condition.

In the northern kingdoms forestry is of great importance. Taking the surface of Sweden at 100 million acres,\* 44 million of this is forest, and both in Sweden and Norway forestry and the various branches of the timber trade form the chief resource of the peasants during the winter. The industries of Scandinavia are closely connected with the natural products of the soil. Thus, in Norway and Sweden, the timber trade, the manufacture of wood-pulp and cellulose, are among the chief industries. Sweden is now making great advances in the manufacture of hardware, machinery and cutlery. The progress in cutlery is so great that the articles turned out at the Eskistuna works are as much sought after as the best Sheffield brands. In Denmark also industry is becoming more important every year, as it is felt that a country so entirely destitute of natural advantages must depend on its manufactures if it is to become wealthy and prosperous.

The following figures show the population of the three kingdoms, according to the latest census returns, and the proportion of the population engaged in industrial pursuits.

Country.	Population.	Year.	Industrial Population.
Sweden - -	4,802,751	1891	803,111
Norway - -	1,999,176	1891	51,617
Denmark - -	2,172,205	1890	451,219

The relatively large number of persons engaged in industry in Denmark is due to the fact that independent workers and small employers (shoemakers, smiths, &c.) are included in the returns, whereas those for Sweden and Norway include wage-earners only.

Industry is now entirely free from legal restrictions in the northern kingdoms (*see also* p. 36), but the probability of a return to protective measures is evident from the numerous bills for workmen's insurance (which are noticed below), and particularly from the resolution passed by both chambers in the spring of the present year. In April 1893 the Swedish Parliament passed a resolution asking the Government to prepare a law establishing a system of collecting, editing, and publishing statistics of labour in Sweden at the cost of the State. M. Beckman, in bringing forward his resolution, divided the subject into two heads. The first embraced the number of workmen employed in the different trades, divided according to age, sex, and position; also their wages, including the system of payment, the hours of labour, the sanitary condition of workshops, &c.; the cost of living, with particulars as to the kind of food consumed, the price of necessaries, and the character of workmen's houses; the employment of workmen's wives outside their own homes, and the reasons of want of employment; statistics and details as to strikes, accidents, savings banks, co-operative undertakings, institutions for the benefit of workmen, &c. The second part embraced such particulars about the state of trade in its various branches as would enable the legislature to judge how far measures tending to increase the cost of production might be taken without unduly interfering with the sale of Swedish manufactures in foreign markets.

Freedom of industry.

In Denmark the Industrial Code of 1857 placed a few restrictions upon the freedom of trade, namely, that every trader must procure a license or patent before beginning business, that no person might combine artisan labour with retail trade, and that country workmen (*Haandværker*) might not settle within one mile (4 English miles) of a town. In spite of these restrictions the sudden change from an organised guild system to a system of free competition worked disastrously on the quality of Danish manufactures, and on the position of small tradesmen, who found themselves entirely at the mercy of the large capitalists. In consequence of the many complaints to which the

(1) Aschehoug. *Das Staatsrecht der vereinigten Königreiche Schweden und Norwegen*, pp. 12, 46-48.

(2) *Ib.* pp. 13, 131-134. *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norwège* p. 173.

\* The above account is based on Aschehoug's Constitutional Law of Sweden and Norway, but this view of the constitution is not shared by M. Sidenbladh of the Statistical Office of Stockholm.

(1) Goos und Hanzer. *Das Staatsrecht des Königreichs Dänemark* pp. 62-71.

\* The total area of Sweden including the lakes is 170,861 square miles.

Union of  
Danish  
Industrial  
etc.

new system has given rise, a Royal Commission was appointed in May 1890 to revise the Industrial Code, and the report of the Commission published during the present year (1893) recommends the adoption of a number of protective and restrictive measures. Its suggestions as to the re-establishment of guilds and of apprentice examinations are dealt with later on in this report (see p. 36), but some account must be given here of the restraints it proposes to place on manufactures and retail trade. In order to protect town workmen from the competition of their rivals in the country, the Commission proposes that no country tradesman should be allowed to sell his goods outside the district in which he pays personal taxes, and that special permission must be obtained from the Minister of the Interior by any country workman who wishes to establish himself nearer to a town than the limit prescribed in the law of 1857. On the other hand, the Commission differs from the legislators of 1857 as to the combination of artisan labour and retail trade, and would allow both callings to be exercised by the same person. Eatables prepared within the country are the only articles which the Commission would allow to be hawked. Woollen and linen goods of home manufacture should not be hawked without special permission from the chief constable (*Politiensmester*). Commercial travellers may sell any home-made articles to duly authorised retail dealers. Foreign goods may only be sold in towns, and to persons who have taken out a patent. Travellers selling imported goods are to pay a tax of 200 kr. a year. Free trade in grain, whether ground or not, and in agricultural implements is to cease. Co-operative societies are also to be placed under special restrictions, and are to be obliged to publish their accounts in a newspaper chosen by the chief constable.

This proposed revision of the Industrial Code is not the only indication that the Scandinavian countries are making rapid advances in the direction of State

Socialism. The various bills, of which some account is given below on accident insurance, old age pensions, the limitation of the hours of labour, &c., all show the influence of recent German legislation, and though only one or two of the more moderate proposals have become law, it seems evident that the Governments of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark are all inclined towards protective legislation for the working classes.<sup>(1)</sup>

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

I. WAGES.

I. *Wages and the Cost of Living.*

Industry now holds an important place among the occupations of Sweden. Factory industry has been largely developed of late years, and industrial centres are now to be found in many parts of the kingdom. M. Millet states that factory workers are among the best paid of the Swedish working classes, but according to the information received by the Labour Commission of 1885, the total annual earnings of factory operatives only amounted to some 650 kr.

(a) In Sweden.  
(i) Wages of industrial workers.

The report of the Commission appointed to inquire into the conditions of the employment of young persons (see p. 28), published in 1892, gives particulars as to the weekly wages of the workers in sixteen branches of industry, together with the average wages of all the industries taken together. The average wage paid to children under 14 years of age is 5.97kr., to boys between 14 and 18, 6.33 kr., to girls of the same age, 5.37. Unskilled men (*handtlångare*) earned 9.73 kr. a week and unskilled women 6.49 kr. The lowest average for a skilled man was 11.16 kr., and the highest average 19.89 kr., for skilled women the lowest average was 6.84 kr., and the highest 10.53 kr. The following table shows the average wages in the 16 different industries for the year 1890:—

AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGES.

INDUSTRY.	Workers under 14 Years of Age.	Workers between 14 and 18.		Unskilled Workers over 18.		Skilled Adult Workers.			
		Male.	Female.	Men.	Women.	Lowest Average.		Highest Average.	
						Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1. Mines and quarries	3.41	5.61	4.86	8.57	4.95	9.47	4.16	14.84	5.77
2. Foundries	3.73	6.05	5.86	9.24	5.69	11.41	—	20.40	—
3. Metal works	3.76	6.57	4.93	9.18	6.30	12.91	6.88	22.93	11.41
4. Mechanical workshops	4.59	6.25	4.08	9.64	8.88	12.27	7.07	20.32	11.19
5. Sawmills	4.62	7.03	6.37	10.65	6.79	12.88	7.58	18.91	9.40
6. Wood industry	3.96	6.12	5.27	9.40	6.67	12.45	6.58	20.58	11.50
7. Glass and pottery	3.95	6.24	5.89	9.92	6.62	12.47	8.47	19.09	19.66
8. Building trades	5.82	8.90	7.84	8.87	—	17.20	—	25.99	—
9. Gasworks, &c.	4.15	6.92	6.40	10.48	6.66	13.06	7.99	19.05	12.16
10. Chemical trades	3.43	6.00	5.06	9.97	6.39	11.74	6.24	17.30	10.10
11. Textile trades	3.10	5.49	5.35	8.37	5.89	9.80	7.78	19.53	10.17
12. Leather trades	—	5.08	5.31	9.37	4.50	12.11	7.00	20.08	14.35
13. Clothing trades	3.35	5.66	4.66	8.73	5.36	12.78	6.80	21.72	10.54
14. Food industries	3.92	6.61	5.23	10.30	6.89	13.00	8.90	19.22	11.37
15. Paper trades	4.09	6.31	5.10	9.28	5.92	10.67	5.98	19.53	8.12
16. Printing trades	3.56	5.67	5.59	8.40	6.67	14.33	8.45	28.47	16.06

The *Handels Museum* for September 1893 gives some details as to wages in the Norberg mines during 1892. The number of persons employed during that year was 290, and the output of iron amounted to 52,982 tons. The daily average wage of miners was 1 kr. 83 öre, whilst smiths earned as much as 3 kr. 12 öre a day. All the men who remain for one year in the service of the Norberg Mining Company receive a bonus at the end of the year amounting to 2 per cent. of their wages, and in addition they are given the sums requisite to pay their life insurance premiums. The company also allows its hands free medicine and medical attendance and lets houses at reduced rents. A house containing a living room and kitchen can be had for 40 kr. a year.<sup>(2)</sup>

The agricultural statistics of 1891 state that 34,816 hectares of Swedish soil are laid out as gardens, 3,309,102 hectares are arable land, and 1,637,302 hectares are pasture land. The chief crops are wheat, rye, barley, oats, hay, and various kinds of vegetables, including turnips, carrots, potatoes, beetroot and flax.

(ii) Agricultural labourers.

The total number of cultivators in 1891 was 328,646 of whom 267,764 were proprietors, 48,883 were farmers, while the position of the remaining 11,999 was not known.

The soil of Sweden has not yet been brought under thorough cultivation, and hence, though peasant proprietors form a large class, their holdings are seldom really small, while the estates of the landed proprietors often reach a considerable size. Dr. Sidenbladh, Director of the Swedish Statistical Office, gives the

(1) Foreign Office Reports, Annual Series, 1893, No. 1125, p. 3. Labour Gazette, June 1893, p. 45. Nationalökonomisk Tidskrift, 7dte Hefte 1893, pp. 505-24. L'association Catholique, 1893, pp. 546-7. Arbeider Kommissionens Indstilling I. (Norway), Appendix, pp. 26-7. Foreløbige Resultater af Folktaellingerne i Kongeriget Norge, den 1ste Januar, 1891, p. 1.

(2) Conditions du Travail en Suede et Norvege, pp. 17-19. Das Handels-Museum, Band 3 No. 39, p. 519. Branting, Bericht über die Arbeiterbewegung in Schweden, p. 18. Beträktande af Komitén for Revision af Förordningen den 18 Nov. 1881 angående Minderariges Användande i Arbete vid Fabrik, Handtverk, &c., pp. 174, 252.



following estimate of the number and size of the holdings now under cultivation:—

Under 5 acres	-	-	73,000 owners.
5 to 50 acres	-	-	205,000 „
50 to 250 acres	-	-	29,000 „
250 and over	-	-	3,000 „
			310,000 owners.

In the province of Skien the large farms consist largely of arable land, but the proportion of cultivated land diminishes in the more northerly parts of the country, and forests and pastures usually form part of a Swedish farm even when it is of moderate dimensions. Farms around Stockholm generally include from 300 to 500 acres of arable land with three or four times as much rough grass or forest. The smallest holding which will suffice for the maintenance of a family is about 20 acres of cultivated land; where smaller holdings are found they are worked by persons who have some other source of income. The area of cultivated land is now increasing year by year, owing to the increased amount of butter which Sweden produces for exportation. Dairy-farming in Sweden does not increase the area of pasture land at the expense of arable land, because, as the cows are kept indoors during the whole winter, a large quantity of fodder must be grown to feed them. Besides its small freeholds, Sweden possesses 164,577 *torp*, a special form of small holdings let under peculiar conditions. A *torp* consists of a space of ground more or less extensive, but upon which the owner has erected the necessary house and farm buildings. This farm is let to a labourer, who, in consideration of this, and without further wages, is bound to work for two or three days a week on the owner's estate. The proprietor, on his side, is bound to keep the *torp* buildings in good repair, to furnish the *torpare* with fuel, and pasturage for his cattle, and to allow him the use of draught cattle, if necessary. The *torpare* generally spends his life on his *torp*, and his son frequently succeeds to the possession of it.

The second class of agricultural labourers are the *statare*. The *statare* or *stat folk* are labourers engaged to work on the estates of the larger landowners for a year at a time. The landlord provides them with houses, and perhaps with gardens, and with a certain fixed quantity of cereals, malt, salt herrings, and other provisions, in addition to their money wages.

The third class of labourers are the *tjenare* or unmarried farm servants, who are lodged and boarded at the farm, and receive money wages in addition. An inquiry, somewhat limited in extent, but of a very minute and searching character, was made in 1890 by a member of the Loren Institute, with a view to ascertaining, from the evidence of the peasants themselves, what were the conditions of life among the three above classes of the agricultural population. The investigator fixed upon a certain district in Östergötland, containing 150 parishes, ascertained from the landowners the area, buildings, and stock of the *torp* or farms belonging to them, and then through conversation with the peasants extracted all that was to be known about the inhabitants, past and present, of the district. The results thus obtained were then tested by reference to the justices of the peace and clergy of the neighbourhood, and the almost complete agreement between the two classes of witnesses proved that the results of the investigation were as accurate as possible. The points brought out in conversation with each peasant were the names of the past and present *torpare*, the number and occupation of their children, and whether the family was to be considered as well-to-do, fairly comfortable, or poor. One instance, taken from East Gothland, will serve as an example. "*Torp H* .

"First occupier, fairly well-off, had one daughter who married a *torp* holder and was fairly well-off. Second occupier, fairly well-off, had five children, one of whom became poor. Third occupier, well-off, had three sons and three daughters; one daughter married a smith, another a railway watcher, both well-off; two sons became tenant farmers, and were fairly well-to-do. One son and one daughter remained at home and worked on the *torp*." The investigator also supplied certain families who were well known to him with account books for their household expenses, and thus obtained the following results with regard to the different classes of rural labourers. The first family, to take one example only, consisted of the man, his wife, and five children. The *torp* consisted of 28 acres, and the stock of one cow, one pig, and a few fowls. The landlord supplied the draught cattle,

and a certain quantity of hay and straw. The income derived from the *torp* for the year was 340 kr., and the following quantities of food were consumed. 8½ kg. pork, 6 kg. lard, 6 kg. meat, 50 kg. herrings (*sil*), 17 kg. small herrings (*strömming*), 0.212 kg. butter, 11 kg. cheese, 60 kg. wheat, 34 kg. peas, 617 kg. rye, 50 kg. barley, 1,190 kg. potatoes, 8 kg. sugar, 3.5 kg. coffee, 74½ liter milk, and about 50 eggs. Some of these quantities seem small, but it must be remembered that the man had his meals at the landlord's expense for 40 days in the year, and the four younger children were all under 10 years of age.

The accounts kept by a labourer, with a wife and two children, belonging to the class of *statare*, show a yearly income of 277 kr., of which 126 kr. were earned by the husband, 31 kr. by the wife, 109 kr. by one of the children, and 11 kr. were derived from the sale of eggs and potatoes. Various payments in kind were also received amounting in all to 257 kr. The food eaten was similar in kind to that given above.

The wages of the unmarried farm servants are stated to be twice as high at the present time as 40 years ago, whilst clothes, the only thing which they have to buy for themselves, are no dearer now than then.

The following figures represent the wages of farm servants, as given by M. Sidenbladh, and are based on the average returns of 26 agricultural societies. The sums stated refer simply to the money wage, and do not include the value of fire, light, and lodging, nor any incidental expenses, such as medical attendance, which are borne by the employer. The permanent labourer, again, often has a small potato patch to cultivate on his own account, the value of which is not included in the figures given in the table. (1)

Date.	Annual Wages of		Value of Money Wage and of Payment in kind of		Daily Wages in summer of		Daily Wages in Winter of	
	Men.	Women	Men.	Women	Men.	Women	Men.	Women
	Boarded by the Employer.							
1881	Kr. 140	Kr. 62	Kr. 304	Kr. 215	Kr. öre. 1 51	Kr. öre. 0 79	Kr. öre. 1 00	Kr. öre. 0 57
1882	158	65	365	217	1 52	0 81	1 04	0 56
1883	162	66	374	216	1 57	0 83	1 10	0 56
1884	156	69	373	218	1 61	0 87	1 08	0 59
1885	147	66	356	208	1 53	0 86	0 99	0 58
1886	143	67	357	202	1 54	0 87	0 98	0 58
1887	140	64	346	202	1 48	0 87	0 99	0 59
1888	146	69	363	205	1 53	0 80	1 01	0 58
1889	132	70	376	216	1 61	0 92	1 06	0 62
1890	164	76	389	219	1 72	0 96	1 16	0 67
1891	166	80	396	224	1 75	0 99	1 19	0 69
1892	170	81	402	227	1 78	1 00	1 23	0 71

The condition of the different classes of agricultural labourers in Östergötland who were included in the above investigation is shown in the following table:—

Class.	Number of Persons.			Percentage.			
	Total.	Well off.	Fairly well off.	Poor.	Well off.	Fairly well off.	Poor.
Day labourers	308	28	207	73	9.1	67.2	23.7
Labourers ( <i>Statare</i> ).	497	64	250	174	12.9	53.1	35.0
<i>Torp</i> holders ( <i>Torp</i> ).	4,437	1,654	1,844	939	37.3	41.6	21.0

Farm servants frequently save money while they are in service and then set up in trade or emigrate, so that it is impossible to compare their condition, taken as a class, with that of the *statare* and *torpare*. If, however, the two latter classes be compared with one another the advantage clearly remains with the *torpare*. The *statare* may make a fair income while they are young and strong, especially if they can count on the earnings of their wives and children at harvest time, but as their strength declines the disadvantages of their position become apparent. They are no longer able to earn as much as formerly, and the earnings of their best years

(1) These figures were given in a private letter to the Secretary from Herr Sidenbladh, Director of the Statistical Office of Stockholm.

were never large enough to enable them to save to any extent. The *torpare*, on the other hand, begin in their old age to reap the fruit of the labour expended upon their land, their *torp* brings in enough to support them, while it requires less work than formerly, and, again, as they are frequently succeeded by their own children, they are sure of a home in their old age.

The *torp* system is, moreover, an advantage to both parties concerned, as it secures an unfailing supply of labour to the landowner, who, in these days of emigration, would otherwise often be short of hands. The best relations prevail between proprietors and their *torpare*, and every reason exists for wishing to see the system extended.<sup>(1)</sup>

The principal metals found in Norway are copper, zinc, silver, and gold. The two latter are found in small quantities only, but the output of copper is large and is increasing under the present improved methods of working. Unfortunately for Norway, the capital necessary to undertake large mining operations has hitherto been lacking, and consequently all the largest mines in the country are in the hands of foreigners. English, German, and Swedish companies are now in possession of many of the richest veins of copper and sulphur pyrites. Out of the eight mines which, in 1889-90, employed upwards of 100 men, six were worked by foreign companies, the Røros copper mines and the silver mines at Kongsberg being the only exceptions. That the number of foreign companies shows no sign of decrease appears from the following table:—

At the End of	Number of Men employed	
	By Norwegian Companies.	By Foreign Companies.
1875 - - -	2,380	1,829 (43·45 per cent.)
1880 - - -	1,518	1,890 (55·45 per cent.)
1885 - - -	1,169	1,534 (56·75 per cent.)
1890 - - -	1,873	1,888 (50·20 per cent.)

The total number of persons employed in mining and smelting operations during the last 20 years has varied between 2,000 and 3,000 a year. During the five years, from 1871-5 inclusive, the average number was 3,064 per annum, but this number gradually sank until, in 1887, the yearly average was as low as 1,993. The last few years have witnessed an improvement in the trade, and the total number of persons employed rose in 1890 to 2,899. The subjoined table shows how the total number of miners is distributed among the different branches of the industry.

Date.	Silver.	Gold.	Copper and Sulphur Pyrites.	Nickel.	Cobalt.	Iron.	Other Metals.	Total.
1887	438	73	1,104	145	150	88	—	1,993
1888	461	60	1,371	138	150	77	113	2,300
1889	529	83	1,536	133	150	76	118	2,675
1890	473	90	1,771	174	155	107	130	2,899

The proportion between the number of persons employed in actual mining operations and in smelting (*Hyttedrift*) was, in 1887, 1,762 and 231 respectively; in 1888, 2,154 and 236; in 1889, 2,367 and 308; in 1890, 2,508 and 391.

As regards the sex of the persons employed the official statistical report states that the number of women employed is small, and that they are chiefly engaged in separating apatite and felspar. The number of children employed in mining operations is also very insignificant; in 1890 only 54 boys and seven girls under 12 years of age, and 159 boys and 13 girls between 12 and 14 years of age were employed.

The following table shows the annual value of the total output of Norwegian mines during the last 20 years:—

	1871-75.	1876-80.	1881-85.	1886-90.	1889.	1890.
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
Silver:—						
(a) Refined	565,000	625,000	836,000	700,000	605,000	622,600
(b) Ore	—	45,000	111,000	58,000	80,500	73,000
Gold	—	—	7,000	29,000	33,000	43,800
Copper and sulphur pyrites:—						
(a) Copper	780,000	796,000	381,000	338,000	390,000	465,000
(b) Copper ore	2,000,000	1,424,000	2,122,000	1,408,000	1,300,000	1,430,000
Nickel:—						
(a) Refined	1,295,000	877,000	532,000	335,000	194,000	175,000
(b) Nickel ore	—	200,000	21,000	—	—	—
Cobalt	110,000	230,000	129,000	48,000	38,000	37,000
Iron:—						
(a) Pig-iron	100,000	33,000	4,000	21,100	13,800	25,800
(b) Bar-iron and steel	523,000	274,000	251,000	106,000	116,000	148,000
(c) Iron-ore	175,000	52,000	19,000	—	—	—
Other metals	25,000	3,000	17,000	67,000	114,400	137,000
Apatite	78,000	363,000	965,000	593,000	926,900	1,000,700
Felspar	58,000	96,000	125,000	153,000	197,900	213,300
Total	5,911,000	4,868,000	6,520,000	3,756,100	4,209,500	4,360,700

The Røros mines are, as previously stated, the only large copper mines now worked by a Norwegian company. They have been worked for 249 years and still yield a large output each year. New machinery and other improvements have been recently introduced and the production at the end of 1892 amounted to 600 tons of refined copper and 18,500 tons of copper ore, as compared with an average output of copper in preceding years of 300 tons. The Røros district includes four principal mines, the *Storvarts* mine which in 1890 employed on an average 64 men daily, the *Ny Solstein* with nine men, the King's mine where the daily average of hands was 349 of whom a large number were boys, and the Mug mine where 51 men were employed. Workmen's dwellings have recently been

erected at Røros to accommodate the increased number of hands, as well as a large temporary shelter fitted with electric light.

The Government silver mines at Kongsberg yielded an output of 4·8 tons in 1882 as against 4·7 tons in the previous year, but as the price of silver fell in 1892, the profits were only about 100l. larger than the year before. The net profit of these silver mines was estimated at 6,300 for the year. Some mines belonging to this group which had been transferred to English concessionaires employed about 12 men in experimental work. The results obtained were not remarkable and the mines were temporarily closed in November 1892.

Ten years ago great hopes were entertained of finding gold in considerable quantities near Trondhjem and the Bømmeloen Mining Company was started to work the veins. The amount of gold to be got proved very much smaller than was expected and the works were given over to an English company, the Oscar Gold Mining Company, Limited, which in 1892 crushed 2,500 tons

(1) Bidrag til Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Hushållningsstatistikens Berättelser, pp. 13 and 22. Feilitzen. Tjenare, Statare och Torpare, pp. 1-25, 61-71, 75-90. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 50, Part I, p. 118. Lavollée. Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II., p. 360.

) In Norway, wages of miners and iron workers.

following estimate of the number and size of the holdings now under cultivation:—

Under 5 acres	-	-	73,000 owners.
5 to 50 acres	-	-	205,000 "
50 to 250 acres	-	-	29,000 "
250 and over	-	-	3,000 "
			310,000 owners.

In the province of Skien the large farms consist largely of arable land, but the proportion of cultivated land diminishes in the more northerly parts of the country, and forests and pastures usually form part of a Swedish farm even when it is of moderate dimensions. Farms around Stockholm generally include from 300 to 500 acres of arable land with three or four times as much rough grass or forest. The smallest holding which will suffice for the maintenance of a family is about 20 acres of cultivated land; where smaller holdings are found they are worked by persons who have some other source of income. The area of cultivated land is now increasing year by year, owing to the increased amount of butter which Sweden produces for exportation. Dairy-farming in Sweden does not increase the area of pasture land at the expense of arable land, because, as the cows are kept indoors during the whole winter, a large quantity of fodder must be grown to feed them. Besides its small freeholds, Sweden possesses 164,577 *torp*, a special form of small holdings let under peculiar conditions. A *torp* consists of a space of ground more or less extensive, but upon which the owner has erected the necessary house and farm buildings. This farm is let to a labourer, who, in consideration of this, and without further wages, is bound to work for two or three days a week on the owner's estate. The proprietor, on his side, is bound to keep the *torp* buildings in good repair, to furnish the *torpare* with fuel, and pasturage for his cattle, and to allow him the use of draught cattle, if necessary. The *torpare* generally spends his life on his *torp*, and his son frequently succeeds to the possession of it.

The second class of agricultural labourers are the *statars*. The *statars* or *stat folk* are labourers engaged to work on the estates of the larger landowners for a year at a time. The landlord provides them with houses, and perhaps with gardens, and with a certain fixed quantity of cereals, malt, salt herring, and other provisions, in addition to their money wages.

The third class of labourers are the *tjenars* or unmarried farm servants, who are lodged and boarded at the farm, and receive money wages in addition. An inquiry, somewhat limited in extent, but of a very minute and searching character, was made in 1890 by a member of the Loren Institute, with a view to ascertaining, from the evidence of the peasants themselves, what were the conditions of life among the three above classes of the agricultural population. The investigator fixed upon a certain district in Östergötland, containing 150 parishes, ascertained from the landowners the area, buildings, and stock of the *torp* or farms belonging to them, and then through conversation with the peasants extracted all that was to be known about the inhabitants, past and present, of the district. The results thus obtained were then tested by reference to the justices of the peace and clergy of the neighbourhood, and the almost complete agreement between the two classes of witnesses proved that the results of the investigation were as accurate as possible. The points brought out in conversation with each peasant were the names of the past and present *torpare*, the number and occupation of their children, and whether the family was to be considered as well-to-do, fairly comfortable, or poor. One instance, taken from East Gothland, will serve as an example. "*Torp H*." "First occupier, fairly well-off, had one daughter who married a *torp* holder and was fairly well-off. Second occupier, fairly well-off, had five children, one of whom became poor. Third occupier, well-off, had three sons and three daughters; one daughter married a smith, another a railway watcher, both well-off; two sons became tenant farmers, and were fairly well-to-do. One son and one daughter remained at home and worked on the *torp*." The investigator also supplied certain families who were well known to him with account books for their household expenses, and thus obtained the following results with regard to the different classes of rural labourers. The first family, to take one example only, consisted of the man, his wife, and five children. The *torp* consisted of 88 acres, and the stock of one cow, one pig, and a few fowls. The landlord supplied the draught cattle,

and a certain quantity of hay and straw. The income derived from the *torp* for the year was 340 kr., and the following quantities of food were consumed, 84 kg. pork, 6 kg. lard, 6 kg. meat, 50 kg. herrings (*silt*), 17 kg. small herrings (*strömming*), 0.212 kg. butter, 11 kg. cheese, 60 kg. wheat, 34 kg. peas, 617 kg. rye, 50 kg. barley, 1,190 kg. potatoes, 8 kg. sugar, 3.5 kg. coffee, 741 liter milk, and about 50 eggs. Some of these quantities seem small, but it must be remembered that the man had his meals at the landlord's expense for 40 days in the year, and the four younger children were all under 10 years of age.

The accounts kept by a labourer, with a wife and two children, belonging to the class of *statars*, show a yearly income of 277 kr., of which 126 kr. were earned by the husband, 31 kr. by the wife, 109 kr. by one of the children, and 11 kr. were derived from the sale of eggs and potatoes. Various payments in kind were also received amounting in all to 257 kr. The food eaten was similar in kind to that given above.

The wages of the unmarried farm servants are stated to be twice as high at the present time as 40 years ago, whilst clothes, the only thing which they have to buy for themselves, are no dearer now than then.

The following figures represent the wages of farm servants, as given by M. Sidenbladh, and are based on the average returns of 26 agricultural societies. The sums stated refer simply to the money wage, and do not include the value of fire, light, and lodging, nor any incidental expenses, such as medical attendance, which are borne by the employer. The permanent labourer, again, often has a small potato patch to cultivate on his own account, the value of which is not included in the figures given in the table. (1)

Date.	Annual Wages of		Value of Money Wage and of Payment in kind of		Daily Wages in Summer of		Daily Wages in Winter of	
	Men.	Women	Men.	Women	Men.	Women	Men.	Women
	Boarded by the Employer.		Men.	Women	Men.	Women	Men.	Women
1881	Kr. 140	Kr. 82	Kr. 364	Kr. 213	Kr. öre. 1 51	Kr. öre. 0 79	Kr. öre. 1 00	Kr. öre. 0 57
1882	138	65	365	217	1 52	0 81	1 04	0 56
1883	162	66	374	216	1 57	0 83	1 10	0 56
1884	156	69	373	218	1 61	0 87	1 08	0 59
1885	147	68	356	208	1 53	0 86	0 99	0 58
1886	143	67	357	202	1 54	0 87	0 98	0 58
1887	140	64	346	202	1 46	0 87	0 99	0 59
1888	146	69	363	205	1 53	0 89	1 01	0 58
1889	132	70	376	216	1 61	0 92	1 06	0 62
1890	164	76	389	219	1 72	0 96	1 16	0 67
1891	166	80	396	224	1 75	0 99	1 19	0 69
1892	170	81	403	227	1 78	1 00	1 23	0 71

The condition of the different classes of agricultural labourers in Östergötland who were included in the above investigation is shown in the following table:—

Class.	Number of Persons.			Percentage.			
	Total.	Well off.	Fairly well off.	Poor.	Well off.	Fairly well off.	Poor.
Day labourers	306	28	207	73	9.1	67.2	23.7
Labourers ( <i>Statars</i> ).	407	64	289	174	12.9	63.1	23.0
<i>Torp</i> holders ( <i>Torpare</i> ).	4,437	1,654	1,844	939	37.3	41.6	21.0

Farm servants frequently save money while they are in service and then set up in trade or emigrate, so that it is impossible to compare their condition, taken as a class, with that of the *statars* and *torpare*. If, however, the two latter classes be compared with one another the advantage clearly remains with the *torpare*. The *statars* may make a fair income while they are young and strong, especially if they can count on the earnings of their wives and children at harvest time, but as their strength declines the disadvantages of their position become apparent. They are no longer able to earn as much as formerly, and the earnings of their best years

(1) These figures were given in a private letter to the Secretary from Herr Sidenbladh, Director of the Statistical Office of Stockholm.

were never large enough to enable them to save to any extent. The *torpare*, on the other hand, begin in their old age to reap the fruit of the labour expended upon their land, their *torp* brings in enough to support them, while it requires less work than formerly, and, again, as they are frequently succeeded by their own children, they are sure of a home in their old age.

The *torp* system is, moreover, an advantage to both parties concerned, as it secures an unfailing supply of labour to the landowner, who, in these days of emigration, would otherwise often be short of hands. The best relations prevail between proprietors and their *torpare*, and every reason exists for wishing to see the system extended.<sup>(1)</sup>

The principal metals found in Norway are copper, zinc, silver, and gold. The two latter are found in small quantities only, but the output of copper is large and is increasing under the present improved methods of working. Unfortunately for Norway, the capital necessary to undertake large mining operations has hitherto been lacking, and consequently all the largest mines in the country are in the hands of foreigners. English, German, and Swedish companies are now in possession of many of the richest veins of copper and sulphur pyrites. Out of the eight mines which, in 1889-90, employed upwards of 100 men, six were worked by foreign companies, the Røros copper mines and the silver mines at Kongsberg being the only exceptions. That the number of foreign companies shows no sign of decrease appears from the following table:—

Number of Men employed

At the End of	By Norwegian Companies.	By Foreign Companies.
1875 - - -	2,380	1,829 (43·45 per cent.)
1880 - - -	1,518	1,890 (55·45 per cent.)
1885 - - -	1,169	1,534 (56·75 per cent.)
1890 - - -	1,873	1,888 (50·20 per cent.)

The total number of persons employed in mining and smelting operations during the last 20 years has varied between 2,000 and 3,000 a year. During the five years, from 1871-5 inclusive, the average number was 3,064 per annum, but this number gradually sank until, in 1887, the yearly average was as low as 1,993. The last few years have witnessed an improvement in the trade, and the total number of persons employed rose in 1890 to 2,899. The subjoined table shows how the total number of miners is distributed among the different branches of the industry.

Date.	Silver.	Gold.	Copper and Sulphur Pyrites.	Nickel.	Cobalt.	Iron.	Other Metals.	Total.
1887	438	73	1,104	145	150	88	—	1,993
1888	481	90	1,371	138	150	77	113	2,390
1889	529	83	1,536	183	150	76	119	2,675
1890	473	90	1,771	174	155	107	130	2,909

The proportion between the number of persons employed in actual mining operations and in smelting (*Hyttedrift*) was, in 1887, 1,762 and 231 respectively; in 1888, 2,154 and 236; in 1889, 2,367 and 308; in 1890, 2,508 and 391.

As regards the sex of the persons employed the official statistical report states that the number of women employed is small, and that they are chiefly engaged in separating apatite and felspar. The number of children employed in mining operations is also very insignificant; in 1890 only 54 boys and seven girls under 12 years of age, and 159 boys and 13 girls between 12 and 14 years of age were employed.

The following table shows the annual value of the total output of Norwegian mines during the last 20 years:—

	1871-75.	1876-80.	1881-85.	1886-90.	1889.	1890.
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
Silver:—						
(a) Refined	565,000	625,000	836,000	700,000	605,000	622,600
(b) Ore	—	45,000	111,000	58,000	80,500	73,000
Gold	—	—	7,000	29,000	33,000	48,300
Copper and sulphur pyrites:—						
(a) Copper	780,000	796,000	881,000	838,000	390,000	465,000
(b) Copper ore	2,000,000	1,424,000	2,122,000	1,408,000	1,800,000	1,450,000
Nickel:—						
(a) Refined	1,295,000	877,000	582,000	235,000	194,000	175,000
(b) Nickel ore	300,000	50,000	21,000	—	—	—
Cobalt	110,000	230,000	129,000	48,000	38,000	27,000
Iron:—						
(a) Pig-iron	100,000	33,000	4,000	21,100	13,800	25,800
(b) Bar-iron and steel	525,000	274,000	251,000	106,000	116,000	148,000
(c) Iron-ore	175,000	52,000	19,000	—	—	—
Other metals	25,000	3,000	17,000	67,000	114,400	137,000
Apatite	78,000	363,000	965,000	593,000	926,900	1,000,700
Felspar	58,000	96,000	125,000	158,000	197,900	218,300
Total	5,911,000	4,868,000	5,520,000	3,756,100	4,209,500	4,360,700

The Røros mines are, as previously stated, the only large copper mines now worked by a Norwegian company. They have been worked for 249 years and still yield a large output each year. New machinery and other improvements have been recently introduced and the production at the end of 1892 amounted to 600 tons of refined copper and 18,500 tons of copper ore, as compared with an average output of copper in preceding years of 300 tons. The Røros district includes four principal mines, the *Storvarte* mine which in 1890 employed on an average 64 men daily, the *Ny Solstein* with nine men, the King's mine where the daily average of hands was 349 of whom a large number were boys, and the Mug mine where 51 men were employed. Workmen's dwellings have recently been

erected at Røros to accommodate the increased number of hands, as well as a large temporary shelter fitted with electric light.

The Government silver mines at Kongsberg yielded an output of 4·8 tons in 1882 as against 4·7 tons in the previous year, but as the price of silver fell in 1892, the profits were only about 100*l.* larger than the year before. The net profit of these silver mines was estimated at 6,300 for the year. Some mines belonging to this group which had been transferred to English concessionaires employed about 12 men in experimental work. The results obtained were not remarkable and the mines were temporarily closed in November 1892.

Ten years ago great hopes were entertained of finding gold in considerable quantities near Trondhjem and the Bømmeloen Mining Company was started to work the veins. The amount of gold to be got proved very much smaller than was expected and the works were given over to an English company, the Oscar Gold Mining Company, Limited, which in 1892 crushed 2,500 tons

(1) Bidrag till Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Hushållningssällskapens Berättelser, pp. 13 and 22. Politiken. Tjenare, Statens och Torpare, pp. 1 and 71, 75-90. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 50, Part I, p. 118. Lavollée. Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II, p. 380.

of quartz from which a yield of 32 lbs. of gold was obtained, or 6·4 grains of gold per ton.

The Sulitelma copper mines are the only other large mines which call for special comment. The mining right was purchased in 1887 by a Swedo-German company which has developed the workings in a modern European manner. The difficulties of transport have been to a great extent overcome by the construction of a private railway about 6½ miles in length from Langstrand to Medrevand Lake, while steamers have been placed on the Overand and Nedrevand Lakes. Smelting houses and other works are in progress. The lodes at New Sulitelma are described as very rich in copper, and it is estimated that some 35,000 tons of ore will be extracted from these mines in the course of the next few years. The copper ore will be smelted on the spot while the pyrites will be exported. In 1890 these mines employed 126 persons, and in 1892 this number had increased to 300.

The Visnes copper mines were closed in 1891 as the lodes had become poor, and the great depth at which the ore was found rendered the work unprofitable. The owners are compelled by law to support the poor for five years after the closing of the works, and the sum now paid each year to the poor rates reaches nearly 1,700*l.* (cf. p. 25.) Mining operations are, on the other hand, being extended to other parts of northern Norway, the Bosmo pyrites mines near the end of the Ranenfjord, and only one mile from the sea, have lately been sold by the original Norwegian company to some large shareholders in the Sulitelma mines, and proposals have been made to re-open the long disused mines at Alten.

The general average given by the Central Statistical Bureau of the wages earned by Norwegian miners in 1890 was 2 kr. 11 öre a day, and the following figures, which are taken from different districts, probably represent very fairly local variations throughout the country. The subjoined table shows the average daily earnings of the men employed in the copper mines of the Sondenfeld district in 1890.

Class.	No. of Men employed.	Average Wage.	Length of Day.
Foremen	2.0	Kr. 4.21	Hrs. 10
Hewers ( <i>Skatthauers</i> )	9.9	3.23	10
Miners (on piece work)	31.7	3.04	10
Hauliers	35.3	2.31	10
Engine men	12.1	2.96	10
Chief stokers	4.0	1.96	10
Smiths	3.3	2.12	10
Datal hands ( <i>Daglönnere</i> )	6.0	1.90	10
Total	104.1	with average wage of 2 kr. 56 per 10 hours day.	

The engine men and stokers have actually a 12-hours day and their real wages therefore are higher than those given above, viz., 3·55 and 2·35 kr. respectively.

The separation and dressing (*Skeidning og Opberedning*) of the copper occupied some 76 persons whose average wage was 2 kr. 8 öre a day, engine men and stokers earned 2 kr. 20, women 1 kr. 52, and boys 1·45 a day.

In the zinc mines of Tromsø the average earnings of breakers (*Brydere*) were 2 kr. 86 öre a day, hauliers (*Fordere*) made 2 kr. 57 öre, purifiers and crushers, 2 kr. 9 öre per diem.<sup>(1)</sup>

The State is a large owner of railway property both in Sweden and Norway. In the course of 1889, 82 kilometres of fresh line were added to the Swedish Government Railways, which, with this addition, reached a total length of 2,613 kilometres. The Government property in railways, including those in course of construction, was then estimated at a value of 261,649,500 kr. At the end of 1890, 90 private owners of lines worked in connexion with the State railways, of whom 68 were members of the union founded in 1882 for running these lines in combination with one another. Considerable progress has been made even since 1890, large loans have been borrowed

—the whole of the national debt both in Sweden and Norway was incurred in the construction of railways—and in 1892 the railways of Sweden had a total length of 5,144 miles, of which 1,704 miles belonged to the State, whilst in Norway 971 miles of railway were open, the greater portion of which was State property. As regards wages, railway servants are among the most favoured of the working classes. The following figures, which are taken from the "Norwegian Railway Calendar" for 1890, give the annual earnings of the various classes of railway employes.

Station-masters are divided into seven classes with salaries varying from 1,050 to 2,600 kr. per annum, together with an increase of pay according to the length of their service (*Alderstillæg*). The average income of the station-masters in towns was 1,858 kr., including house, light, and uniform, which are officially valued at 240 kr. a year. This remuneration cannot be considered high, but it must be remembered that station-masters are among the members of the public service who are entitled to a pension, and that the above figures are those of the net income when the pension premiums have been deducted. Country station-masters had an annual income of 1,333 kr., but the great majority had opportunities of extra earnings as managers of the station refreshment rooms or as postmasters (*Postaabnere*) by means of which their total income might more properly be reckoned at about 1,600 kr. The average annual wage of engine drivers was somewhat over 1,700 kr., that of guards 1,250 kr., and these sums in both cases included the bonuses paid on the number of miles run, which may be estimated at 198 kr. for engine drivers, 234 kr. for first-class guards, 128 kr. for second-class guards, and 95 kr. for stokers. The average wage of the great majority of porters (*Stationsbetjente*), messengers, and warehouse labourers was under 1,000 kr. a year. The average for all the above-mentioned classes of railway men may be reckoned as 1,600 kr. in towns, and from 1,200 to 1,500 kr. in country districts. No particulars are obtainable as to the wages of stokers and pointsmen (*Sporskiftere*) who are not regarded as officials.

The district managers (*Sektionschef*), engineers, and assistants in railway construction works have a yearly income of about 4,000 kr., cashiers and goods managers (*Materialforvaltere*) about 2,400 kr., and foremen from 1,000 to 1,200 kr. The average per head throughout the whole class of persons employed in construction works is estimated at about 2,400 kr.<sup>(1)</sup>

Navigation, pilotage, and fishing naturally afford occupation to a large number of persons. All persons serving as pilots, or on board the yachts which are used to transport timber are entered in the merchant service, and can be enrolled in the navy in case of need. The mercantile marine in 1891 consisted of 7,533 vessels with an aggregate burden of 1,738,580 tons.

Ship masters earn about 8 kr. a day, including percentages on cargoes (*Kaplaken vedfartøier*), and work about 260 days in the year. Their annual earnings are estimated at between 2,000 and 2,400 kr., exclusive of food. *Mates* (*Styrmaend*) earn between 850 and 900 kr., and engineers about 1,000 kr., exclusive of food. The earnings of fishermen depend greatly on what markets they are able to command, and hence the yearly earnings of the fishermen who live far away from railway communication are reckoned at 368 kr., whilst men who can sell their fish in a town make from 600 to 800 kr. Men employed in fish-curing establishments earn from 360 to 400 kr. a year.<sup>(2)</sup>

Norway is a country of peasant proprietors. "It is a rare thing," says M. Lavollée, "to find a farm which does not belong to the occupier." The number of peasant properties, according to the same authority, is about 96,000. These are not always large enough to allow the owner to live entirely on their produce; the *bonde*, or peasant proprietor, frequently does a little work for wages on the estate of a larger proprietor or carries on some small trade or handicraft.

The *fjeld-bonde*, or highlanders whose holdings lie on the slopes of the mountains above the wheat line, are chiefly occupied in cattle rearing, and in the cutting and floating of timber. The cottars (*Husmand*) also fill an important post in Norwegian agriculture; like the *skutare* of Sweden and the *Husmand* of Denmark, they occupy a cottage and a small patch of ground

(1) Tabeller vedkommende Norges Bergværksdrift i Aarene 1888 og 1890, pp. 1-10, and Appendix, pp. 8, 13, 30, 32, 42-3, 65-6. Foreign Office Reports, Annual Series, 1893, No. 1,272, pp. 17-18.

(1) Kiser. Indtægts-og Formuesforhold i Norge, 1ste Hefte, pp. 5, 23-9. Conditions du Travail en Suède et en Norvège, p. 17. Foreign Office Reports, Miscellaneous Series, 1891, No. 180 on the State Railways of Sweden.

(2) Kiser. Indtægts-og Formuesforhold i Norge, 1ste Hefte, pp. 41-5.

adjoining it, and in return are bound to give their services to their landlord during a certain number of days in the year. They pay no taxes and are hence deprived of all political rights. In Nordland and Finmark, and on the shores of the fjords, the peasants depend as much on fishing as on the produce of their farms. As the income of all these different classes is derived from more than one source, it is extremely difficult to give any accurate figures as to the total earnings. According to official statistics published in 1890, it may be estimated that the average annual income of farmers, who cultivate their own land (*Selv-ende Gaardbrugere*) varies from 900 to 1,000 kr. The average income of 1120 leaseholders and tenant farmers (*Leilendinge og Forpugtere*) was reckoned to amount to between 600 and 700 kr., or if the farm was situated near a town the occupier's income might be as much as 800 kr. Farm bailiffs (*Hushondskarle*), according to the franchise returns for 1876, had an average income of from 550 to 600 kr., but as the value of board and lodging was then rated very low, their income at the present time more probably amounts to something like 600 kr. in the country and 800 kr. in the neighbourhood of towns. Cottars (*Husmand*) whose usual daily wage is from 1 kr. 40 ore probably make at least 360 kr. a year. The wages of farm servants have risen of late years in Norway as well as in Sweden. According to official statistics the wages of this class of labourers in country districts was 121 kr. in 1870, 181 kr. in 1875, 153 kr. in 1880, 163 kr. in 1885 and 175 kr. in 1890 besides board and lodging. If the value of these be added the real wage amounts to about 300 kr. for male hands. The wages of women for the same years were 71, 63, 73 and 77 kr. The advance in wages is more apparent in the incomes of servants in or near provincial towns (*Byerne*) than in the rural districts. The average wage was 158 kr. in 1870, 208 kr. in 1875, 203 kr. in 1880, 224 in 1885, and 239 kr. in 1890. The wages of women for the same years were 76, 78, 85 and 90 kr. As board and lodging are also dearer in towns, the total annual earnings must be estimated at not less than from 400 to 500 kr. for male servants.

During the winter the Norwegian peasant generally finds occupation in the forests, where the felling of trees and the transport of the wood to the sawmills occupy a large number of hands. Wood cutters earned on an average 1 kr. 54 in 1880, 1 kr. 66 a day in 1885 and 1 kr. 98 in 1890, peasants who brought their horse and sledge to carry away the wood earned 3 kr. 62 in 1880, 3 kr. 67 in 1885 and 3 kr. 74 in 1890. Wood carriers without a horse earned 1 kr. 63, 1 kr. 74 and 1 kr. 77 in the three years above-mentioned.<sup>(1)</sup>

The present condition of the peasant proprietors of Norway gives rise to the gravest apprehensions. The question of special measures for improving the condition of the agricultural classes was discussed in the *Storting* in February 1893, and in the course of the debates much important information was brought to light. Mr. Aarstad, member for the prefecture of Jarlsberg and Laurvik, which includes the richest agricultural districts in Norway, maintained that the peasant proprietors were falling deeper and deeper into debt. "Those who now in reality own the soil of Norway are the Bank of Norway, the Land Mortgage Bank, the savings banks, and traders in towns. The mortgage debt on Norwegian agriculture has been increasing as follows:—

Year.	From	To
In 1865	9,000,000	10,000,000
" 1874	11,200,000	—
" 1880	16,700,000	—
" 1887	19,400,000	22,200,000

" At present the indebtedness amounts to not less than 27,800,000, and if the debts to the savings banks and to merchants be added, the total may be estimated at from 36,000,000 to 39,000,000." The estimated official value of all the land, houses, and forests in Norway is estimated at 4,000,000, and of this Mr. Aarstad reckoned that the peasant proprietors (*bonde*) owned in reality only one-sixteenth, and further that the interest on mortgages (at 4 per cent.) now

(1) *Kiær, Indtægter og Formuesforhold i Norge. 1ste Hefte, pp. 39-41. Meddelelser fra Det Statistiske Central Bureau. 11te Bind No. 4, p. 84. Lavello, Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II., pp. 418-50. Les Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 20.*

\* This statement is queried by M. O. Dohlt, of Christiania.

amounts to one-sixth of the total yield of agriculture in Norway (about 11,000,000). The causes which have contributed to the prevalent impoverishment are very various. In the first place the wages of labour are rising while the necessaries of life are becoming cheaper, a state of things which benefits everyone except the farmer. The standard of living in all classes, including that of the peasant proprietor, is rising under the stimulus of better education, and the younger generation is no longer contented with the simple mode of life which sufficed for their fathers. The excise dues on malt, which exclude the cultivator of home-grown corn from the market, are also felt to be a hardship, but one of the chief causes is to be found in the law of *Aasaderet*, or the right of pre-emption under which the eldest son has the right of buying out his co-heirs. This law acts beneficially in preventing the excessive sub-division of property, but at the same time it encourages the heir, whose pecuniary resources are insufficient, to contract a mortgage in order to raise the money required to redeem the claims of his co-heirs. The persons who are bought out and receive their share of the property in cash frequently emigrate and carry their money out of the country.<sup>(1)</sup>

The following table shows the daily wages of labour in all occupations in town and country during 1890:—

(iii) In industry.

DAILY WAGES IN NORWAY IN 1890.

Class of Workmen.	Town.	Country.	
	kr. öre.	kr. öre.	
Miners	—	2 11	} per month.
Machine and engine makers	2 73	2 69	
Iron founders	2 92	—	
Tin founders	2 68	—	
Smiths	2 82	—	
Agricultural labourers	—	(men) 1 73	
"	—	(women) 1 02	
Able-bodied seamen on board—			
Steamships	—	50 0	
Sailing vessels	—	49 0	
First engineers	—	135 0	
Mates:—			
Steamships	—	91 0	
Sailing vessels	—	69 0	
Textile trades:—			
Spinners:—			
Men	2 15	2 05	
Women	1 08	1 19	
Weavers:—			
Men	2 12	2 09	
Women	1 09	1 27	
Timber and building trades:—			
Sawyers	2 44	2 19	
Carpenters	2 86	2 41	
Joiners	2 63	—	
Masons	3 80	—	
Painters	2 88	—	
Printing trade:—			
Compositors	2 88	—	
Bookbinders	2 67	—	
Matchmakers	—	1 96	
Bakers	2 70	—	
Glass and pottery makers	2 49	2 44	

In the summer of 1892 an inquiry was undertaken by the Statistical Bureau of Copenhagen as to the wages and hours of labour worked in each of the principal trades of the town. Four hundred schedules of questions were sent out, 250 of which were directed to employers and about 150 to workmen's unions. The employers returned 150 forms, and the men about 100, with the information required.

(c) In Denmark.

It was remarked that in general the rate of wages as stated by employers in any trade was higher than that given by the employed in the same trade. The difference, however, was not large, and might be attributed to the fact that the employers who made returns were among the best in their trade.

Information was requested with regard to apprentices, journeymen, labourers and women (factory operatives are regarded as coming between journeymen and labourers), but the returns were more fully made out with regard to journeymen than any other class. Each trade was requested to state the maximum, minimum, and average wages earned by each class of workers. The average was not to be a pure arithmetic

(1) Foreign Office Reports, Miscellaneous Series, 1893, No. 222.

mean, but was to represent the amount actually earned by the majority of men in the trade. This method of taking the average was preferred as being more trustworthy, but the difference between the two averages was found to be small. For instance, out of the 50 unions which made returns of average wages, about 40 had a daily wage of between 3 and 3½ kr.<sup>(1)</sup>, and about ten earned less than 3 or more than 3½ kr., whereas the pure arithmetic mean gave an average of 3½ kr. per head.

The returns gave particulars as to wages and hours in 72 different trades (*Fag*), and a trade was understood to include both factory labour (*Fabrikfag*) and non-factory labour (*Huandværfag*).

The daily wages in all the trades taken together were as follows:—

—	Number of Trades.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.
Apprentices in	25	6re. 141	6re. 52	6re. 91
Journeyman "	46	428	264	335
Foremen "	21	617	360	474
Labourers "	22	518	318	256
Women "	18	204	109	143

The weekly wages paid for piece work were:—

—	Number of Trades.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.
Journeyman in	21	3,442	1,891	2,268
Women "	13	1,669	664	1,068

It will be noticed that the weekly piece work wage is somewhat larger than six times the daily wage. The fact that when wages are paid by the piece more work is done in the same time will probably account for part of the difference, and it must also be remembered that a man who is paid by the piece probably works rather longer hours than the time worker. The difference between time and piece work wages is estimated as 8 per cent. more for journeymen and 9 per cent. for women.<sup>(2)</sup>

#### AVERAGE WAGES in Metal, Textile, Building, and Printing Trades.<sup>(3)</sup>

Trade.	Day.	Week (piece work).
<b>Metal Workers:</b>	kr. 6re.	kr.
Gold and silversmiths	3 50	20
Brass workers	3 83	20
Machine makers and founders	3 15	24
Smiths	3 27	24
<b>Textile Trade:</b>		
Weavers (men)	c. 2 70	16
" (women)	1 60	10
Machine knitters and embroiders (women).	1 35	8 to 10
Glove makers	—	20
<b>Building Trades:</b>		
Masons	3 32	60 (summer max.)
Painters	3 70	25
Joiners	3 67	26
<b>Printing Trade:</b>		
Compositors	3 70 (min.) 5 67 (max.)	21
Lithographers	3 35	12 (min.) 50 (max.)
Bakers	2 80	— (7 days a week).

The wages given above are in all cases those of journeymen.

<sup>(1)</sup> 100 öre = 1 krone = about 1s. 1½d.; 18 kr. = about £1.

<sup>(2)</sup> Rubin. *Arbejdslosheden i København i Aaret, 1892*, pp. 1-14.

<sup>(3)</sup> Rubin. *Arbejdslosheden i København i Aaret, 1892*, pp. 16-68.

In order to estimate the average annual income of the various classes of workmen, the average daily wage may be taken as 332 öre for journeymen, 258 öre for labourers, 146 öre for women. The additional earnings due to piecework or overtime on the one side, and the reductions resulting from scarcity of employment on the other, must for the present be left out of consideration. Thus the above daily wages multiplied by 300 (the number of working days) give an average yearly income of about 1,000 kr. for journeymen, 780 kr. for labourers, and 440 kr. for women. A comparison of these figures with the annual incomes actually given for particular trades will show that the average thus obtained is fairly correct. The schedule filled up by the Sand Diggers' Union gave the earnings of 130 out of its 170 members. Of these 30 had about 700 kr. a year, 51 had from 880 to 1,000 kr., 40 had from 1,000 to 1,300 kr., nine had from 1,300 to 2,500 a year. The Coachmen's Union stated that the average daily wage of their members was 3 kr. during the six summer months, and 2½ kr. during the winter.

The average rate of wages as given by M. Rubin, agrees in the main with the figures collected in 1888 by M. P. Knudsen, the president of the Danish Social Democratic Federation. M. Knudsen estimates the total number of adult male workers in Denmark at about 216,200, distributed in the following classes:—

Skilled labourers in Copenhagen	26,000
Unskilled industrial "	2,200
Unskilled casual "	10,000
Industrial labourers in the provincial towns and in the country	48,000
Agricultural labourers	133,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>216,200</b>

The unmarried women employed in industrial pursuits numbered about 17,000.

The estimated annual earnings of the 26,000 skilled men in Copenhagen are based on returns supplied by the trade unions, and are as follows:—

	Kr.	Kr.
4,995 men or 19·21 per cent. earn from	400 to	600
6,750 " 25·96 " "	600 "	800
3,294 " 12·67 " "	800 "	900
2,987 " 11·49 " "	900 "	1,000
6,978 " 26·84 " "	1,000 "	1,400
793 " 3·05 " "	1,400 "	1,600
203 " 78 " "	1,600 "	2,300

It will be seen from this table that nearly half of the whole number of workmen earn more than 900 kr., while 1,000 kr. represents the average annual earnings of journeymen, as estimated by the Statistical Bureau.

Out of the 2,200 unskilled men in regular work, 2,022, or 92 per cent., earned from 500 to 800 kr., while only 178 men, or 8 per cent., earned more than 800 kr. The wages of unskilled men never exceeded 900 kr. No complete information as to the wages of casual labourers was obtainable, but, according to returns made by the Journeymen's Federation of Copenhagen, their annual earnings may be estimated at between 500 and 600 kr.; some earn still lower wages, but very few get as much as 800 kr. a year. Taking skilled and unskilled men together, 23,800 men, or 62·3 per cent., receive between 400 and 800 kr. a year, whilst 14,000, or 37·7 per cent., earn 800 kr. and upwards.<sup>(4)</sup>

The wages of industrial workers in the provinces fall considerably short of the sums paid in Copenhagen. M. Knudsen estimates that out of the 45,000 men employed in provincial towns and in the country, 33,600, or 74·7 per cent., have an annual wage of less than 800 kr., while only 11,400, or 25·3 per cent., earn more than 800 kr. No figures are obtainable as to the wages of casual labourers, but considering that some 10 per cent. of the men in regular work earn less than 400 kr. a year, it will be seen that the annual income of casual labourers must be very small indeed.

Many causes contribute to make the position of the Danish agricultural labourer at the present time one of peculiar hardship and difficulty. The climate of Denmark exposes the farmer who grows corn crops to very serious risks; the breeding of cattle for exportation has been tried without very marked success, and the only branch of agriculture which yields a fair return of profit is dairy farming. But dairy farming to be successful must be carried on on a large scale, and with all the improvements in mechanical appliances which only large capitalists are able to command. The

<sup>(4)</sup> Knudsen. *Sygeforsikring og Alderdomsforørgelse*, pp. 196-201.

Annual income.

(i) Wages in Copenhagen.

(ii) Wages in the provinces.

(iii) Wages of agricultural labourers.

difficulties which this branch of agriculture present to the peasant and small farmer have lately been to some extent overcome by the establishment of dairies on co-operative principles. These enterprises have proved most successful, and it is generally admitted that the best butter imported into the English market is that made in Danish dairies (?). With this one exception, however, agriculturists of every class are feeling the results of long continued depression. Chief among the difficulties with which the employer has to contend is the impossibility of getting good farm servants. The old patriarchal relations between the landowner and his labourers have now to a great extent ceased to exist. The absolute community of interest which formerly existed between an employer and his permanent labourers (*Fæstemænd*) has vanished before the modern freedom of contract; but trifling restrictions on personal freedom still exist which would make farm service irksome, even if it were profitable. This, however, is far from being the case, in spite of the constant migration of agricultural labourers to the towns, and although there is a real scarcity of good trustworthy men, the wages of hired labour still continue at a very low level. Modern agricultural legislation in Denmark began with the Statute of Partition in 1781, by which every owner who cultivated in connexion with others might demand the separation of his land in order that all his lots (*Lodder*) might be collected in one piece. In 1788 the obligation of the tenant to remain on the manor to which he belonged was abolished. Further legislation then carried out and completed the work begun by the Statute of Partition, and in 1792 joint cultivation was entirely done away with. The first step towards the abolition of soccage (*Hoveri*) was taken in 1799, when a law was passed requiring that the work which tenants must do for the manor should be clearly specified. Fifty years, however, passed before the reform thus commenced was fully carried out, and not till 1850 was the peasant entirely free from manorial exactions. The promoters of the agrarian movement of the last half century have done all in their power to create a population of peasant proprietors. Landowners are now obliged to lease out their farms to the peasants instead of cultivating them under the manor, and most of the larger farms are now either freehold or held on a heritable lease, whilst a fixed minimum for the size of farms prevents the peasant from injuring the land by excessive sub-division. (?)

The peasants of Denmark may be divided into three classes: (1) the *Gaardmænd*, farmers whose land amounts to more than 18, and less than 200, acres; (2) the *Husmænd*, cottars who are subdivided into two classes, according to their possession or non-possession of land, the latter class being distinguished as *Jordløse Husmænd*; (3) the *Indeiddere*, who have neither house nor land, but rent one or two rooms in a cottage. The *Herremænd* are squires, or landed proprietors, and a *Herregård* is a manor of more than 200 acres in extent. (?)

Labour on manors and the larger farms is generally performed by the cottars of both classes, but chiefly by those whose holdings are small. The small cottar is not necessarily the owner of his plot of ground, but frequently holds it on lease from a larger proprietor, whom he pays either in money or in service. The cottar, who farms a fairly large holding (*Jordhusmænd*) spends most of his time on his own ground, while he gives some weeks in the year to his landlord in lieu of rent, or, if he is himself the proprietor of his land, the same services are generally given in return for the carrying and ploughing done for him by the larger proprietor. This plan seems to serve the interests of both parties, and it is to be regretted that some landowners employ artisans and other town labourers at harvest time in preference to their own cottars. The position of the cottar with a very small holding is far less satisfactory. He is obliged to work for hire during the greater part of the year, and therefore the time at his disposal for the cultivation of his own ground is too short to allow of his getting as much out of it as it is capable of yielding. Again, it is questionable whether the small extra income, to which he sacrifices his Sunday and evening leisure, is sufficient to compensate him for the extra toil which he undergoes. Certainly, the labourer who works for hire all the year through, and is able to supplement his wages by some home

industry in which his family can assist, is in many respects better off. From the employers' point of view the cottar's farm is a decided misfortune, as it robs him of his men's labour for some 40 or 50 days in the year, and their absence is hardly likely to coincide with the times when they might most conveniently be spared. In spite, however, of all these drawbacks, the possession or the use of land by the peasantry seems to be the only sure method of attaching them to the land and of thereby securing a constant supply of labour to the landowner. (?)

The latest complete statistical information as to the wages of agricultural labour is that collected in the winter of 1872 by Professor W. Scharling; partial, but more recent, returns were obtained by M. Knudsen by means of a special inquiry conducted in the years 1885-7. Seventy-two villages, situated in 62 different parishes, and 52 large estates (*Herregårde*), were included in this investigation, so that the results of the inquiry, if incomplete, may be regarded as fairly representative. The wages of hired labour, as ascertained by this inquiry, were very low, though it was noticeable that the wages paid by large landholders were generally higher than those paid by peasant farmers. In both cases, of course, the wage-earner is frequently a *Husmand*, and can supplement his wages by the produce of his own plot of ground.

Cottars whose land is large enough to graze a cow and a few sheep are comparatively well off. One case is cited in which a cottar with  $9\frac{1}{2}$  *tønder* of land and two cows was able to realise a surplus of 377 kr. in the year, when his working expenses were paid. The following tables show the average daily wages in summer and winter, and the average annual earnings of farm labourers:—

## AVERAGE DAILY WAGES (Summer).

	On Farms.	On Estates.
	kr. öre.	kr. öre.
Daily wages, with board	0 90	0 90
Daily wages, without board	1 51	1 30
Piece-work wages	1 96	1 70

## AVERAGE DAILY WAGES (Winter).

	On Farms.	On Estates.
	kr. öre.	kr. öre.
Daily wages, with board	0 60	0 68
Daily wages, without board	1 12	1 19
Piece-work wages	1 39	1 35

## AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS.

	On Farms.	On Estates.
	kr.	kr.
Wages, with board	224	238
Part board	282	c. 300
Wages only	371	400

The above wages hold good for normal circumstances only, and do not take account of any unusual irregularity of employment. Men employed in large estates may generally count on regular work all the year round, but labourers on small farms complain of increasing irregularity of work owing to the introduction of machinery. Threshing machines in particular have caused a large number of men to be thrown out of work, and the usual period of idleness to which the majority of labourers must now submit is from two to four months a year. But if some deductions must be made from the above statements, they also leave room for additions, as the earnings of women and children and the proceeds of the cottar's own land have not been included. The earnings of the wife and children are, however, seldom large enough to effect much improvement in the condition of the family, and the extra income derived from the cottar's patch of ground is generally very small. (?)

(1) Foreign Office Reports, Miscellaneous Series, 1888, No. 101; 1892, No. 1090.

(2) Weitemeyer. Le Danemark, pp. 223-61.

(3) Sorø Amts Landøkonomiske Selskab. "Hvad kan der gøres for at forbedre Tyendeforholdene?" pp. 23-5.

(1) Sorø Amts Landøkonomiske Selskab. "Hvad kan der gøres for at forbedre Tyendeforholdene," pp. 67-68.

(2) Knudsen. Sygeforsikring og Alderdoms forsørgelse, pp. 140-192.



Low as these wages are, the present state of agriculture affords no immediate hope of improvement. The Agricultural Economic Society of Soro states distinctly that employers are now paying as much as they can, and it therefore seeks to attach the labourer to the land by other means than the hope of higher wages. It recommends that farmers who board their labourers should provide them with better food, for it is notorious that the food now supplied is both poor and insufficient, and that they should endeavour to alleviate the monotony of their daily toil by encouraging mental and physical recreation of every kind.<sup>(1)</sup>

To return to Copenhagen, statistics showed that during the last ten years advances had been obtained in most trades. These advances were accompanied in many cases by an increase both in the quality and quantity of the work done; but in other trades, e.g., the ready-made clothing trade, many complaints were made about the deterioration in the work caused by the demand for cheap goods.

The effect of a higher wages' tariff was felt in some trades in increased scarcity of employment, for employers, who were obliged to pay a high rate of wages, could not keep men on when they were not really wanted.

The wages paid in 1892 show an increase of about one-tenth as compared with those of 1882, and, as stated above, the number of factories working more than 10 hours has decreased, while those working less than 10 hours have increased.

The actual purchasing power of wages remains to be considered, and it is evident, from a comparison of prices in 1882 and 1892, that the recent advance of wages has been real as well as nominal. Investigations on this subject proved that clothes, fire, and light were from 5 to 16 per cent. cheaper in 1892 than in 1882, that rent in Copenhagen had fallen 3 per cent. between 1885 and 1892, sugar and butter had fallen in price, milk and bread cost about the same as in 1882, while the prices of meat, coffee, and ale had risen. Supposing nominal wages to have risen 10 per cent., the hours of labour to have been reduced by 5 per cent., and the necessaries of life to have fallen in price by about 3 per cent., then it is evident that the workman gets one-fifth more for his work in 1892 than in 1882, or, in other words, that he now earns as much in five days as he did 10 years ago in six days. Mr. Marcus Rubin, the head of the Statistical Bureau, is, however, of opinion that the above facts do not afford satisfactory ground for the conclusion that the wages of the working population, taken as a whole, have risen. Such a conclusion must take account of the amount of out-of-work time which a working man may reasonably expect in a year, and though there are no definite statistics on this subject, there is reason to think that employment is, on the whole, less regular now than in 1882.<sup>(2)</sup>

But even supposing that wages are higher now than ever before, the fact still remains that a large proportion of working-class families are obliged to live on a sum which ought not to suffice for more than one person. According to Professor Scharling, the maintenance of a single man in Copenhagen costs 770 kr. a year, and that of a man and wife 996 kr. But the annual income of some 23,880 persons, or 62 per

cent. of the total number of workmen in Copenhagen, is, as already stated, not more than 200 kr.; and when we remember that 15,800 of these men are heads of families, with three or four children, it will easily be seen that the remuneration of labour is still too low to maintain the labourer in a proper condition of physical well-being. As regards the agricultural labourer, it must be stated that milk, firing, and clothing can be obtained at lower prices in the country than in the capital; but when the low rate of country wages is taken into consideration, the fact remains that wages are insufficient to cover the cost of the necessaries of life. The cause of the low rate of wages which prevails through the whole extent of the country must be sought elsewhere than in the fluctuations of commercial enterprise or the greed of capitalists, and may probably be traced, in a great measure, to the incapacity of the workers themselves, and to the constant immigration of Swedish and German labourers.<sup>(3)</sup>

The number of persons who emigrate each year from Scandinavia is larger in proportion to the total number of the inhabitants than that of any other country in Europe except Ireland, whereas the number of immigrants, except in Denmark, is very small. On 31st December 1880 the population of Sweden comprised 4,565,668 persons, of whom only 18,582, or 0.41 per cent., were foreigners, and of these 4,575 were Danes and 4,433 Norwegians. Norway at the same date had a population of 1,806,900 souls, of whom 37,260, or 2.06 per cent., were foreigners, but of these 29,240 were natives of Sweden, while in Denmark the total population included 1,969,039 inhabitants, with the relatively high proportion of 62,983, or 3.16 per cent., foreigners. These so-called foreigners were, however, for the most part, persons of Scandinavian birth or inhabitants of the lost duchies. The number of Swedes was 24,148, of Norwegians 2,823, Schlesvigers 22,007, other Germans 11,145.

The national growth of the population as compared with the actual increase for the 10 years preceding the censuses of 1875 and 1880 in the three countries of Scandinavia was as follows:—

Country.	Natural Growth.	Actual Increase.
Sweden (1870-80)	565,897	397,143
Norway (1865-75)	207,967	102,279
Denmark (1870-80)	224,200	184,206

The difference therefore constituted the number of emigrants who left Scandinavia for other countries. The number of Scandinavian immigrants in the other countries of Europe is small, and is confined principally to Finland, Germany, and England. The great majority of Scandinavian emigrants therefore make their way to non-European countries, and chiefly to the United States.

The following tables show the total number of emigrants leaving Scandinavia for the years from 1878 to 1890, inclusive:—

SWEDEN.

	1878.	1880.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<b>Emigrants:—</b>								
Males	3,969	20,715	9,908	16,346	25,547	25,128	14,543	15,073
Females	3,556	13,534	9,482	11,687	17,851	17,891	13,303	12,471
Children (under 15)	1,507	7,860	4,103	4,856	7,388	7,304	5,517	5,666
<b>Total</b>	<b>9,032</b>	<b>42,109</b>	<b>23,493</b>	<b>32,889</b>	<b>50,786</b>	<b>50,323</b>	<b>33,363</b>	<b>34,212</b>
<b>Nationality of emigrants:—</b>								
Swedish	9,032	42,109	23,493	32,889	50,786	50,323	33,363	34,212
Other	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>9,032</b>	<b>42,109</b>	<b>23,493</b>	<b>32,889</b>	<b>50,786</b>	<b>50,323</b>	<b>33,363</b>	<b>34,212</b>
<b>Countries of destination:—</b>								
Norway	1,696	1,714	1,261	1,194	1,166	1,077	1,225	1,358
Denmark	1,626	2,657	2,579	2,177	2,000	2,173	1,864	1,545
Germany	650	648	545	660	462	553	484	492
United States	4,242	36,263	18,222	27,913	46,252	45,561	28,509	29,487
Other countries	818	827	886	945	806	959	1,261	1,390
<b>Total</b>	<b>9,032</b>	<b>42,109</b>	<b>23,493</b>	<b>32,889</b>	<b>50,786</b>	<b>50,323</b>	<b>33,363</b>	<b>34,212</b>

(1) Soro Amts Landökonomiske Selskab. "Hvad kan der gjøres for at forbedre Tyendeforholdene," pp. 435-44.

(2) Arbejdslønnen i København i Aaret, 1892.

(3) Knudsen. Syccforskrift og Alledensl. p. 31. Foreign Office Reports, 1870, No. 63. Commercial, p. 31.

NORWAY.

	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Emigrants (Norwegian):—										
Males - - - - -	16,538	12,358	8,044	7,272	8,611	12,714	13,138	7,076	5,878	7,784
Females - - - - -	12,266	9,809	6,739	6,709	6,547	8,027	8,314	5,566	5,113	5,557
Total - - - - -	28,804	22,167	14,776	13,981	15,158	20,741	21,452	12,642	10,991	13,341
Nationality of emigrants:—										
Norwegian - - - - -	28,804	22,167	14,776	13,981	15,158	20,741	21,452	12,642	10,991	13,341
Other - - - - -	4,087	2,280	1,409	1,246	2,166	4,981	4,705	2,914	2,377	3,086
Total - - - - -	32,891	24,447	16,185	15,227	17,324	25,722	26,160	15,556	13,368	16,427
Countries of destination of Norwegian emigrants:—										
United States - - - - -	28,788	22,164	14,755	13,970	15,116	20,706	21,348	12,597	10,898	13,249
Canada - - - - -	—	3	5	2	7	21	79	19	51	79
Australia - - - - -	10	—	14	9	35	12	13	17	21	5
Other countries - - - - -	6	—	2	—	—	2	12	9	21	8

DENMARK.

(Year ended 31st of December.)

	1880.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Emigrants (Danish):—								
Males - - - - -	3,552	2,411	3,819	5,451	5,336	5,448	6,071	6,105
Females - - - - -	2,103	1,929	2,429	3,337	3,311	3,505	4,214	4,351
Not known - - - - -	3	6	15	13	12	14	13	26
Total - - - - -	5,658	4,346	6,263	8,801	8,659	8,967	10,298	10,382
Countries of destination:—								
Canada - - - - -	145	45	68	190	214	157	365	326
United States - - - - -	5,476	4,211	5,558	8,184	8,269	8,271	9,524	9,781
Central and South America - - - - -	9	21	565	371	119	423	315	179
Australia - - - - -	28	66	65	56	48	107	87	73
Other countries - - - - -	—	3	7	—	9	9	7	23
Total - - - - -	5,658	4,346	6,263	8,801	8,659	8,967	10,298	10,382

The causes of the increasingly large emigration are to be sought, firstly, in the poverty of the soil of Scandinavia, which renders it incapable of supporting a large increase of inhabitants. Again, the Scandinavian peasant knows that his native land affords him little opportunity of improving his position. With hard work and frugal living, he may succeed in handing on his patrimony undiminished, but he can have little hope of adding to or improving it. The political disabilities of a large class of Norwegian peasants, the law of succession (*Aftænderet*), and the fact that Norwegians are accustomed to a seafaring life, are all causes which tend to make emigration particularly large in Norway. The somewhat depressing character of the circumstances under which the Scandinavian peasant labours prevent him from exerting himself to the utmost while he remains on his native soil. When, however, he is transplanted to countries where his labour is sure of reward, his energy and enterprise are doubled. No objection is made in the United States to Scandinavian emigrants, provided that they have some means of subsistence on their arrival; on the contrary, the Superintendent of Immigration states that their labour has been of great value in developing the resources of the country, both in New England and the North-western States.

The development of industry and of the means of communication has caused a great increase in the internal migration of Scandinavian countries. In 1860 only 7 per cent. of the native inhabitants of Sweden lived outside their native county (*län*) as compared with 11·1 per cent. who did so in 1880. The migration from country to town, which is so noticeable a feature in the population statistics of the present day, is no less striking in Sweden than elsewhere. Between 1870 and 1890 the loss due to home and international migration throughout Sweden amounted to 138,754 souls while the towns actually registered a gain of 100,875 souls. The districts to which migration is

now directed are (1) the maritime region from the Sound to the Norwegian border, including Göteborg; (2) the capital and certain counties (*län*) to the north-west (3) of it; the five northern counties.

The total population of Sweden at the end of 1880 included the following elements:—

	No.	Per cent. of the Whole Population.
Persons living in the parish where they were born	3,642,514	75·92
Persons living in the county ( <i>län</i> ) where they were born	4,035,352	88·54
Natives of Sweden	4,538,040	99·69
Foreigners	18,532	0·41
Origin unknown	8,040	—
	4,564,612	100·00

Migration within Norway has yielded the largest profits to the two cities of Christiania and Bergen, and next to these rank the two northern districts of Tromsø and Finnmark, which owe their position mainly to an inflow of migrants from the neighbouring districts of Sweden and Finland. The greatest loss was suffered by Christiansamt, a district shut off from the sea, and having no contact with foreign countries.

In Denmark migration takes place chiefly between the country and the towns. The influx to Copenhagen is particularly strong, and makes it, relatively to the size of the nation, the largest capital in the world. The population of Copenhagen in 1890 was 312,859 persons, comprising the following nationalities:— Natives of Denmark, 287,277; of Danish possessions, 874; of Norway, 1,784; of Sweden, 12,872; of Schleswig, 3,444; of Holstein, Lauenburg, and other parts

of Germany, 4,146; of other foreign countries, 1,233; persons whose place of birth was not stated, 1,225.

No hostility is shown to foreign workmen in any part of Scandinavia; but the laws of Denmark enable the Minister of the Interior to expel any foreigner who has been out of employment for six weeks. Foreigners in search of employment must report themselves to the nearest director of police, who examines their papers of legitimation, and if he thinks it probable that an applicant will succeed in finding work, he gives him a document called an "opholdsbog," which authorises his stay in the country. If he fails to find employment within eight days after having first reported himself, he must report himself again at the end of another week, and if he is without means of subsistence, he is expelled from the country. If at any time he has been out of work for six weeks, he can be sent out of the country, unless he can show that he has supported himself in the meantime by lawful means. These restrictions cease only when the foreigner, by a continuous residence of five years in one commune, has acquired the right to poor relief. In addition to the powers conferred by these general provisions, the Minister of Justice may expel any foreigner who has not become a naturalised citizen and has not acquired the right to parish relief, if he has not resided in the country for two full years, whenever his conduct gives cause for such a measure. This law has been chiefly applied for the purpose of getting rid of foreign socialists and agitators. In 1889 a shoemaker of Swedish birth, who was out on strike, was expelled, on the ground that he had been six weeks without employment. The case of the British organiser of the Scandinavian Seamen's Union, who was prohibited from re-entering Danish territory, is alluded to below (see p. 46).<sup>(1)</sup>

## 2. Deferred Payment and Insurance.

The sick benefit societies of Scandinavia are an institution dating from mediæval times when every guild had its journeymen's chest (*Svendeløder* or *Brøderskaber*), to which all the journeymen were obliged to contribute. Freedom of industry was not proclaimed in Sweden till 1846, in Denmark not till 1857, and in Norway not till 1866, but as early as 1839 the formation of new guilds was prohibited in Norway, and in both Norway and Sweden the decay of the guild system went on rapidly between the years 1850 and 1870. During this period the majority of guild funds were transformed into voluntary and independent benefit societies, whose rules were to conform to the principles of the newly proclaimed industrial freedom. In Norway and Sweden this seems to have been accomplished without much difficulty, though faults of organisation probably account for the fact that very few of the benefit societies existing at the present time were founded before the dissolution of the guilds. In Copenhagen, however, the rules of the guild funds were incorporated without any alteration in the rules of the new sick benefit societies. The anomalies thus produced called for immediate interference on the part of the Government, and in 1861 a commission was appointed to draw up uniform rules, which should serve as a pattern for particular societies.<sup>(2)</sup>

It must, however, be remembered that though the sick funds of the capital trace back their origin to the trade guilds, the country societies have no such historic basis. They have all sprung up within the last 30 years, and in spite of faults of organisation, manifest all the vigour of a new institution.

The latest statistics on the present position of sick benefit societies in the three countries are those collected by the Labour Commissions appointed in 1884 and 1885.

The returns published by the Swedish commission are confined to the societies which were in existence at the end of 1884. The total number of sick and pension funds then existing was 1,452, but as 369 of these made no returns the number as to which information is available is reduced to 1,083, of which 1,049 are sick and burial funds, whilst the remaining 34 are pension funds.

The 1,049 societies have a total membership of 138,726 persons; 870 societies, comprising 114,270

(1) Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Vol. LIII, Part II, pp. 265-7. Foreign Reports of the Royal Commission on Labour, Vol. II., pp. 179-82. Foreign Office Reports, Miscellaneous Series, 1892, No. 227. Report of Mr. H. G. Macdonell from Copenhagen, 1891, No. 34, Commercial.

(2) Arbetsförsäkringskomitens Betänkande (Sweden), I. 4. Sjuk-kassor, pp. 21, 31. Arbeiderskommissionens Indstilling, II. (Norway), p. 11. Cordt Trap. Ubemidledes Alderdomsorsørgelse, pp. 214-18. Kornrup. Sygekasse-Spørgsmaalets Behandling i Danmark siden, 1861, pp. 5, 87.

members give both sick and funeral benefit; 86, with 6,666 members, give sick benefit only, whilst 93 societies, with 17,790 members, confine themselves to the one object of providing funeral benefit. About one-third (318) of these funds were connected with factories, another third (312) 419 were confined to certain localities or classes of persons, whilst the rest (419) were free and open. The number of persons belonging to benefit societies form a very small proportion of the whole population. In 1884 only 4.4 per cent. of the male population were insured against sickness, whilst the percentage of persons in the more popular burial funds was not more than 4.7. Of the whole female population only 1 per cent. were members of sick benefit societies, and 1.1 per cent. of burial funds. The benefits paid reached a relatively high figure. In 1884 the total sum paid to the male members as sick benefit was 534,016 kr., or 7 kr. 24 öre per man, whilst 113,905 kr., or 5 kr. 70 öre per head, was paid to women.

The funeral benefit paid to men was 100,363 kr., and to women 37,688 kr. The average sum received by men was 73 kr. 4 öre, that received by women was 61 kr. 38 öre.<sup>(1)</sup>

The report of the Norwegian Labour Commission on sick insurance, published in 1890, states that the number of sick benefit societies now existing in the country cannot be accurately ascertained. The probable number, however, according to the Commission's report, is between 220 and 240, with between 37,000 and 38,000 members. M. Millet, who probably had access to more recent information, estimated the number of sick funds existing in 1890 as 250, with about 40,000 members.<sup>(2)</sup>

Returns were made to the Commission by 175 societies, which had, at the end of 1885, a membership of 26,963 persons; 129 societies, with 21,735 members, gave both sick and funeral benefit. Of the rest, 29 societies, with 2,450 members, gave sick benefit only, and 13, with 2,778 members, gave nothing but funeral benefit.<sup>(3)</sup>

The kind of relief given under the name of sick benefit, however, differed widely in different cases; in 69 societies it included a money payment, free medicine and medical attendance, whilst the other societies gave one or two of these benefits, but never all three.

The report classifies the societies as free and compulsory. To the first class belong those which were founded by the voluntary action of the members, and which are very frequently connected with workmen's societies or trades unions. The relationship in which benefit funds stand to the unions with which they are connected may be more or less direct. In the north and west of Norway they are under the same management as the union to which they belong, and draw their supplies from the same common fund. In the south, and especially in the south-east, of the country sick funds form a sub-division of the general union, they have separate funds, and in some cases an entirely separate management. In many cases, as, for instance, at Bergen, Porsgrund, and Stavanger, the sick fund has formed the centre round which the wider union has gradually been formed.

The compulsory funds are those in connexion with particular works and factories. Fifty factory funds sent in copies of their rules to the Commission, and in 34 of these all the men were obliged to subscribe to the sick fund; in the remaining 16 the men were free to do as they liked, or were not obliged to join if they were already in some other society. Deductions from wages were made weekly in those societies, varying in amount according to the age of the subscriber.

The sick and burial fund connected with the General Workmen's Union of Christiania, for instance, has different rates of payment for members under 30 (first class), between 30 and 40 (second class), and between 40 and 50 years of age (third class).

The weekly subscriptions are as follows:—

	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.
Single women	14	15	17
Single men	17	19	20
Married men for themselves and their wives.	24	25	27

(1) Arbetsförsäkringskomitens Betänkande, I. 4. Sjuk-kassor, pp. 29-31.

(2) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 46. Arbeider kommissionens Indstilling, II., p. 11 and Appendix. (Overlagt over de norske Syke-og Begravelsekassers Virksomhed i 1885, p. 3).

(3) *Ib.*, p. 43.

(1.) Sick funds.

(1) In vedem.

(5) In Norway.

An additional subscription of 5 öre weekly is required to secure a benefit for children, and the subscription is the same whether there are one or more children. The sick benefit secured by these subscriptions is 60 öre for women and 80 öre for men for every day of sickness, but for not more than 28 days in each half year. Besides this the society gives free medical attendance to the whole family, free medicine to the man and wife, and a funeral benefit for man and wife, varying according to the length of their membership, from 20 kr. to 80 kr.

The total expenditure of the 175 societies in 1885 amounted to 269,551 kr., of this 79,684 kr. were spent in sick pay, 57,783 kr. in doctor's fees, 57,552 kr. in medicine, 37,213 kr. in funeral benefit, 11,767 in expenses of management, and 15,552 in other expenses.

The expenditure on each separate object, and the average expenditure per head, was found to vary greatly in different parts of the country. Most societies, however, spent more on medicine than on any other object; the highest expenditure per head was found in Christiania and Buskerud (some 13 or 14 kr. respectively), while the lowest (about 10½ kr.) was at Smaalenene.<sup>(1)</sup>

) In Denmark.

In Denmark again, as in Norway and Sweden, the most complete information obtainable as to sick funds is that collected by the Labour Commission and published by them in 1887. This information was obtained partly through the Statistical Bureau, and partly through the special investigations made by the Commission.

The task (*hvad man ønskede at erfare*) of the Commission was threefold, it wished to ascertain firstly what class of people were insured in sick funds, secondly what was their age and sex, whether they were married or single, and thirdly at what age the members entered the societies.

The result of these investigations showed that the total number of sick and burial societies throughout the kingdom was 986, from 75 of which no returns were obtainable. The remaining 911 societies included 97,000 members, but as many of these were married men, whose subscriptions covered their families, the total number of insured persons reached 117,980.

Out of the 97,000 paying members 69,594 were men and 27,406 women, the number of married women insured by their husbands was 19,876, and the number of children insured by their fathers was 1,104. The sick funds belonging to the Jutland and Funen State Railway, and to the unions known as "*De danske Vaabenbrødre*" the "*Forsvarsbrødre*" and the "Odd Fellows," were not included in the above numbers. If however, these are counted, the total number of insured persons reaches at least 164,000, or one in 13 of the whole population. The same proportion is found in Switzerland, so that Denmark and Switzerland stand higher in this respect than any other country in Europe except England, where the proportion is one in three.<sup>(2)</sup> About two-thirds of all the societies throughout the country give both sick and funeral benefit, whilst one-third gives sick benefit only.

The sick benefit in the great majority of cases consists of money payment only, about half of the societies give free medical attendance but only some two-fifths provide medicine.

The Commission's inquiries as to the social and economic position of the members of sick benefit societies showed that these societies were very largely composed of the poorer classes. In Copenhagen journeymen, labourers, factory operatives and other working people (*Smaakaarsfolk*), formed nine-tenths of the whole number, in the provincial towns seven-tenths of the members were working people, whilst in the country the proportion of working class members rose again to nearly nine-tenths of the whole number. For the purpose of classification peasants without land of their own, or less than one-third of an acre of land (*Jordløse Husmænd*), were regarded as belonging to the poorer classes. Taking the country as a whole 81.5 per cent. of the members of the sick funds belonged to the working classes.<sup>(3)</sup>

As regards the age of members, in Copenhagen 70.3 per cent. were under 45 years of age, in the provincial towns 60.5 per cent., whilst in the country the proportion fell to 51.3 per cent. In Copenhagen 75.4 per cent. of the male members were married and of the married members 72.5 per cent. had insured their wives; in the provincial towns 80.2 per cent. of the men were married

and of these only 30.5 per cent. had insured their wives, whilst in the country 84.3 per cent. were married men, of whom 86.5 per cent. had insured their wives.<sup>(4)</sup>

Only 819 societies sent in returns as to expenditure, for these the total expenditure in 1885 was 832,509 kr. Sick pay cost 395,270 kr., or 47.3 per cent. of the whole expenditure, doctors' fees came to 141,817 kr., or 17 per cent.; medicine to 108,377 kr., or 31.1 per cent.; and funeral benefits to 57,411 kr., or 6.9 per cent.

In Copenhagen and the provincial towns sick funds are either connected with some particular trade (*Fagsygekasser*), or business establishment (*Etablissemens sygekasser*) or are open to the general public (*Fællesskasser*). The greatest varieties of organisation are found in the trade funds; the factory funds are more uniform in kind, and generally confine themselves to the payment of a sick allowance. The general funds possess the largest number of members and are not restricted to any trade or locality. In the country, where the population is not large enough to require the formation of general funds, or to furnish a sufficient number of members for trade funds, sick benefit societies are organised on a strictly local basis and confined to particular parishes and communes.<sup>(5)</sup>

These societies are either "recognised" or "unrecognised" according to whether their rules are based on the model rules (*Normalvedtægt*) drawn up by the Commission of 1861. The "recognised" societies have the right to send their members for treatment to public hospitals at reduced rates; the men who have been members for three years are entitled to free medical assistance for their families.

The general result of the inquiry into the constitution and working of sick funds proved that such societies are a growing and flourishing institution in Denmark. Between 1870 and 1885 the number of societies had increased from 487 to 986, and this increase has taken place chiefly in the country districts where sick funds have hitherto been few in number. But, besides the increase in the number and usefulness of the societies, the Commission found that in the majority of cases this increase was due to the voluntary and unaided action of the people. The Danish sick funds are an entirely popular and democratic institution; they are founded, supported, and managed by the people and for the people with the very minimum of external help.<sup>(6)</sup> In spite, however, of these generally favourable results, many defects may be found in the sick fund system of Denmark; and these faults are repeated still more strongly in the similar societies of Norway and Sweden. A tendency to multiply the number of small and mutually independent societies has characterised the voluntary system throughout Scandinavia. In Sweden, out of the total 1,049 societies, 307 had fewer than 50 members each, and in 357 societies the number of members varied between 50 and 100. In Norway 40 societies out of 175 had a membership of less than 50 persons. In Denmark 247 out of 910 societies, or more than a quarter of the whole number, had less than 50 members; while the average number for the whole country was only 92. Societies with so small a number of members are often obliged to raise the rate of contribution as the members advance in age; or, if this is impossible, bankruptcy becomes inevitable.<sup>(7)</sup>

A second blemish in the organisation of sick funds, as now existing, is that when a member is obliged, through change of occupation or residence, to leave one society and enter another, he must pay a higher entrance fee on account of his increased age, or he may even be refused admittance because of some recently-contracted disease or infirmity. This fault is especially characteristic of factory funds; out of the 34 factory funds in Norway only 12 allow members to keep up their connexion with the fund after leaving the factory.<sup>(8)</sup>

A large number of funds in all three countries make no difference in the amount either of their entrance fee or subscription whatever may be the age of the member. Members are generally admitted up to the age of 45 or 50 years, and the majority of societies are therefore burdened with a disproportionate number of middle-aged members. Among other causes which have contributed

(1) *Id.*, pp. 33, 53, 63.

(2) *Id.*, pp. 109-129. Kornerup. Sygekasse-Spørgemalets Behandling i Danmark siden 1861, p. 57.

(3) *De Danske Sygekasser*, p. 143.

(4) Norway. Arbeider-Kommissionens Indstilling II., Appendix, p. 4. Denmark. Kommissions Beretning, p. 47.

(5) Sweden. Arbetsreformskommittens Beträktande, I. 4. Sjuk-kassor, p. 32. Norway. Arbeiderkommissionens Indstilling, II., Appendix Tables I.-XIII. Denmark. *De Danske Sygekasser*, pp. 29-30. Kommissions Beretning, p. 2.

(1) *Id.*, pp. 6, 14, 48.

(2) *De Danske Sygekasser*, pp. 7-18.

(3) *Id.*, pp. 37, 37, 70-74, 108, 130.

to undermine the constitution of sick funds may be mentioned the unsafe manner in which the funds are sometimes invested, and the union of various kinds of insurance in one small society.<sup>(1)</sup>

The existence of these numerous drawbacks induced the Labour Commissions in Norway and Denmark to propose draft bills for the compulsory insurance of the working classes against sickness. Compulsory insurance was not in any case to endanger the existence of the voluntary societies, but only to place them on a safer basis. In Denmark a special Bill was drawn up for the granting of State recognition to such funds as fulfil the requirements of the law. This Bill became law in April 1892, and by its provisions recognition is now granted to all societies which consist of not fewer than 50 members and which are connected with some particular trade or locality. Only poor (*ubemidlede*) persons can be members of these societies. The benefit given consists of free medical attendance and sick pay, which may not be less than 40 öre a day, or more than two-thirds of the daily wage earned by the applicant. Members must belong to the society for six weeks before they can receive any benefit. No benefit is given for illnesses lasting less than three days or for more than thirteen weeks in one year. The State gives an annual subsidy of half a million kroner to these societies, which is distributed to the local branches in proportion to the number of their members. An inspector is appointed by the State to superintend the societies and control their accounts.<sup>(2)</sup>

A Bill for the introduction of compulsory sick insurance, modelled on the recommendations of the Labour Commission, was presented to the Minister of the Interior in 1888, but with no result, and the Poor Law of 1891, which has superseded it, is regarded by many as a reactionary movement (*see p. 20*)<sup>(3)</sup>.

In Norway also compulsory insurance was considered the best way of meeting the numerous difficulties inseparable from the voluntary system. The Bill drawn up by the Labour Commission was never passed, but it is of interest because it forms the basis of the Bill for compulsory sick insurance presented to the *Storting* on the 6th of April of the present year (1893). The class of persons dealt with in both Bills is the same, namely all regularly employed workmen whose yearly earnings amount to less than 1,200 kr. Men employed in agriculture, forestry, fishing and cognate occupations are excepted. Both Bills propose to establish a Central State Fund with local branches, to which all persons who come within the terms of the law must pay a subscription of 10 öre weekly for every krone which they wish to secure as benefit. (The later Bill gives a maximum as well as a minimum limit and fixes the contribution at from 10 to 25 öre.)

In return members will be entitled to receive sick pay from the fund to the amount of half the daily wage and for not longer than thirteen weeks in any one year. The local branches are to be established on a basis of mutuality, in order that workmen who remove from one locality to another may not be placed at a disadvantage in entering a new insurance branch. Only persons with an income of less than 1,200 kr. a year are obliged to insure against sickness, but the State fund also admits voluntary members whose annual income must not exceed 2,000 kr.; in no case, however, can the benefit paid exceed one-half of the daily wage, which is reckoned as  $\frac{1}{300}$ th of an annual income of 1,200 kr.

Provision is made in the proposed law for the recognition of all private sick funds whose rules are approved by the Government<sup>(4)</sup>. If this Bill becomes law Norway will, in this respect, have surpassed Sweden, for the Swedish Labour Commission did not attempt to introduce any scheme of compulsory insurance. The question of sick insurance was not, indeed, one which the Commission was especially invited to consider, but investigations into the condition of existing funds discovered so much that was unsatisfactory that the Commission was induced to draft a law for the better control of sick benefit societies. This Bill proposed that all sick funds should be either "registered" or "recognised" by the State, and that registration and recognition should be withheld from those whose rules or accounts were found to be unsatisfactory. No

further action was, however, taken by the Government and the project was abandoned<sup>(5)</sup>. A fresh Bill was then brought forward which succeeded in passing through the Riksdag in 1891. The bill aims at securing a State subsidy for all friendly and sick benefit societies which give assistance to the sick, but before pecuniary aid is afforded by the State to any benefit society, its income from private sources must amount to at least three times as much as the subsidy claimed. It is proposed to grant 1 kr. per member from State resources to every society with less than 50 members. Societies whose membership does not exceed 250 are to receive 1 kr. per member for the first 50 members, and 50 öre per member for the number in excess of 50; societies numbering more than 250 members are to receive 25 öre per head, but no one society can be entitled to more than 300 kr. of State aid.<sup>(6)</sup>

The question of providing pensions for the aged is not of entirely recent date in Sweden. Many of the guilds and corporations, especially the guilds of miners and metal workers, set aside a part of their funds for the relief of aged members. When these bodies were abolished by the declaration of the freedom of industry in 1846 various attempts were made to fill their place. A seamen's insurance institution (*Handelsflottans pensionsanstalt*) was founded, which in 1884 paid more than 100,000 kr. a year in pensions to seamen and seamen's widows and orphans. Pensions for the police were not started till 1854, but at the present time the police are better cared for in old age than any other branch of the communal service. In the year 1884-5 the total number of persons entitled to pensions reached 47,478, of whom 7,824 were members of the civil service. The sum annually paid in pensions amounted to some 1,351,864 kr., of which sum 1,208,795 kr. were defrayed by State subventions. Since 1850 fourteen life insurance and annuity societies have been established in various parts of the country, the members of which naturally belong chiefly to the middle classes. The investigations made by the Labour Commission in 1885 showed conclusively that the above institutions all failed to reach the great mass of the working classes, who had nothing to hope for in old age but poor law assistance.

In the year 1885 the number of persons between the ages of 20 and 25 years who were in receipt of full poor law assistance was only 1.5 per 1,000 of the population, whereas there were 19.3 per 1,000 in receipt of assistance between the ages of 60 and 65, 32.9 per 1,000 between 65 and 70, and 60.9 per thousand between the ages of 70 and 75 years, while out of the whole population over 60 years of age 49.8 per thousand were paupers. These figures prove that, while the working classes have health and strength, they are able to maintain their independence; but that, when old age sets in, they have no savings to fall back upon, and immediately become a burden to the community. With these figures before them the Labour Commission drafted a Bill for establishing a state pension insurance scheme, compulsory upon the whole nation, and managed with strict regard to the principle of self-help. All persons were to pay a weekly premium of 25 öre and upwards between their 18th and 28th years; to this the State was to give a temporary subvention, and the amount of the pension thus secured was to be 72 kr. a year to be paid to all persons who had reached their 60th year.

Many objections were urged against this Bill. In the first place the pension was so small as to be almost useless, secondly, no provision was made for persons who became incapacitated before reaching the age of 60, and thirdly, as the communes were to pay the premiums for those who could not pay for themselves, the burden placed upon them would have been intolerable.

These unsatisfactory proposals met with the disapproval of the King, who in 1888 addressed a special mandate (*skrivelse*) to the Commission, directing it to alter the form of its Bill, and to make the State subsidy permanent and not temporary. The King expected that the permanent State subsidy would be used to increase the amount of the proposed pension<sup>(7)</sup>, but on the contrary, no essential change was made in the principles of the Bill;

(1) De Danske Sygekasser, p. 166.

(2) Denmark. Kommissions Betænkning, pp. 52-2. Sozial Politisches Centralblatt, I., p. 413. Braun. Archiv für Sociale Gesetzgebung und Statistik, Vol. III., p. 354.

(3) Article on "Statens Stilling til ubemidlede Alderdomsforørgelse," in the "Nationaløkonomisk Tidsskrift," p. 15.

(4) Arbejderkommissionens Indstilling, II., pp. 1-2. Labour Gazette, May 1893, p. 22.

(5) Arbetsreformeringskomitens Betænkning, I., 4. Sygekasser, pp. 9, 4. Social reformen i de nordiske Lande, I., Sverige, p. 2.

(6) Foreign Office Reports, 1891, No. 22, Commercial, p. 52.

(7) "Kongen ganske sikkert havde ventet at Tilsvaret om Statshjælp skulde have bevirket en Forhøjelse af den foreslåede lave Lavrente." (Sætryk af "For Industri og Haandværk.")

(2.) Pe  
funds.  
(a.) I  
Sweden

pension holders were still to bear the whole expense of the premium, and the State subsidy was to be turned to account in paying for those who could not pay for themselves. The second Bill proved no more satisfactory than the first, it never came before the Riksdag, and the matter was finally handed over in 1891 to a new Labour Commission, whose special task was to be the preparation of general insurance (*allmindelig Invaliditet-försäkring*) and sick fund laws. As a result of this Commission a new Bill was laid before the Riksdag in April of the present year (1893).

The new Bill differs from all previous schemes in the comprehensiveness of its aims. Its object is to insure workmen against invalidity from whatever source it arises, and thus the Bill embraces accident, old age, and invalidity insurance, while it also grants pensions to widows and orphans. Insurance is to be compulsory upon all factory operatives, journeymen, apprentices, domestic servants, agricultural labourers and persons employed on Swedish vessels. Shop assistants, foremen, inspectors and captains of ships, are also to be insured if their yearly earnings amount to less than 1,800 kr. All the persons above mentioned must have permanent work, i.e., they must have been in the service of one and the same employer for at least a week. Casual day labourers are outside the scope of the law. No person can be insured who is under 18 or over 55 years of age. Invalidity or being over 70 years of age constitutes the claim to a pension. Invalidity does not necessarily imply total disablement from work of any kind, but only such a degree of incapacity as prevents a man from earning his own livelihood. A man in receipt of a pension may work for wages provided that the sum he is able to earn is less than what is necessary for his support. The shortest period of subscription to the fund which can entitle a person to a pension is five years. Exceptions are made, however, in favour of men who are incapacitated by accident before the five years have elapsed.

Widows and orphans receive pensions on exactly the same ground as men, that is, when they are incapacitated from following their occupation. Widows with children under 15 years of age, and who are therefore obliged to devote part of their powers to the maintenance of their children, are entitled to pensions for each child under this age.

Insurance holders are to be divided into three classes according to their occupations; the premiums payable, and the pensions to be received, are also graduated for each of these classes.

The first class includes all men who earn 10, or upwards of 10 kr. a week, or have a yearly income of at least 500 kr. In the second class are placed men whose weekly earnings are less than 10 kr.; these are chiefly agricultural labourers and others who are paid largely in kind. The third class is reserved for women. The weekly subscription for the first class is to be fixed at 50 öre a week, at 30 öre for the second class, and at 20 öre for the third class, of which half is in each case to be paid by the employer and half by the employed.

Pensions are to be reckoned on the basis of 10, 5, and 2 öre for the respective classes for every week that the insured person has paid in his premiums, together with an addition of 50 kr. Thus a man who has subscribed for 40 years (reckoning a year as 50 weeks) would receive a pension of 2,000 times 10 öre, plus 50 kr., i.e., 250 kr. Second and third class pensions reckoned on the same basis would amount to 185 and 90 kr. respectively. The 50 additional kronor are to be drawn from the State subsidy which is fixed for the first years at 10,000 kr. a year. This sum is, however, to be increased from time to time, so that after the fund has been established for 18 years it may amount to 1,000,000 kr., after 30 years to 3,000,000 kr., and after 80 years to 7,750,000 kr., at which sum it is to remain.

Provision has been made for persons who pass out of the class of employed into that of employers in order to prevent their losing the money which they have invested in the purchase of a pension during their earlier years. Thus, for example, a journeyman who begins to subscribe on reaching his 18th year, and at 30 becomes an employer, will receive a pension of 112 kr. when he reaches the age of 70 or becomes incapacitated<sup>(1)</sup>.

Herr Cordt Trap, in commenting on this bill, points out, that in accordance with the recommendations of the International Accident Insurance Congress held at Berne in 1891, the authors of the project have united accident, invalidity, and old age insurance in one scheme. The cost of this joint insurance is estimated at about the same as that for old age insurance only, if pensions were granted to persons who had reached their 60th year. Under the proposed scheme which defers pensions to the 70th, it is estimated that one-fourth of those who receive pensions will already be in receipt of invalid pay, whilst under a pension scheme beginning at 60, two-thirds of the pensioners would be still able to work. The German insurance laws which make employers chargeable with the premiums of accident insurance whilst other premiums are divided between employers, employed, and the State, have been productive of constant strife, because the workmen are always anxious to represent all kinds of invalidity as the result of accidents, whilst employers have exactly the opposite tendency. The union of all invalidity insurance in one scheme will, it is maintained, do away with this source of strife. The limitation of insurance to the working classes is justified on the ground of economy, as it is estimated that a scheme of national insurance would cost about three times as much, and that without securing a more solid advantage. That no great benefit would ensue from the extension of insurance to the other classes of society appears from the fact that investigations into the working of the poor law administration in 1884 proved that the proportion of paupers recruited from the working and servant classes was from eight to ten times larger than that contributed by any other class. One point at which the new Bill seems open to objection is that it makes the payment of premiums compulsory for the whole of a man's working career, instead of confining it, as in the earlier Bill, to the period between the 18th and 28th years. "It is doubtful," says Herr Trap, "whether such a demand can be satisfied without forcing the working classes to lower their standard of living"<sup>(1)</sup>.

No measures have yet been adopted for the establishment of old age pensions in Norway.

(b.) In Norway.

The questions of sick and old age insurance have always been considered in close connexion with one another by the Danish Legislature. Ever since 1861 the subject has been constantly debated in Parliament, three commissions have been appointed to consider it, and numbers of bills have been drafted. Both questions are now settled, the first by the Act on the recognition of sick funds, the second by the new Poor Law of 9 April, 1891, and its supplementary law on support for the aged poor. These last-mentioned laws are, however, considered by many to be founded on a wrong principle, and they certainly present a startling contrast to the principles and opinions expressed in the legislative proposals of the last ten years. In earlier insurance schemes the principle of self-help met with the fullest recognition, but step by step it has been abandoned, until in the present law, a premium is actually placed upon destitution. It may not be without interest to trace the steps which have brought the Danish Government to its present position. In 1882 a committee, appointed by the Government, recommended the establishment of a State pension fund which should be open to all. The expenses of administration were to be paid by the State, but no State subsidy was guaranteed. In the following year a Government Bill was brought in by the Minister of Finance, by which it was proposed to establish a State pension fund institution open to all classes alike, and which was especially designed to assist persons who had secured a small capital by means of their own thrift.

(c.) In Denmark.

It was in this Bill, however, that a definite proposal of State help was made for the first time. The State subsidy was to be fixed at 2,000,000 kr., forming a fund out of which premiums could be paid up to 300 kr. But as it was doubtful whether workmen would be able to pay the rest of the premiums, the principle of a general fund, open to all, was abandoned, and the Bill then brought in undertook to provide pensions for the poorer classes only. The task of deciding who was sufficiently poor to receive the pension was to be entrusted to the

(1) Det Nya Arbetareförsäkringsföreläggat.

(1) Nationalökonomisk Tidskrift, 1893, pp. 468-504.

directors of the fund, and would necessarily have involved minute investigation into the circumstances of the applicant. After the failure of this Bill the matter was allowed to rest until attention was again directed to the subject by the German insurance legislation of 1887.

The Social Democratic Federation then came forward with proposals to show that the State must bear the whole burden of any pension scheme which was to be of real benefit to the working classes. Wages, they urged, were too low to allow even the most prosperous artisans to make provision for their old age, and they therefore claimed for every workman the right to State support when his working days were over.

Several private Bills followed, drawn up by MM. Rubin, M. Neergaard, Ludvig Bramsen, and others, in all of which the State was to do much and the individual little.

The next attempt to deal with the question on the part of the Government showed a wide departure from their previous position. The law of 1891 is a poor law, not a pension law, and in its final form it has rejected every vestige of the principle of self-help on the part of the recipients of relief.<sup>(1)</sup> The Poor Law of 9th April 1891 is supplemented by a law for the relief in old age of the deserving poor, which frees the persons to whom relief is given from the civil disabilities connected with relief granted under the ordinary Poor Law administration. Relief is granted under certain conditions by this law to any person over 60 years of age who is unable to provide himself, and those dependent on him, with the necessities of life, or with proper treatment in case of sickness.

These conditions are that the applicant must not have undergone sentence for any dishonourable transaction; that his poverty must not be caused by his own fault, either by extravagant living or by undue provision for his children; that he has resided in the country for ten years previously to applying for old age relief, and that during that period he has not received poor relief or been found guilty of begging and vagrancy.

The relief granted (section 5) must be sufficient for the support of the person relieved, and may be given in money or kind as circumstances require. One-half of the costs of relief is to be borne by the communes, whilst the other half is to be defrayed by a State subsidy, which is not to exceed 2,000,000 kroner a year. Applications for relief are to be made to the magistrates in Copenhagen, and, outside Copenhagen, to the communal authorities, who decide as to the merit of the applicant's claim. This law did not come into force in all its details until January 1st, 1892, so that it is still too soon to judge as to the effect of its working, but certain objections have already been urged against both the principle and the provisions of the Bill.

The first and chief objection is that applicants for relief must be destitute, and thus all attempts at thrift and self-help are discouraged, and both applicants and officials are wearied and annoyed with the minute inquiries necessary to substantiate the claim. Again, in fixing the age at which the right to assistance shall begin, the law has placed persons between 50 and 60 in a position of peculiar difficulty. They have no claim to relief under the old age assistance law, and if they seek ordinary Poor Law relief they disqualify themselves from ever receiving such assistance.

Thirdly, it is impossible to say what interpretation may be given to the words "sufficient support," but it is evident that such an indefinite statement affords wide scope for differences of opinion.

As regards the effect of the law it may fairly be anticipated that although old age assistance is now carefully distinguished from poor relief, yet in course of time it will be impossible to separate the two. The communes, which are obliged to bear the expenses of their own poor relief, but are entitled to State help in paying old age assistance, will tend to give as much relief as possible in the latter form until the distinction between the two is practically obliterated.<sup>(2)</sup>

(1) Trap. Om Statens Stilling til Ubedragedes Alderdomsforsørgelse, pp. 244-70; Article on the above in the Nationaløkonomisk Tidsskrift, p. 14; Et Alvorsord til Arbejderne af en Arbejdsven, pp. 39-54. Knudsen. Sygdeforsikring og Alderdomsforsørgelse, pp. 284-97.  
(2) In the first Bill assistance was made conditional on the applicant's having been a member of a sick fund for five years previously.  
(3) Krieger. Lov af 9 April 1891 om det offentlige Fattigvæsen samt Lov om Alderdomsunderstøttelse, pp. 165-94.  
Trap. Om Statens Stilling til Ubedragedes Alderdomsforsørgelse, pp. 268-83. Foreign Office Reports, 1891, No. 22, Commercial, pp. 13-19.

### 3. Co-operation, Profit-Sharing and Industrial Partnership.

Industrial co-operative societies, whether productive or distributive, have not attained to much importance in any part of Scandinavia. In Sweden, the distributive societies, on which great hopes were founded, are now in a state of decay, and appear likely to perish altogether. In Norway and Denmark a few such societies exist, but they are not of sufficient importance to call for special comment.

Norway and Denmark also have co-operative loan banks which enable the small agriculturalist to buy expensive machinery.<sup>(1)</sup>

The most important development of the co-operative principle is to be found in the recently established co-operative dairies of Denmark.

Some 200 dairies of this kind now exist which treat the milk of from 5,000 to 6,000 cows daily.

The co-operative dairy is established by means of a loan for which all the members give security in proportion to the number of cows which they possess. The milk is collected daily, at the cost of the dairy, from each supplier, who is obliged to furnish all that he can spare. The milk, which must be absolutely pure and unadulterated, is paid for according to the amount of butter it contains. The rules of the society contain directions for winter feeding, but changes can be introduced by the order of the directors. The directors are practical farmers who take the greatest pains to turn out good and pure butter. The system of paying for the milk according to the quantity of butter contained in it was first introduced in 1886, and has proved an excellent means of improving the quality of the milk. The utmost care is also taken to inspect the milk brought to the central dairy, and if it has the slightest taint, or if any of the required qualities are lacking, it is rejected, and an inspector is sent to the farm to discover where the fault lies. Mr. John Andrew, the manager of the Co-operative Wholesale Societies of England and Scotland, visited the butter shows which were held at Copenhagen in 1888, and stated most emphatically that, not only was the butter of Denmark absolutely free from adulteration, but that the manufacture of margarine for exportation was so small that no trustworthy information could be obtained concerning it.

The excellence of Danish butter, of course, demands great experience and ability on the part of those who manipulate it, and considerable difficulty is often found in getting persons with the requisite skill. Many of the younger dairy hands acknowledge their deficiencies, and endeavour to supply them by means of technical education.<sup>(2)</sup> (cf. p. 37.)

M. Lavollée mentions two instances of successful profit-sharing in Scandinavia, one is that of M. Waring-saasen, a Norwegian iron-master, the other, that of Hornung and Möller, pianoforte makers of Copenhagen. The sum of two rixdalers (4s. 6d.) is reserved for the benefit of the workmen on every piano that leaves the premises. The system has been in operation since 1850, and in 1871 the reserve fund amounted to 20,000 fr. Loans are made from this fund to workmen who have been 10 years in the service of the firm, and relief is given to injured workmen, or in case of death to their widows.<sup>(3)</sup> M. Sidenbladh states that profit-sharing has now been introduced in five establishments in Sweden.

## II. HOURS.

### Hours and Limitation of Hours, including the Eight Hours' Day.

The life of the Swedish workman has been described as a ceaseless round of toil, broken only by the shortest intervals of necessary sleep, and this gloomy description seems to be fully borne out by the facts collected by the Labour Commission.<sup>(4)</sup> During the year 1885-6 the Commission received information as to the duration of the working day from 1,627 establishments, employing 81,881 men, and from 669 other establishments, which did not mention the number of persons employed. The total number of hours worked per week by the former

(1) Lavollée. Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II., pp. 410, 432, 446. Les Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 48, 140. Les Conditions du Travail en Danemark, p. 68.

(2) Foreign Office Reports, Miscellaneous Series, 1896, No. 101.

(3) Lavollée. Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II., pp. 431, 447.

(4) Kjellberg. Ett ögenkast på Fackförenings Frågan i Sverige, p. 6.

Co-operation, in trial.

class of establishments was 5,437,472 or 66.4 hours per man per week, or 11.1 hours a day, whilst in the latter class the number of hours per day rose to 11.3.

These hours do not include intervals for meals, which, however, do not occupy more than from one to two hours a day. If the time necessary for going to and from work be added to this, the number of hours virtually spent in work reaches 13½ or 14 per day. The lowest limit of the net working day is nine hours, whilst in some cases it exceeds twelve hours. The establishments making returns may be classified according to the number of hours worked, as follows:—

Hours.	Establishments.	Number of employed.
Less than nine hours	14	475
From 9 to 10 hours	78	5,489
From 10 to 11 hours	888	22,708
From 11 to 12 hours	484	27,469
Twelve hours	509	23,359
More than twelve	159	2,438
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,627</b>	<b>81,881</b>

A net working day of less than nine hours is thus an exceptional case, while over 65 per cent. of the whole number of employed work 11 hours a day and upwards. The longest hours, namely more than 12, are worked in breweries, bakeries, preserved meat factories and laundries.

The most recent information on this subject was obtained incidentally in the course of an inquiry made by a royal commission in 1894 into another, but cognate, subject. The committee ascertained the hours of work of 94,290 persons (76,669 men and 17,621 women) over 18 years of age and employed in factories, &c. Their average hours were found to be as follows:—

	Hours of Work.	Hours of Rest.	Total.
Men	10.7	1.6	12.5
Women	10.7	1.8	12.5

Saturday, however, when the hours are generally shorter, was not taken into account in these calculations.

Out of the total number of 1,627 establishments investigated by the Commission of 1885, 905 had either regular or occasional night work. By night work is understood work done between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m., and according to this definition the number of hours worked during the night was usually from seven to eight; only one-third, or 284 out of 905 establishments, worked the whole night.

In mines and smelting works the work was so arranged that men who worked on the night shift one week changed to the day shift in the week following.

The length of the working day in mines is seldom more than nine hours, and the hours of the night shifts are somewhat shorter than those of the day shifts. The hours of above ground workers are, in all districts, longer than those of men employed underground.(1)

Swedish law forbids all factory labour on Sundays, except that which is absolutely indispensable. Further legislation would be useless, as Sunday rest is an established custom which no one thinks of disturbing.(2)

In spite, however, of the extremely long hours now prevailing in every branch of industry no serious attempt has yet been made to effect a reduction of hours. The Labour Commission, less bold than the radical members of the Norwegian Commission, considered that the question of a normal day's labour lay outside the range of practical reform. The only attempt which has been made to effect a reduction of hours by legislative means was the Bill brought before the Riksdag by M. Hedland in 1886. This Bill was a sweeping measure for the introduction of a nine hours' day, together with a fixed minimum wage and better conditions of labour, but as it was only to apply to workmen in protected industries it attracted little attention even among the working classes.(3)

At the fourth congress of the Social Democratic party held at Stockholm in June 1890, the question of a normal day's labour was the first on the agenda paper and excited more attention than any other subject. The general consensus of opinion was in favour of a ten hours' day, and a large number of delegates agreed that this object would be better obtained by trades union effort than by legislation. A resolution proposed by M. Branting, editor of the *Socialdemokrat*, to utilise the trades unions as a means of agitation, was carried unanimously.(4)

The difference between a working day of eleven or twelve and of eight hours' duration is sufficient in itself to show that all consideration of the eight hours' question must be a mere matter of theory for some time to come. Nevertheless the eight hours' movement has had a distinct influence upon labour leaders in Sweden. The effect of reduced hours in England, and of the legal limitation of hours in Austria and Switzerland, is studied with great attention, and the demand for an actual eight hours' day forms one of the principal items in the programme of the Swedish Social Democratic party.(5)

The latest accessible statistics as to the hours worked in Norway are those collected by the Labour Commission, and published in 1887. The average hours worked in all trades and industries throughout the country in 1887 were between 10 and 10½ a day. The following table shows the average length of the working day in all occupations (except agriculture) throughout the kingdom.

(1) Arbetsförsäkringskomitens Betänkande, III. 2. Statistiska Undersökningar, pp. 8-11.  
 (2) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 27.  
 (3) Erikson. Atta-Timmars-Dagen, pp. 47-50.  
 (4) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 106-7.  
 (5) Erikson. Atta-Timmars-Dagen, pp. 1-9, 22-26, and 50-1. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 172.

*Length of Working Day.*

Industries.	No. of Establishments.	No. of employed.	Length of working day exclusive of meal times.																	
			Under 9 hours.		9 hours.		9½ hours.		10 hours.		10½ hours.		11 hours.		11½ hours.		12 hours.		Over 12 hours.	
			Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.	Estab-lish-ments.	Men.
1. Mines, ice works, fisheries.	97	4,700	3	87	10	278	8	800	40	2,143	9	793	0	117	2	128	3	12	3	603
2. Factories	1,806	5,4554	30	848	46	1,068	80	8,075	404	14,977	234	5,745	254	3,938	73	1,271	110	1,109	94	440
3. Manual labour (Håndværksbedrifter).	3,040	13,273	28	83	30	185	83	531	348	1,860	618	3,774	573	2,165	224	736	315	1,007	346	1,095
<b>Total</b>	<b>4,943</b>	<b>31,617</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>618</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1,600</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>4,802</b>	<b>848</b>	<b>18,988</b>	<b>755</b>	<b>9,312</b>	<b>827</b>	<b>6,220</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>3,125</b>	<b>483</b>	<b>2,121</b>	<b>443</b>	<b>2,038</b>



In addition to the industries enumerated in this table there were 799 establishments, with 2,563 men, which had no definite number of working hours, and 206 establishments employing 1,420 men where wages were paid by the piece and the men were free to work as many hours as they liked.<sup>(1)</sup>

A large number of establishments—some 796 out of the whole number—worked shorter hours on Saturday.

**Overtime.** The Commission also issued questions to all industrial undertakings as to whether and to what extent they worked overtime. Answers were received from 4,943 establishments employing 51,617 persons, out of which 120, with a staff of 3,064 persons, replied that in their works overtime seldom took place; 1,203 establishments, with 25,350 men, replied simply that they worked overtime, but gave no details as to the duration of such work. Out of these 1,203 establishments, however, it was found that 427 gave no extra pay for overtime.

**Night work.** The Commission found that 179 out of 1,651 establishments employed 5,008 persons in regular night-work; of these 393 were young persons and 109 were children. Night-work also took place occasionally in 369 other establishments employing 1,946 persons, 118 of whom were young persons and 25 children. Brick and tile yards, breweries, distilleries, and shipbuilding yards, although they all have more or less night work are not included in the industries enumerated above, as the returns made were too incomplete to admit of classification.<sup>(2)</sup>

**Sunday work.** No returns were made as to Sunday work, but according to the provisions of a law of 1686, repeated in a law of 26 October 1770, work is forbidden from midnight on Saturday to midnight on Sunday except in cases of absolute necessity. Sunday rest in Norway is the outcome of religious rather than of humanitarian sentiment, but public feeling is as much in favour of it as ever, and the Norwegian delegate at the Berlin Conference was able to "accept without hesitation all the resolutions passed by the Conference on this subject." In industries which require that work must be carried on uninterruptedly, a few hands, generally not more than two, are employed on Sunday; in others, where a short pause is possible, work is stopped on Sunday morning and resumed at midnight.

According to the terms of the law mentioned above all work must stop at 9 p.m. on the eve of Sundays and public holidays.<sup>(3)</sup>

**Limitation of hours.** One very important recommendation made by the majority of the Norwegian Labour Commission has been rejected by the Government, the proposal, namely, to establish a legal ten hours' day, to be enforced by a committee of workmen, elected by the workers of each commune. The majority also proposed a Bill for the limitation of the hours of labour in various occupations not included in the Bill on factory labour. These were to include all workshops where persons were employed away from their own homes, warehouse labourers, and navvies employed in making railways, harbours, roads, &c. The measure which the majority urged upon the Government was founded on a resolution passed at the third meeting of Norwegian workmen held at Christiania in 1835. The greater number of the trades unions of Christiania were represented at this meeting, and the resolution was afterwards sanctioned by a large meeting of workmen at Bergen. The provisions embodied in the Bill were carried at the meetings of the Social Democratic Union in the capital and elsewhere, and were approved by the Central Committee of the Trade Unions of Christiania in January 1886.

The majority urged a reduction of hours on grounds of health and safety, and brought forward figures to prove that the death-rate among the working classes was much higher than in the middle and upper classes. The economic advantages which they hoped to secure by limitation of the hours of labour were, however, the chief grounds on which they based their proposal. They asserted that a 10 hours' day would make work more regular, and would improve the quality of the output. In support of this, they cited the experience of the Swiss factory inspectors, who, as early as 1882, stated that the greater regularity of employment caused by the introduction of the 11 hours' day had been of immense benefit to the working classes of Switzerland.<sup>(4)</sup>

Again, they urged that regular hours of work would prevent overproduction and the commercial crises, which, in consequence of over production, overwhelm the industrial world at regularly recurring intervals.

The minority stated, in answer to these arguments, that the picture of Norwegian factory life drawn by their opponents was rather too dark, and reminded them that, in framing conclusions from the high death rate of the working classes, they had forgotten to allow for the influence of drink.

Coming to the economic results upon which the majority had laid the greatest weight, they asked, how production was to be limited if shorter hours meant intenser work and consequently an undiminished output? With regard to the other supposed advantage of a normal working day, namely, that it would cause more men to be employed, they pointed out that if this were the case the wages earned by each man individually would fall. If to this it was replied that wages will not fall, but, on the contrary, will rise because the larger output, produced by the larger number of hands, will enable employers to pay higher wages, the answer is that high wages are always attended by an influx of labour, which destroys the proportion between supply and demand, and wages soon fall to their former level. If then wages do not rise, where are we to look for the increased purchasing power upon which we must rely for the consumption of the increased output? Again, to take a side-issue, if work is to be carried on the whole day in hot haste, what probability is there that its quality will improve? The minority also considered that far too much importance had been attached to the reports of the Swiss factory inspectors, as the different circumstances of the two countries made a comparison between them impossible. Moreover, the fact that the Swiss working day consisted of 11 hours, with abundant permissions for overtime, while the Norwegian day was to be limited to 10, had been altogether ignored. The opposition thus shown to the mutually conflicting arguments of the majority was confirmed when the Bill came before the *Storting*, and the new factory act places no restrictions on the working hours of adults, whether men or women.<sup>(5)</sup>

No limitation is placed by law upon the working hours of adults in Denmark. The usual hours are 12 a day with intervals of about two hours for meals. The factory inspectors, however, note a considerable difference between the hours of labour in Copenhagen and the provinces. In the capital in 1892, 89 per cent. of all the factories had a working day of ten-and-a-half hours or less, whereas in the provinces a large number of the establishments visited worked 11 hours or more. In the windmills, of which there are a considerable number in the rural districts, work is carried on for an indefinite number of hours. Permissions for overtime were granted to nine masters employing protected persons in the course of 1892, and in nine cases infractions of the law were followed by prosecutions. The fines imposed varied in amount from 10 to 20 kr.<sup>(6)</sup>

The inquiry made in 1892 by M. Marcus Rubin into the hours of labour in Copenhagen showed that, as a rule, journeymen worked ten hours a day, exclusive of meal times, labourers about a quarter of an hour longer, and women about a quarter of an hour less than ten hours. This calculation was made without regard to home work or to the short hours worked during winter in the building trades. The working day in most occupations lasted 12 hours, but variations naturally occurred on both sides of the average, it was, however, unusual to find a working day of more than 11 or less than nine hours in length. The factory inspectors' reports for 1891-2 state that out of the 521 factories and workshops subject to inspection in Copenhagen, 69 per cent. worked 12 hours a day in summer with intervals of from one-and-a-half to two hours rest; but a comparison of these figures with those of the preceding year show that even in a single year a reduction had taken place. In 1891-92 3 per cent. of the factories worked an indefinite time, 35 per cent. 10½ hours and more, 44 per cent. 10 hours, and 18 per cent. worked 9½ hours or less than this. In 1891-92 the percentage working 10½ hours was the same, but the number working 10 hours had decreased by 2, whilst those working 9½ hours or less had increased by 2.

(c.) In Denmark

(1) Arbeiderkommissionens Indstilling I., p. 55, and Appendix, p. 27.

(2) Arbeiderkommissionens Indstilling I., Appendix, pp. 50-2.

(3) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 27-8.

(4) Arbeiderkommissionens Indstilling I., pp. 40-42, Berichte über die Fabrikinspektion in der Schweiz, 1882-3, pp. 42, 100.

(5) Arbeiderkommissionens Indstilling I., pp. 30-55.

(6) Beretning om Fabrikulvnetts Virksomhed i Aaret 1891-92, pp. 1-16.

Overtime.

It may be broadly stated that overtime is not usual in Copenhagen. The greater number of the trades making returns stated that they seldom or never worked overtime; about a fifth part of the whole number had occasional overtime, but the cases in which it took place regularly were very few. Where it was frequent it was generally paid for at rates varying from 25 to 50 per cent. more than the usual wages; if continued after 10 p.m. double the usual rate was paid. These rates applied chiefly to time work; in work paid by the piece overtime was seldom taken into account.

Sunday work.

The law of April 1st 1891, provides that no work of a noisy or disturbing nature shall be done in factories between 9 a.m. and 12 p.m. on Sundays and public holidays. The Minister of the Interior can, however, make exceptions in favour of industries where work is only possible at certain seasons of the year, which depend on wind and water power, or which must, from their nature, be carried on continuously. Even in these industries the workpeople must be insured exemption from work on half of the Sundays in the year. As a general rule no factory work is done on Sundays; some factories execute necessary repairs between 6 a.m. and 9 a.m., and in a few trades, confectionery for instance, Sunday is the busiest day in the week. In trades which have occasional Sunday work extra pay is given, varying from 25 to 100 per cent. more than the usual rates of pay.

Night work.

Night work is not frequent. In the paper and printing trades 54 per cent. of the establishments under inspection work at night, in the chemical trade 10 per cent., and in food industries 13.1 per cent. (1)

Limitation of hours.

The movement in favour of reduction of the hours of labour in Denmark dates from the year of the Berlin Conference. Prior to that time the efforts of the working-classes had been mainly directed towards obtaining advances of wages; since then, however, the reduction of hours, and ultimately the introduction of the eight hours' day has played an important part in the agitation carried on by the Social Democratic party and in the programmes of labour unions generally. May-day demonstrations have for the last three years received the firm support of the working classes, and in the more recent strikes, notably those of the masons and firemen in 1890, a nine hours' day was demanded, not as a final measure, but merely as a step towards obtaining the eight hours.

The tendency to reduce the daily hours of labour, noted above, fortunately meets with the support of a large number of employers; there is, therefore, every reason to believe that the present long hours will be reduced in course of time by mutual consent. The Social Democrats are not, however, willing to wait until a reduction is brought about in this way, but have already laid a Bill for the introduction of a normal working day before the Rigsdag. The measure seems, however, to receive little support from public opinion in general, and M. Ludvig Bramsen believes that any law which prevented people from working for as long as they were willing to work, would be regarded as an intolerable interference with the liberty of the subject. The rejection by the Norwegian Government of the ten hours' day proposed by the Radical majority of the Labour Commission has also exercised considerable influence upon Denmark. The circumstances of the two countries are not dissimilar, and it is felt that the reasons which caused the Norwegian Government to reject a legal limitation of hours must apply with equal force to Denmark. (2)

### III. STATE OR MUNICIPAL PROVISION FOR THE UNEMPLOYED.

#### 1. Poor Law Administration.

(a.) In Sweden. First poor law.

It is characteristic of Sweden, where the connexion between Church and State has been more closely maintained than in any other Protestant country, that the first Poor Law should have been the Church Ordinance of 1571. The system of poor relief then established was a combination of charitable and of legal relief, administered in a very loose manner and resulting in the increase of pauperism and the decay

of independence among the peasantry. In 1809 a Royal Commission was appointed to investigate the causes of pauperism and suggest improved legislation, and their report, which was not presented till 1821, formed the foundation of the present poor law.

This law, which was passed in 1871, is more stringent than any other now in force in Europe, in that it prohibits all relief to the able-bodied. The only persons who may "receive such relief as is absolutely necessary" are children under 15 years of age, or other persons who "by old age, physical or mental infirmity, decrepitude or deformity, are rendered incapable of obtaining by labour the adequate means of maintaining life." Employers of domestic servants, of farm servants engaged by the year, of workpeople employed in factories, workshops, and mines are liable for these persons during the term of their engagements.

Poor Law Amendment Act.

The machinery of administration closely resembles that adopted in England under the terms of the Act of 1834. Every town, and in rural districts every parish, constitutes an independent poor union, but a union of parishes for the establishment of joint poor houses is allowed by a resolution of the majority of ratepayers. Subject to certain restrictions each union may determine its poor relief in the manner best suited to the circumstances of the neighbourhood.

Administration.

In Sweden, as throughout Scandinavia, relief in kind is more largely given than relief in money, as this system accords better with the habits of people accustomed either to receive their wages to a great extent in kind or to depend almost entirely on the produce of their own farms.

The board of guardians in each union may consist of the communal board, or of a separate board appointed for the purpose; the rector of the parish is in either case the only *ex officio* member of the board. The Lord Lieutenant stands in the place of the English Local Government Board, and the regulations which the local authorities are empowered to make are subject to his approval. No special rate is imposed for poor relief unless the usual funds at the disposal of the unions are found insufficient.

The "usual funds" include that portion of the revenue of the union which is generally appropriated to poor relief, funds arising from real property in the possession of the union, together with the proceeds of fines, church collections, &c. The law of 1871 enacted, moreover, that the owners of factories, mines, or iron works, in any rural union, as well as landed proprietors who engaged labourers by the year, or allotted dwellings, or ground for dwellings to *backstugusittare* or *inhysseljon*. (3) should be bound to pay a larger contribution than that above mentioned, provided that their establishments occasioned a greater charge upon the union than could be met by the rates.

Poor rates.

The Act of 1871 contains no provisions applying to foreign paupers, but includes a special regulation with regard to natives of Norway who have become destitute in Sweden. On application to the poor union of the district they receive temporary relief and are afterwards sent to the frontier and given in charge to the Norwegian authorities. Within a certain limited period the Norwegian Government refunds to the poor union in question the cost of the relief and removal of the pauper. Swedes who have become paupers in Norway are treated in a similar manner and sent over the frontier into Sweden.

At the close of the year 1865, when poor relief was more freely given than at present, the total number of persons receiving poor relief, whether full or partial, was 147,788 out of a population of 4,114,141 persons, or 3.66 of the entire population. In 1885, when the population had increased to 4,682,769 souls, the total number of persons who received relief of all kinds, including partial or temporary assistance, in 1885 was 220,000, or 4.74 per cent. of the population. In 1886 the proportion rose to 4.84 per cent., in 1888 to 5.10 per cent., and in 1891 to 5.17 per cent., a higher figure than has been reached in any of the 17 years for which information is available.

Statistics of pauperism.

The total number of persons in receipt of poor relief in 1891 was 248,164; of these 197,754 were permanent paupers and 50,410 received temporary assistance. Of the permanent paupers, 67,612 received full, and 130,142 partial relief.

(1) Rubin. Arbejdslønnen i København i Aaret 1892, pp. 9-10. Lehmann. Denmark.—Its Medical Organisation, Hygiene and Demography, pp. 130-1.

(2) Conditions du Travail en Danemark, pp. 33-4. "Normalarbejdsdagen" Sertryk af "For Industrie og Haandværk," 6th Hefte, 1892.

(3) Backstugusittare, the tenant of a cottage without land. Inhysseljon, a tenant in the house of a farmer, or peasant usually employed by the landlord, but not in his service.

The number of persons in receipt of indoor relief was as follows:—

Establishments.	Persons.
1,626 poorhouses - - -	27,504 inmates.
158 poor farms - - -	9,002 "
37 workhouses - - -	5,556 "
15 orphanages - - -	387 "
3,795 other establishments - -	15,342 "
<b>Total 5,595 establishments -</b>	<b>57,691 inmates.</b>

The total number of children receiving relief directly or through their parents was 98,813 or 39.9 per cent. of the whole number of paupers.

The total amount spent by the communes during the year 1891 on poor relief was 11,278,159 kr., which represented a charge of 2 kr. 35 öre per head for the whole population. The following figures show that the cost of poor relief has gradually increased of late years:—

*Cost of Poor Relief.*

—	Kingdom.	Country.	Towns.
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
In 1891 - - -	2.35	1.79	4.70
" 1890 - - -	2.17	1.64	4.39
" 1889 - - -	2.04	1.56	4.10
" 1888 - - -	1.97	1.53	3.92
" 1887 - - -	1.89	1.42	4.04
" 1886 - - -	1.97	1.45	4.38

Special regulations exist for the administration of poor relief in the capital. Stockholm is divided into eight parishes, each of which possesses its own poor union and board, superintended by a general executive committee (*Fattigvårdsnämnd*) which supervises the poor relief of the whole town. This committee consists of annually elected representatives of the municipality, with the grand governor of the town as chairman. The chief superintendent of police is, *ex officio*, a deliberating but not a voting member. The committee has supreme control over the workhouses and other public charitable institutions of the town.

The Poor Law of Sweden aims at the prevention, as well as the repression of pauperism, hence the boards of guardians are authorised to appoint inspectors, male and female, to visit their several districts, to endeavour to find employment for those who are willing to work, and in general to attend to the moral welfare of the poor, according to the methods approved by the general executive committee (*Fattigvårdsnämnd*).

Again, according to section 9 of the law, "every poor union should exert itself to establish houses of labour, for those who are under the guardianship of the poor board, and also endeavour by the establishment of savings banks and mutual relief associations, or by other suitable measures, to

"obviate as far as possible the necessity for future poor relief."

In view of the very stringent character of the poor law, Mr. Andrew Doyle is of opinion that Sweden will have to rely upon a considerable development of the voluntary institutions referred to in section 9 if any assistance is to be given to the really deserving poor. A large number of such institutions are now in existence, especially in towns, which are known as Societies for Assistance (*Skyddsföreningar*). The aim of these societies is to supplement the provisions of the law by ascertaining the wants of the deserving poor, providing them with employment, and supplying them with the necessities of life when they become incapable of work. These societies are supported entirely by voluntary contributions, and are managed chiefly by ladies and by the clergy. (1)

For some years past a Charity Organisation Society on the English pattern has been at work in Stockholm, whose object is to form a centre for all private efforts for the relief of the deserving poor.

Norway, in consequence of its long political subjection to Denmark, had no poor law of its own until the middle of the present century. A commission, appointed in 1829, drew up a report upon which two Bills for the relief of the poor in town and country were framed, but it was not until 1845 that a law was passed organising public poor relief. Under this law every destitute person could claim relief from the commune in which he was born, or where he had lived for three years subsequent to his 15th and previous to his 63rd birthday. The care of the poor was placed in the hands of commissioners who were allowed to impose a poor rate in money and kind, and in the larger towns were authorised to place able-bodied paupers in workhouses. The legal claim to relief thus established resulted in a great increase of pauperism. From returns collected for the first time in 1866, it appeared that during the 15 years that this law had been in force, the population had increased only by one-fifth, while pauperism had increased by one-third, and the expenditure had nearly doubled. A new system was therefore introduced in 1863.

By the Act of 1863 right to relief was restricted to orphans under 15 years of age and persons of unsound mind. The relief even of the sick and aged ceased to be compulsory, and able-bodied men were to be relieved only when the poor law commissioners were satisfied that the cases were of urgent necessity.

Prior to the year 1863 the poor law commissioners had unlimited control of the funds entrusted to them, and were also able to levy poor rates to any amount they pleased. The new law limits the maximum of relief to be granted, deprives the commissioners of the power of levying rates at will, and obliges them to submit their budgets each year to the municipal authorities, who then decide upon the amount to be placed at their disposal in the coming year.

Under this improved system the total number of paupers in 1869 had decreased to 180,000 out of a population of 1,720,500, or about 10.5 per 100, while the whole expenditure was 1,123,000 spd. (2) The following table shows the number of paupers and the expenditure on poor relief for the years 1879-91.

Date.	Number of Persons directly assisted.	Number per 1,000 Inhabitants.	Number of Persons indirectly assisted.	Total Number of Persons assisted.	Number per 1,000 Inhabitants.	Expenditure.					Expenditure for each Person directly assisted.	
						In Money (Kroner).			Total.	Assistance in kind.		Total Expense.
						Actual Poor Relief.	Care of the Sick.	Other Expenses.				
1879 - - -	65,399	54	70,006	144,465	76	3,515,064	1,244,764	1,507,974	6,515,902	669,028	5,739,504	86
1880 - - -	66,398	56	87,211	155,604	81	3,484,865	1,295,761	1,042,983	5,423,509	832,281	5,444,756	85
1881 - - -	67,746	56	90,188	159,934	83	3,672,664	1,352,296	1,069,908	6,124,948	772,487	6,079,569	87
1882 - - -	68,578	56	87,447	156,020	81	3,629,271	1,412,407	1,084,128	6,129,906	729,711	6,099,620	87
1883 - - -	67,469	55	88,746	156,804	78	3,699,014	1,457,303	1,070,456	6,217,178	694,890	6,042,199	86
1884 - - -	66,407	55	81,318	147,725	77	3,632,891	1,436,567	1,005,327	6,164,785	567,315	5,857,451	85
1885 - - -	67,346	55	82,839	150,205	77	3,746,666	1,503,157	1,003,261	6,343,084	504,891	5,813,435	86
1886 (*) - {a	85,464	53	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1886 (*) - {b	74,638	54	94,276	168,913	86	3,804,438	1,501,312	1,195,768	6,501,513	471,994	5,917,064	80
1887 - - -	76,531	59	—	—	—	3,824,732	1,450,576	1,311,644	6,586,972	492,557	5,973,298	78
1888 - - -	77,535	59	—	—	—	3,904,627	1,467,909	1,109,130	6,510,925	424,440	6,050,923	76
1889 - - -	77,798	59	—	—	—	3,951,276	1,540,908	1,153,902	6,646,073	411,727	5,994,066	77
1890 - - -	73,304	57	92,174	165,538	83	4,034,978	1,622,890	1,263,643	6,921,511	350,395	6,163,598	84
1891 - - -	76,570	58	—	—	—	4,205,355	1,644,323	1,149,781	6,999,459	341,345	6,227,436	81

Statistics for 1892 are not yet available for the whole kingdom, but the returns for the capital show that the total number of persons in receipt of direct assistance for the year 1892 was 8,903, including 976 persons who received sick relief only. The total number of persons indirectly assisted was 9,780, including 696 persons who received sick relief only. (1)

(1) Statistik Aarboeg for Kongeriget Norge, 1893, p. 43. Beretning om Christiania Fattigvæsen for Aaret, 1892. Dokument, No. 18, p. 40.  
\* Up to 1886 sick persons treated in their own homes or in hospitals were not included in poor law returns.

The present system is distinguished by minute subdivision of administrative authority. There are now no fewer than 651 poor law districts, of which 57 are urban

(2) Poor Laws in Foreign Countries. Reports communicated to the Local Government Board, pp. 12-20, 77-109. Arbetsföretagskommittens Betänkande, III., 5. Fullt förordade Fattighjör, fördelade efter Civilstånd, Alder, Yrke, &c., p. 17-26.  
Bidrag till Sveriges officiella Statistik Kommunernas Fattigvård och Finanser, XVIII., pp. 1-23.

(3) The Norwegian speciedaler = 48. öf.

(5.) In Norway. First poor law.

Poor law of 1863.

Administration.

Preventive measures.

and 594 rural districts, exclusive of the saw-mills and mining establishments which maintain their own poor (cf. p. 10). These districts are still further sub-divided for the purpose of facilitating inspection. The poor law commission consists of seven or eight members chosen from the ratepayers, and presided over in rural districts by the clergyman, and in towns by the magistrates of the town. In Christiania the commission consists of an officer appointed by the magistrates, a clergyman appointed by the bishop, and a certain number of the common councilmen of the town. Each district is sub-divided into as many sub-districts as there are members of the local commission, and each member is entrusted with the care of his special district. Permanent assistance is usually provided by the boarding-out (*lægd*) system. Partial assistance is generally given in kind, and consists of food, clothes, fuel, bedding, medicine, and medical attendance. Sick relief is administered on a more liberal scale than other assistance in kind. A workhouse has been established in Christiania for the reception of both compulsory and voluntary inmates.

boarding-out system (*lægd*).

The boarding-out or *lægd* system is common to all Scandinavian countries but has been most extensively adopted in Norway. An account of this system is contained in a Bill presented to the *Storting* in 1832. This Bill provided that permanent paupers should be boarded in the families of peasants or other persons employed in the cultivation of land, and that the peasant should employ his pauper boarder in work on his farm in return for the support given to him. A peasant who does not supply his boarder with adequate relief can be fined, and if he ill-uses his guest he is liable to imprisonment. Pauper children, under the system called *skole lægd*, were to be placed under the care of the schoolmaster.

"Recent inquiries," says Mr. Andrew Doyle, "show that the peasant still clings to the *lægd* system in preference to relieving the poor with money. In some cases coin is still rare and is carefully laid by to pay the general taxes." Again, to receive a poor guest keeps alive the feeling of benevolence, whilst the payment of a tax becomes a matter of compulsion.

Voluntary institutions.

Voluntary institutions in Norway, as in Sweden, play an important part in supplementing legal relief. The number of such institutions in 1875 was 120; chief among these may be mentioned the Home Mission Society, the aim of which is, not so much to assist the out-door pauper with pecuniary aid, as to inculcate habits of temperance and thrift, nevertheless it does, as far as its means permit, endeavour to supplement the incomes of those whose parish relief is inadequate for their support, to care for the sick and to provide work for the unemployed. The Luther Institution is even less material in its aims, but its colporteurs who distribute religious publications, are specially instructed to visit the sick, the ignorant, and the indigent.

Christiania possesses a large number of charitable institutions including almshouses, free schools, asylums, hospitals, and nursing institutions.<sup>(1)</sup>

in Denmark, history of Danish poor law.

The poor law of Denmark so closely resembles that of England, both in principle and in the manner in which it has been administered, that an examination of it possesses peculiar interest. The Danish law of Christian V. (1683) recognises the right of all destitute persons to receive public assistance, and this principle was again recognised by the Constitutional Charter of 1806. The machinery of administration has been modified from time to time until it has come to assume a character in many respects resembling that which now exists in England. Unlike, however, the systems of most European countries, including England, the poor law administration of Denmark has never been connected with any religious organisation. Defects and abuses, such as are usually regarded as inherent in ecclesiastical systems for the relief of the poor, have nevertheless prevailed to an equal extent under the purely secular administration of Denmark.

First period, 1833-1867.

The history of the administration of poor relief in Denmark is divided into three periods, the first lasting till the year 1867, the second from 1868 to 1891, and the third introduced by the new poor law of April 9th, 1891. During the first period three distinct systems were in operation, one for rural districts, another for

towns, and a third for Copenhagen. The distinguishing feature of the administration under all these systems was the indiscriminate granting of relief to every destitute person, with consequences very similar to those which attended the equal laxity of administration in England prior to the year 1834.

Nor were matters at all improved when, in 1868, the municipal institutions of Denmark were re-modelled, and poor law business in towns was transferred from the "poor districts" to the newly established elective town councils. Under this régime the burgomaster administered poor relief in person with the assistance of unpaid overseers. The unpaid overseers were, in the words of a medical officer of Copenhagen, "for the most part small shopkeepers unable to give more than a most superficial examination to the cases brought before them." Sick help was granted with most injurious facility; families and individuals who were quite able to support themselves were found to be constantly in receipt of gratuitous medicine and medical assistance. The condition of workhouses during this period was also most unsatisfactory. Dr. Ulrik, the medical officer quoted above, stated that the *Ladegård*, or chief workhouse of Copenhagen, was an example of what such an institution ought not to be, and after describing some of the most crying abuses, he added "the introduction of the English workhouse test system is a pressing necessity."

Second period, 1868-91.

By the law of Christian V. every parish was obliged to provide a poor-house (*Fattighus*). Into this building paupers of the most various types were admitted for longer or shorter periods and without any fixed rules or regular inspection. Here they received either full or partial support, being in the latter case obliged to provide for the balance of their necessities themselves. The buildings utilised as poor-houses were frequently peasants' cottages, utterly unsuited for the reception of a number of inmates, and with sanitary arrangements of the worst description. The establishment of poor-farms (*Fattiggård*) was the first step towards the improvement of the poor-houses. These establishments were built on approved plans, had fixed rules, and were subject to the constant supervision of an inspector living on the premises. The inmates are (for the system is still in existence and is being continually extended) employed in agricultural or industrial work. According to the reports for 1879 there were a total of 270 poor farms with 10,317 inmates.

The institutions called workhouses (*Arbejdsanstalter*) cannot be distinctly separated from the above-mentioned poor-houses and poor-farms, as the law contains no special regulations concerning them. It is, therefore, to some extent optional, whether any particular establishment is called a poor-farm or a workhouse; but, taken as a whole, the workhouses bear the stamp of discipline and coercion in a greater degree than the ordinary poor-farms. The workhouses of Copenhagen are the only ones of any importance. A fourth kind of institution is the compulsory workhouse (*Tvangs Arbejdsanstalt*) which is used as a house of correction for refractory paupers.

The new poor law (*Fattiglov*) of April 9th, 1891, is at once more stringent and more humane than its predecessors. It is as yet too early to judge of its effects, but a comparison of its main provisions with those of the older laws will show in what direction improvement may be expected. The first chapter, including sections 1-15, shows no variation from the law of 1866 in that it emphatically declares that the public (*det Offentlige*) are bound to afford assistance to every person who is unable to procure the necessaries of life for himself or for those dependent on him. The second chapter (sections 16-27) on settlements differs from the older laws in taking the birth-place, as well as the place of residence of a pauper, into account in deciding the commune in which he is entitled to relief. Settlement is now acquired by means of an uninterrupted residence of five years, subsequent to the applicants' eighteenth year, in any one commune, or, if a person has not resided five years in any one place, he is entitled to relief in the place in which he was born. Formerly, if the place of birth was not discoverable, the applicant might receive local relief, now the burden of his maintenance is thrown upon the larger district, the *amt* or county. Foreigners have hitherto been allowed to acquire a settlement by a five years' residence; but as this liberal custom has not met with reciprocal liberality in other countries, no foreigner can now receive relief unless he has been naturalised. Chapter III. (sections 28-33), on the mode of administering poor relief, contains the deviations from the

Third period, 1891 to the present time.

(1) Poor Laws in Foreign Countries. Reports communicated to the Local Government Board, pp. 20-21, 100-119. Lov om Fattigvæsenet i Kjøbstæderne, 1833. Lov om Fattigvæsenet paa Landet med Tilleg. Fattigvæsenet. (Christiania.)

previous laws which are most worthy of notice. An endeavour is here made to distinguish between the worthy and unworthy poor, and to show to the former the consideration they deserve. Wherever it is possible the deserving poor are to be relieved in their own homes, and may not be removed to a workhouse unless such removal conduces to the welfare of the person in question. Old or infirm persons and children are to be kept entirely separate from the idle and dissolute inmates of a workhouse, and married persons are not to be separated except by their own desire. The most important of the new regulations is perhaps that contained in section 29, which provides for discriminating care and attention to the interests of the poor by the appointment of overseers (*Tilsynsmænd*). These overseers, who may be men or women, are appointed by the poor law guardians (*Fattigbestyrrelserne*) to investigate the condition of the poor, to assist them by advice or more substantial aid (*Raad og Daad*), to see that the relief given is properly expended, and to report to the guardians as to the nature and extent of the relief required. As a further proof of the humanitarian spirit which pervades the new law, may be mentioned the section which imposes upon rural communes<sup>(1)</sup> the obligation of procuring rooms, at ordinary rent, for persons who are able to pay their way, but are unable to find a dwelling, because the commune refuses to let dwellings for fear that such persons should at any time come upon the rates. The Act further provides that the

relief given to the families of conscripts in time of war, or to shipwrecked sailors on their journey home, is not to be regarded as poor relief, and hence is not to entail civil disabilities. The new law is, however, intended to be repressive of pauperism as well as to mitigate the condition of the deserving poor. The appointment of the overseers mentioned above, which assimilates the Danish system to that which has proved itself so useful at Elberfeld, will go far to prevent indiscriminate relief to unworthy persons, and the perpetuation of the pauper class is restricted by section 42, which forbids a man to marry who has been in receipt of relief for the last five years, and has not refunded the cost of such relief. Civil disabilities are also extended under the new system to the person from whom the individual relieved has a right to claim support. Thus a man who allows his wife or children to become chargeable to the parish is regarded as a pauper himself and deprived of his civil rights accordingly.

No statistics as to the cost of poor relief under the new Act have yet been published, and the most recent information available stops with the year 1886 for the provinces, and 1889 for Copenhagen. From the table given below, it is apparent that the cost of poor relief during the period given has steadily increased. It does not appear, however, that any connexion can be traced between the increase of pauperism and the price of necessaries, which, for the sake of comparison, are included in the subjoined table.<sup>(2)</sup>

	Estimated Population.		Expenditure for Poor Relief in Kroner.				Average Valuation (Kupitelstaxt).		
			Provincial Towns.		Rural Districts.		Value per Tønde (3·8 Imperial bushels) in Kroner.		Value per Pund (lb.) in Kroner.
	Provincial Towns.	Rural Districts.	Total.	Per Head.	Total.	Per Head.	Rye.	Barley.	Pork.
1858-62 - -	205,776	1,247,443	405,926	1.97	2,172,976	1.75	11.66	9.30	0.37
1863-67 - -	221,037	1,306,878	534,206	2.41	2,810,397	2.15	12.46	9.57	0.39
1868-72 - -	237,144	1,365,137	555,296	3.18	3,961,176	2.90	13.24	11.57	0.50
1873-77 - -	258,604	1,410,216	792,023	3.06	4,087,152	2.90	14.35	12.92	0.55
1878-82 - -	282,421	1,451,461	934,693	3.31	4,912,415	3.38	18.08	11.15	0.54
1883-86 - -	312,328	1,478,391	994,948	3.18	4,745,903	3.21	10.06	10.06	0.50

#### IV.—INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

(a.) In Sweden. Investigations of the Labour Commission.

Prior to the appointment of the Labour Commission in 1884, several enactments were in force in Sweden with regard to the health and safety of the workers in certain special industries. The Commission discovered, however, in the course of their investigations, that these orders were very generally disregarded, and that in industries to which no special attention had hitherto been paid, the condition of the workshops was far from being healthy or even safe. As regards the one question of ventilation, only 10 out of the 205 establishments making returns in Stockholm were reported as being really well ventilated. To these may be added the 11 principal breweries of Stockholm, and the four largest flour mills, through which a current of air is always passing, and where the workers profit by the thorough ventilation thus obtained, though it was not arranged with any view to their convenience, but is simply a necessary condition of the work. These factories taken together represent 12 per cent. of the whole number of establishments in Stockholm from which returns were made; in 88 per cent., therefore, ventilation was either unsatisfactory or entirely lacking. Even where the air was vitiated by the dust or fumes arising from the materials under manufacture, it was rare to find any satisfactory contrivance for getting rid of these emanations. The most defective arrangements were noticed in the smaller tobacco factories. The size of the workrooms in these establishments was always out of proportion to the number of workers who were crowded into them, and no means of

ventilation was ever to be seen beyond that afforded by doors and windows. Small copper foundries (*gelbju-terier*) were also, as a rule, very dark and close, and the workers were, according to their own account, frequently attacked by "founders' fever." The Commission did not visit or inquire into the condition of every workshop in Stockholm, but it did investigate every establishment where any attempt at ventilation had been made, and therefore it is hardly likely that anything would have been found in the remaining factories which would have modified its general conclusions as to the unsatisfactory condition of the city in this respect.

As regards the country, it was found that whereas the number of establishments requiring special means of ventilation was 1,404, in 763 cases, or 54 per cent., such apparatus was either entirely wanting, or of such a primitive kind as scarcely to deserve the name. On the other hand the country factories were open on all sides to the fresh air, an advantage which is seldom obtainable in Stockholm. Both in Stockholm and in the country the Commission found that in old, badly-built factories, where special apparatus was most needed, the whole question of ventilation was most neglected.<sup>(2)</sup>

The temperature of workrooms in winter was found to be, on the whole, satisfactory, iron stoves were most frequently used in small factories and steam pipes in larger establishments, hot air was very rarely met with.

<sup>(1)</sup> Denmark. Its Medical Organisation, Hygiene, and Demography, pp. 226-85.

<sup>(2)</sup> Krieger. Lov af 9 April 1891 om Det Offentlige Fattigvesen samt Lov om Alderdomsunderstøttelse, pp. 1-150. Poor Law in Foreign Countries, reports communicated to the Local Government Board, pp. 7-12, 120-36.

<sup>(3)</sup> Arbetsförsäkrings Betänkande, III. 2, pp. 21-15. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 74-8.

<sup>(1)</sup> A rural commune is one which includes one, two, or more parishes; an urban commune must include one town.

In 11 per cent. of the factories investigated the temperature was stated to be too high; this was particularly the case in sugar refineries, type foundries, laundries and bakeries. A high temperature is in most cases inevitable in works of this kind, but it was noticed that in bakeries, at least, it might be materially decreased by placing the ovens further apart. The questions of warmth and ventilation become of considerable moment when it is remembered that Swedish workmen spend from 10 to 11 hours a day in the factory or workshop, and during winter frequently obtain permission to remain there during their mealtimes also.<sup>(1)</sup>

Boilers and steam pipes were generally found to be sufficiently provided with safety valves, but these were frequently subjected to too high pressure. The inspection of boilers was very imperfectly carried out; in Stockholm only 13 out of 123 boilers had been inspected, and this at intervals varying from six months to five years. As a rule, steam engines in factories were situated in a separate room, or if not, they were so fenced as to present no danger to the persons working in the room. In Stockholm the number of engines in separate rooms was 86 out of 131; 39 were properly fenced, and only six were without any protection at all. In the country 1,141 out of 1,533, or 74 per cent., were isolated, and 44, or 3 per cent., were partly protected; 166, or 11 per cent., were unfenced, and in 182 cases, or 12 per cent., the questions of the Commission met with no reply.

Dangerous machinery, including driving bands, cog-wheels, axles, pulleys, &c. was generally securely fenced; only two cases occurred in Stockholm in which precautions had been entirely neglected, but in the country the situation was less satisfactory. Two hundred and twenty-six of the answers received were mere statements that no protection existed, and in 170 cases it was maintained that special protection was unnecessary; the overseers of mines in particular were generally of this opinion. Nowhere was the want of care more conspicuous than in works where circular saws or rapidly revolving grindstones were employed, and the number of accidents in these establishments was very considerable. Out of 1,443 cases investigated, 369, or nearly one-fourth of the whole number, were partly or entirely unprotected.<sup>(2)</sup>

The information collected by the Commission as to defective sanitation and safety appliances, led it to incorporate its conclusions in a Bill which immediately received the consent of Parliament, and became law on 10th May 1889. M. Millot refers to this Bill, and the information upon which it is based, as the best part of the work of the Commission, and that which has been most rapidly sanctioned by public opinion.

The law on the protection of the life and health of industrial workers embraces all persons employed in forestry, mining, blast furnaces, forges, factories, shipyards, flour mills, saw mills, printing works, &c. In all premises belonging to the above industries, openings in the floor, trapdoors, vats, ladders, galleries, and the like, must be securely railed; lifts and cranes must be inscribed with the weight they are able to carry. Works in which inflammable materials are employed must be provided with fire-proof staircases, fire escapes, &c. The passages between machinery are to be wide enough for men to pass without danger. Boilers, engines, gear, and driving bands are to be isolated or fenced. Minute provisions are also made respecting the cleanliness and ventilation of workrooms, as to signals before machinery is set in motion, and rules to be observed by those who work dangerous machinery.

Three inspectors have been appointed under the terms of this law, who were directed in the first place to superintend the enforcement of the material improvements laid down in this law. No authority was given them to interfere with the labour of children, because at the time of their appointment (1890) the Commission named by the King to consider the recommendations of the Berlin Conference as to the labour of women and children had not held its first meeting, and it was considered advisable to wait for its report before proceeding with further legislation.<sup>(3)</sup>

The country was accordingly mapped out into three districts, the northern, western, and southern, which were entrusted to the three inspectors.\* The actual work of inspection began in July 1890, but the inspectors had been employed for some time previously in drawing up question schedules, registers, &c., and one of them had visited Germany and Denmark for the purpose of learning how factory inspection was carried on in those countries. In their reports for the years 1890 and 1891, the inspectors estimate that the number of establishments which may ultimately be found to fall within the scope of the law, will be about 9,000. They have reason to believe that this number includes some establishments which may more properly be considered as home workshops, and which will in that case be excluded from their list, but on the other hand, a considerable number of corn mills and dairies have probably been omitted which ought to have been included among the industries subject to the law.

The number of establishments actually visited during the six months of 1890 was 276, and this number rose in the course of the following year to 503.

The following table shows the total number of factories inspected, with the number of workers grouped according to age and sex, and the motive power employed.

District	No. of establishments.	No. of Horse Power.		Number of employed.						Together.		Total.
		Steam.	Water.	From 13-14 years.		14-18 years.		Over 18 years.		Men.	Women.	
				Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.			
Northern district	103	3,043	1,485	129	47	623	329	6,234	1,695	6,983	1,071	8,057
Western district	287	5,384	10,814	118	97	1,100	817	7,887	3,426	9,106	4,340	13,445
Southern district	113	5,953	1,905	159	97	825	623	5,135	2,442	6,119	3,107	9,226
Total	503	14,380	14,144	403	241	2,548	1,774	19,256	7,463	22,210	9,478	31,688

The attitude of employers was generally friendly; many had hastened to adopt new measures for the safety of their workers directly the law was passed, and without waiting for suggestions from the inspectors; others, on the contrary, appeared to be entirely ignorant of the requirements of the law. No cases of disinclination to submit to the new regulations were anywhere observed. The chief shortcomings noticeable were the lack of proper ventilation and the want of means for carrying away noxious fumes and dust. In machine shops the emery powder arising from the polishing of steel was allowed to accumulate in the rooms, and was inhaled by the workers. Tobacco and cigar factories presented frequent instances of defective ventilation. The workers were, moreover, allowed to

take their meals in the dust-laden air of the workrooms, and in the evening they changed their clothes in the workroom for want of any other place, and scattered the tobacco accumulations of the day all over the floor. The sanitary condition of pottery and glass works led to frequent intervention on the part of the inspector, but the most serious evils of all were found in phosphorus match factories. These establishments were brought under legal restrictions by a decree of 18th February 1870, which provided that lists stating the name and age of all persons employed should be kept by the employers, who should also note the number of hours worked by each person. Further provision was made for the cleanliness of workrooms, the medical inspection of workers, &c., and fines, certainly not large in amount,

(1) *Id.*, pp. 16-17. *Id.*, pp. 78-80.

(2) *Arbetsförsäkringskomitens Betänkande*, II., 2, pp. 18-26. *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 80-86.

(3) *Arbetsförsäkringskomitens Betänkande*, I., 1, pp. 13-17. *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 98-103. *Braun Archiv für sociale Gesetzgebung und Statistik Dritter Band*. *Erstes Heft*, pp. 140-9.

\* The number of inspectors has now (1894) been increased to five.

were imposed for breaches of the law. Though no means were provided for the enforcement of these regulations, the inspectors express some surprise at finding that only two out of the seven match factories visited by them during 1890, made any show of keeping the law. The insanitary conditions which were brought to light in 1890 induced the inspector of the southern district, where match factories are chiefly situated, to make these establishments the object of special investigation in the following year. The extent of this manufacture is considerable in Sweden; in the southern district there are no fewer than 10 different factories with a combined output of 260,000,000 boxes in a year; of these about 212,000,000 are destined for exportation, and represent a value of 1,353,000 kr. The injurious nature of the work is evident from the fact that in the course of 1891 six fatal cases of phosphorous poisoning (*fosfornekros*) occurred, whilst more than 50 per cent. of the 1,075 workers employed had suffered from the same disease in a greater or less degree. These attacks were plainly due to preventable causes, for seven out of the 10 factories were entirely free from cases of poisoning, and the large number of such cases reported was, therefore, confined to the three remaining works employing 468 men. Several of the factories visited in 1891 had been inspected during the previous year, and in most cases the inspector found that the recommendations then made by him had been carried out as far as was possible in the short time which had elapsed. The inspector stated that the provisions of the decree of February 1870 must be rigidly enforced, and recommended in addition that the packing of matches should take place in a separate room, and that all workrooms in match factories should be thoroughly ventilated by fans and other draught-making appliances. The operatives should be provided with working clothes at the employer's expense, with an ample supply of water for washing, and should have a comfortable room for meals. Proceeding from hygienic considerations to safety appliances, the principal defects noticed were found in connexion with boilers, lifts, and cranes. Very little care was given to the management of boilers, and safety valves were constantly subjected to too high pressure. As to lifts the sole cause of accidents was that they were insufficiently railed in. The frequent occurrence of accidents from preventable causes was not entirely due to the negligence of employers. Safety appliances were, in the majority of cases, forced upon the workmen against their will, and were regarded either as casting a slur upon their skill or as hindrances to their work. Considerable watchfulness on the part of employers was necessary in order to see that the appliances provided were actually used. (For statistics of accidents, see p. 32.)

Among the suggestions made by the inspectors for the more effective performance of their work in the ensuing year, the following may be mentioned:—That, as boiler accidents are frequently caused by ignorance, it is advisable that rules for the use of boilers should be posted up in all boiler rooms. The adoption of the "Rules for the firing and care of boilers," issued in 1891 by the Swedish Technological Society, was recommended. Rules for the use of driving-bands and gear, with directions for the care of the injured, published by the same society, were also recommended to the notice of employers. The inspector of the northern district suggested an alteration in the law by which employers should be made liable for all accidents caused by machinery which had already been pointed out to them by the inspector as dangerous. Persons under 18 years of age should also be forbidden to clean machinery in motion, and should not be employed as enginemen or boilermen.

The inspectors further desired the appointment of permanent clerks to assist in the drawing up of registers and in correspondence with employers.<sup>(1)</sup>

No information as to the condition of mines is contained in these reports.

The law of 18th June 1864, which proclaimed the extension of industrial freedom, at the same time placed certain restrictions upon the labour of children. A maximum number of hours was fixed beyond which it was illegal for children to work, and attendance at school was made compulsory. Fines were imposed for breaches of the law, but no measures were taken to enforce it, and it therefore proved a very insufficient

protection. The defects of the law led the Rigsdag to consider further measures; and on November 18th 1881 a decree was issued prohibiting the employment of children under 12 years of age, and placing all factories under sanitary inspection.

Law of  
18th Nov  
1881.

"Protected persons" under the terms of this law are children under 14, and young persons under 18 years of age. The hours of labour of the former are limited to six hours a day, those of the latter to 12 hours; children must be allowed an interval of one hour, and young persons of two hours, during the day's work. Protected persons cannot be employed before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m.; they may not stay in the workrooms during mealtimes, or be employed to clean machinery in motion. Children under 15 are obliged to attend school for a certain number of hours during the week, and must present a certificate of attendance every month to their employers.

Neither protected persons nor women may be employed underground or in quarries, and the employment of protected persons in dangerous industries is subjected to special regulations. Permissions for overtime cannot be granted for more than four weeks in any one year, nor may such work begin earlier than 6 a.m. or end later than 8 p.m. All employers must keep a register stating the age, degree of education, and the state of health of the protected persons in their service. The enforcement of these provisions is entrusted to the local sanitary board or to the town council, and fines, varying from 10 to 300 kr., may be imposed on employers who break the law, whilst parents who are guilty of similar infractions can be fined from 5 to 30 kr. The regulations here laid down were sufficiently strict, at any rate, as regards children and young persons. Scarcely two years, therefore, had elapsed before it was found necessary to make certain alterations in the length of the working day. The decree of 22nd June 1883 provides that in mines and metal works boys may work 12 hours a day instead of six as heretofore; that these hours are not necessarily to be included within the limits of 6 a.m. and 8 p.m. before prescribed, on condition that the workers are allowed eight hours' rest at night and are never required to work for two nights in succession.<sup>(2)</sup>

These laws are not, however, regarded as a final settlement of the question, the subject still occupies the attention of the legislature, but it is found very difficult to introduce further restrictions without unduly encroaching on the rights of employers.

The last measure taken by the Government was the appointment of a committee to examine the law of 1881 and propose amendments thereto in accordance with the recommendations of the Berlin Conference of 1890. This committee held its first meeting on 6th April 1891, and concluded its work on 11th March 1892. The committee consisted of six members, including Comte de la Gardie, the chairman, a factory owner, a factory manager, Editor Bockman, Professor Lovén, and Chief Engineer C. Lindvall. The last-mentioned member sat in the place of Herr Tham, who had represented Sweden at the Berlin Conference, and had been placed on the committee, but was afterwards unable to attend.

Committee  
of 1891.

With regard to the hours of labour, the committee did not recommend any legal limitation of the hours of work for adults, nor did it think that legislative interference was necessary as private initiative was now successful in bringing the hours of work within reasonable limits. Legislation with regard to Sunday labour was equally superfluous, considering the prevalence of the custom of Sunday observance.

No restrictions were to be placed upon domestic industries, but the committee followed the law of 1889 in desiring that mines, timber-yards, and shops should be subject to the same inspection as factories. In order to prevent frequent changes in the law, permissions for overtime and other exceptions should be provided for in special regulations. Either the Board of Commerce or the inspectors might grant permission for temporary exceptions, the Board of Commerce for three months, and the inspectors for fourteen days at most; no such permission must be granted by the inspectors for the same factory more than twice in any one year. No woman under 21, or child under 15 years of age, should be allowed to work at night, nor any

Employment of  
women and  
children.

<sup>(1)</sup> Sammandrag af Yrkesinspektörnas Berättelser för Åren, 1890 och 1891.

<sup>(2)</sup> Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 71-3. Quaker. Etudes sur les Questions Ouvrières, p. 250.

person under 18 for two nights consecutively. The committee desired to raise the age at which children may begin work from the twelfth to the thirteenth year, and proposed that elementary education should be so arranged that a child may not complete his course until he has reached the age of 13. The six hours' day should be extended to children up to the age of 15 (instead of 14 as at present) in order that they may be enabled to take advantage of the educational opportunities afforded by continuation schools. On the other hand, the committee was willing to increase the hours of young persons between 15 and 18 to 11 hours a day, and to allow employers, on obtaining permission from the inspector, to employ even children under 15 for 11 hours every alternate day, provided that the intervening day was entirely free. The committee stated that its reason for recommending longer hours was that the present limitations had given rise to numerous complaints. Two more exceptions which the committee have decided to allow will practically, it is feared, destroy the six hours' limit altogether. These are (1) that children may work 11 hours a day if they have reached their 14th year and hold a school certificate and a certificate from a doctor stating that a full day's work will not be injurious; (2) children under 15 who have completed their elementary education may also work for 11 hours if they are employed as messengers and principally in the open air. According to the existing law protected persons may not remain during meal-times in any part of the premises where work is going on; the committee however desired so to modify this regulation that protected persons might remain in the workrooms unless the air is rendered impure by the nature of the work going on.

The committee would permit women to work underground when over 21 years of age, but they go further than the existing law in recommending that a period of four weeks should elapse before a woman is allowed to return to work after confinement. The present prohibition against the employment of children under 15 in rooms where the heads of matches are being put on should, the committee considers, be extended to the laying in boxes and packing of matches, both of which operations are very injurious to health. Match factories should be inspected by a doctor appointed by the Government, who should forward his reports on the condition of factories direct to the governor of the province, and where the work is found very dangerous the governor should have power to close the factories entirely.

The committee recommended that all protected persons should be medically examined at least once a year, and always within six months after first beginning work. Employers should be forbidden to employ protected persons in opposition to the recommendations of a doctor. The requirements of the Education Act should be met by a regulation to the effect that children engaged in industrial work, if they have not already finished their elementary education, should be obliged to attend the national school until they have completed their 14th year. Employers should arrange for children to attend school and receive instruction for confirmation. Finally, the committee proposed to increase the present number of inspectors, and suggested the appointment of sub-inspectors, named by the districts, to examine the certificates and registers of protected persons.

It should be observed that these very moderate proposals did not emanate from the committee as a whole. The three members more directly connected with industry dissented from them almost entirely. They advocated a 10 hours' day for children between 13 and 14, and 11 hours for young persons over 14, and also deprecated the placing of any restrictions on the labour of girls over 18 years of age. The three members whose signatures are appended to the report were individually ready to go further than the recommendations which received their joint approval. Editor Beckman wished that no exception should be made to the rule of 10 hours for protected persons, except in the case of messengers only; he also desired the prohibition of Sunday labour in general from 9 p.m. on Saturday to 9 p.m. on Sunday.<sup>(1)</sup>

The adoption of protective legislation for factory workers has been delayed longer in Norway than in any other European country, except Portugal.

Until last year (1892) the only restrictions placed by law on the freedom of industry in Norway consisted of the Apprenticeship Law of June 15, 1881, and of an isolated Act limiting the hours of labour in bakeries. It is true that the law on apprenticeship regulated the relations between employers and employed to a certain extent, but all its provisions rested on the basis of a formal and compulsory contract between the two parties, a limitation which rendered it of less service to large industrial enterprises than to smaller trades. The recent development of industry on a large scale has shown that the present circumstances of the country call for more comprehensive legislation. The influence of the German insurance laws of 1884 was an additional motive which induced the Norwegian Government to enter upon that course of industrial investigation of which the first outcome was the Factory Act of 1892.<sup>(2)</sup>

A year after the appointment of the Swedish Labour Commission, namely, in 1885, a Commission was appointed in Norway to inquire into the desirability of factory inspection, to examine the question of employers' liability, and the insurance of workmen against sickness, accidents, and old age. The Commission consisted originally of 11 members, but six members retired before the investigations were completed, and as the remainder represented extreme views, the Commission was dissolved in 1891. During the six years of its existence it had, however, amassed a large amount of information, and its reports, which were published at intervals, contained drafts for a Factory Act (published December 1887), and for laws on sick insurance and accident insurance, both of which were published in February 1890.<sup>(3)</sup>

The Bill on factory labour prepared by the Commission contained a number of provisions with regard to the health and safety of the workers, which have since been incorporated in the Factory Act of 1892. This Act, which came into force in July 1893, provides for the inspection of all factories, mines, metal works, and workshops in general, where work is regularly carried on without regard to the number of persons employed in them. It declares that dangerous machinery must be fenced, that precautions are to be taken against fire, that workrooms are to be well lighted, cleaned, warmed, and ventilated. Boilers and steam-pipes (*Rörledningar*) are subject to special inspection. "Protected persons" are defined as children under 14 years of age, and young persons between 14 and 18.

Children over 12 and under 14 years of age may be employed in factories, if they have obtained a medical certificate and the permission of the inspector, on condition that they are not employed in work which might injure their health or retard their growth, or for more than six hours a day. Young persons may not work for more than 10 hours a day, during which time they must have intervals for rest amounting to two hours.

Children whose elementary education is not completed may not be employed during the hours when they ought to be at school, nor during the hour immediately preceding the school hours.

The only restrictions placed upon the labour of women are that they cannot be employed underground, nor can they be required to clean or oil machinery in motion.

All factories and workshops which employ more than 25 persons must draw up factory rules, which are to be submitted to the approval of the workpeople, and must receive the sanction of the inspector. Wages are to be paid weekly and in current coin, deductions cannot be made without the consent of the employed, and no fines can be imposed unless they are provided for in the factory rules. Deductions for damaged work are not, however, counted as fines. The enforcement of this law is entrusted to inspectors appointed by the King, who are authorised to enter all establishments which come within the scope of the law. Local inspection committees are also to be formed in different districts, consisting of the director of the local sanitary

(1) Despatch of Mr. Hugh Gough from Stockholm on the Report of the Committee appointed to consider the recommendations of the Berlin Conference, 1892, No. 17. Commercial. Betänkande af Komitén för Revision af Föroordningen den 15 Nov. 1881. Ansvarende Mindertaliges Användande i Arbete vid Fabrik, Handverk eller annan Handtering.

(2) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 27.

(3) Socialreformen i de nordiske Lande II. Norge. Beskyttelseslovgivningen.



commission, a doctor chosen by the director, and a member of the commission chosen by the other members. Breaches of the law are punishable by fines varying in amount from 5 to 1,000 kr. for employers, and from 2 to 200 kr. for the employed.

As this law only came into force in July of the present year (1893) no reports as to its working have been yet published.<sup>(?)</sup>

Factory statistics.

Although no factory inspection existed in Norway until July 1893, very accurate information as to the number and condition of persons employed in factory labour is obtainable from the statistics published by the Central Statistical Bureau. Its latest returns were published during the present year (1893), and comprise the period from 1885 to the end of 1890. The returns deal simply with factory labour, and for this purpose

the Bureau regards as factories all establishments employing more than three persons. Workshops employing fewer than three persons are therefore not taken into account, neither are establishments in which less than 300 days' work is done during the year.<sup>(?)</sup> Thus a number of small flour mills and saw mills, where work is only done at certain periods, are omitted from the factory lists, because they fail to reach the required minimum.

After these deductions were made the total number of factories in Norway at the end of 1890 was found to be 1,933, employing 60,956 hands.

The following table shows the distribution of these 1,933 factories among the 12 principal industries, with the number of men and the number of days worked in each:—

Industries.	Number of Factories.	Percentage of Factories.	Number of Employed.	Percentage of Employed.	Number of Days' Work done.	Percentage.
I. Stone and earthenware	126	6.5	4,718	7.7	933.7	6.2
II. Metal industry -	78	4.0	3,547	5.8	992.2	6.6
III. Machine making -	195	10.1	10,116	16.6	2,763.3	18.5
IV. Chemical trades -	71	3.7	2,837	4.7	677.1	4.5
V. Manufacture of gas, oil, &c.	80	4.1	957	1.6	214.9	1.4
VI. Textile trades -	173	8.9	8,153	13.4	2,239.4	15.0
VII. Paper, leather, &c. trade.	200	10.3	6,235	10.2	1,650.4	11.0
VIII. Timber trade -	375	19.4	13,720	22.5	2,988.5	20.0
IX. Food industries -	529	27.3	7,827	12.8	1,794.3	12.0
X. Clothing trades -	77	4.0	1,923	3.2	510.7	3.4
XI. Printing trades -	11	0.6	113	0.2	30.6	0.2
XII. Other trades -	20	1.0	310	0.5	161.1	1.1
Total -	1,935	100.0	60,956	100.0	14,946.2	100.0

The timber trade, in which the largest number of persons are employed, includes wood sawing, planing (*Høvleri*), furniture making, and machine-made joinery.

The total number of factories for 1890 does not show a very large increase on the total of 1885, as the numbers for the two years are respectively 1,935 and 1,925; the increase in the number of persons employed is, however, considerable, the 45,313 persons of 1885 having risen to 60,956 in 1890, which represents an increase of about 34.5 per cent. About the same percentage of increase is noticeable in the number of days' work accomplished, the figures for 1885 being 11,133,600, as compared with 14,946,200 in 1890. The factory statistics show that a larger proportion of factories are to be found in the rural districts (*Bygder*) than in the towns. The following table shows the proportionate distribution of factories between town and country during the last 40 years:—

Date.	No. of Workmen in the Kingdom.	Country.	Towns.
1850	12,700	9,000	3,700
1855	15,800	11,000	4,800
1860	19,700	12,200	7,500
1865	23,751	14,790	8,961
1870	33,200	19,700	13,500
1875	45,857	28,608	19,054
1879	41,538	25,007	16,586
1885	45,313	23,923	21,290
1890	60,956	31,209	29,747

Out of the 1,935 factories which existed in 1890, 1,062, or about 55 per cent., were situated in the country, and 873, or about 45 per cent., in towns. Christiania ranks first among the manufacturing towns, and the next in order of importance are Bergen, Drammen, Trondhjem, and Frederikshald.

The classification of factories, according to the number of persons employed in each, shows that the number of those which employ a comparatively large staff is increasing. The average number of hands employed in one factory is still not more than about 32, though this number is a considerable advance upon the 24 hands per factory employed in 1885.

(?) Day work is reckoned thus: when 30 men have worked 12 days, the result is 12 x 30 = 360 days' work.

(?) Norway. Loi du 27 Juin 1882 sur l'Inspection du Travail dans les Fabriques, &c.

The following table shows the increase in the number of factories employing a large staff during the last 20 years:—

No. of Establishments with a staff of—	1870.	1875.	1879.	1885.	1890.
21-50 persons	209	336	281	305	389
51-100 "	70	122	120	132	163
101-200 "	28	51	37	44	55
201-300 "	11	15	15	13	21
301-400 "	3	4	4	7	10
401-500 "	4	3	2	5	6
501-1,000 "	2	2	1	3	6
Over 1,000 "	—	—	—	—	1
Total	327	553	460	509	681

The one establishment which now employs more than 1,000 workpeople is the spinning and weaving company of Nydalen.

Out of the 60,956 persons employed in factories in 1890, 1,436 were owners or managers, 1,598 were messengers (*Kontorbetjente*), 2,063 overseers and foremen, leaving a net total of 35,859 workmen. Of these—

39,754 were adult men.

8,957 " " women.

5,345 " " young persons (14-18 years).

1,803 " " children under 14 years.

Of the young persons, 4,236 were males, and 1,100 females, and of the children, 1,344 were boys, and 459 girls; 304 of these boys, and 83 of the girls were under 12 years of age. Women were chiefly employed in the textile trades, where they formed some 62 per cent. of the whole number of persons employed; in tobacco and cigar factories, in breweries and match factories. Out of the total number of children 474 were employed in cigar factories, 255 in match factories, 179 in saw mills, 128 in saw and planing mills, 119 in glass works, 99 in brick and tile works, and 95 in factories for the manufacture of hermetically sealed tins (*hermetiske fabrikker*).

A noticeable feature in the extension of factory industries in Norway is the recent increase in the number of establishments worked by companies. Out of the 1,935 factories 1,231, or 63.6 per cent., belonged to individuals, 361, or 18.7 per cent., to unlimited

Age and sex of employed.

liability companies, and 323, or 16.7 per cent., to companies with limited liability.<sup>(1)</sup>

(c) In Denmark.

Prior to the year 1873 the only protection which the law afforded to industrial workers in Denmark was contained in an order of 1800, forbidding masters to employ their apprentices in work beyond their strength, and in the laws of 1852, 1858 regulating trades dangerous to health. The labour movement of 1870 first drew attention to the subject, and in 1873 the first Factory Act was passed. By this law all factories, and workshops of the nature of factories, where persons under 18 years of age were employed were placed under supervision. The law further provided that no children under 10 years of age might be employed in factories, that children between the ages of 10 and 14 must not work more than six-and-a-half hours a day and must never be employed at night. Young persons between the ages of 14 and 18 must not work more than 10 hours a day and must not be employed on Sundays or on the festivals observed by the National Church. All children who applied for work in factories were to produce a certificate of age and a medical certificate, and the teachers in elementary schools were to provide them with a list of the school hours, during which time they might not be employed in the factory. Protected persons might not be employed to clean machinery whilst in motion. Two inspectors were appointed to enforce this law, who were to send in an annual report to the Minister of the Interior.<sup>(2)</sup>

Factory Act of 1873.

In 1876 a law was passed regulating the sanitary condition of tobacco and cigar factories, which up to that time had been extremely deficient. This law applies to all establishments where more than five persons are employed, and provides for the ventilation and cleanliness of all workrooms. The premises are to be cleaned each evening, the floor to be washed once a month. Drying-rooms must not be used as work-rooms, and the warm air from them must not be used for heating purposes, nor must any operation productive of dust be carried on in the work-rooms.

Laws on tobacco factories.

Match factories are regulated by the Match Act of February 14th, 1874, and the regulations for match factories of 1876. The first Act entirely prohibited the manufacture of poisonous lucifer matches. Matches must now be made so that they will ignite only on a specially prepared surface. Denmark was thus the first country which entirely prohibited the use of poisonous phosphorus for matches. But as the manufacture of even "safety matches" was attended by considerable dangers to the workers on account of the explosive nature of match-heads, special provisions were introduced into the metropolitan factories in 1876 and into the provincial factories in the following year. Rules were then laid down as to how the match-heads and striking surfaces were to be made, and also as to the drying and packing of matches; the arrangement of the workrooms and their relative situation was also fixed, so that the danger of a general conflagration was averted, and in case of fire the escape of the hands was insured. The employment of children under 14 years of age in the preparation of the heads was

Laws on match factories.

forbidden, as was also their presence in the rooms where finished matches are dried.<sup>(3)</sup>

In 1878 the Labour Commission was appointed; in 1883 a conference of doctors met to discuss the question of accidents, and in the same year a commission was appointed by the Government to report on the best means for the prevention of accidents.

The laws of March 30th and April 12th, 1889, were the outcome of these commissions. The former regulated the conditions of apprenticeship, the latter provided for the proper fencing of dangerous machinery. The enforcement of all these laws was entrusted to the two inspectors appointed by the Act of 1873 who are, however, now assisted by 12 sub-inspectors, and by "controllers" (*Tilsynsmænd*) appointed by the municipalities, whose powers only extended to the machinery driven by water, wind, or horse-power in their respective districts.

Laws of 1889.

No sanitary law exists which is applicable to all factories, nor has any special law been passed for the protection of women engaged in industry.<sup>(4)</sup>

In 1888 the number of factories subject to inspection throughout the country was 761, in which 2,383 children between the ages of 10 and 14 were employed, 2,824 young persons under 18, and 21,263 adult workers, of whom 16,243 were men and 5,120 women.<sup>(5)</sup> The inspectors' report for the years 1889 to 1891, during which time the law on the safety of machinery had come into force, shows a large increase in the number of establishments subject to inspection. 4,230 factories, workshops, and farms using machinery were brought under legal control during that period. In the latest report, that for 1891-2, the total number of establishments inspected had risen to 4,551, and these were placed in three classes according to the kind of work done in them. The first class comprises factories and workshops in which motive power is used or in which protected persons are employed. The second class includes dairies and farms, in so far as they employ motive power. In the third class are placed those industrial establishments, not included in either of the preceding classes, in which machinery is driven by steam, gas, or other motive power.

Inspection.

The number of children employed in the factories of the first group during the year 1891-2 was 2,733, that of young persons 3,731, showing an increase on the previous year of 214 children, 286 young persons, and 21,486 adults.

The inspectors' reports for the years 1889-91, during which time the law on the safety of machinery had come into force, show a large increase in the number of establishments subject to inspection. The number of factories inspected was 1,949, employing 2,519 children, 3,445 young persons, and 36,542 adults; the number of dairies and farms was 1,365, together with 141 other establishments using motive power, and 775 portable machines. Finally, 4,416 boilers, with a total of 47,427 horse-power, were regularly inspected and tested. The latest report, that for the year 1891-2, classifies the factories inspected in the following groups:—

	Number of Factories Inspected.	Number under the Factory Act.	Number of Children.	Young Persons.	Adults.
I. Manufacture of hardware	293	222	43	1,301	9,022
II. Preparation of minerals	188	54	199	229	5,338
III. Manufacture of wooden articles.	292	72	45	199	2,719
IV. Paper and printing trades	235	208	152	645	3,115
V. Textile trades	314	140	446	659	6,505
VI. Chemical trades	91	28	153	142	1,955
VII. Food industries	365	67	109	153	6,124
VIII. Tobacco and cigar trade	187	129	1,586	397	2,446
IX. Steam mills	133	5	—	6	800
Total	2,048	925	2,733	3,731	38,028

The number of children employed shows an increase on the preceding year of 214, whilst the increase of young persons is 286, and that of adults 1,486.

The dairies and farms using motive power which were placed under inspection by the law of April 12, 1889, reached the number of 1,403 in 1891-92, showing

an increase of 38 on the previous year; 1,100 other establishments, belonging to class 3, were also inspected. The total number of accidents which occurred during the year in all the three classes was 200. Of these, 116, or 58 per cent., resulted in trifling injuries, 41, or 20.5 per cent., were more serious, but did not

(1) Statistik over Norges Fabrikantlæg ved Udgangen af Aaret, 1890, pp. 1-20.

(2) Fredholm. Arbetsrelagstiftningen och Fabrikinspektionen i Utlandet, pp. 120-2.

(3) Lehmann. Denmark, its Medical Organisation, Hygiene, and Demography, p. 176.

(4) *Id.*, p. 182. Conditions du Travail en Danemark, pp. 24-8.

(5) Beregning om Arbejdstilsynets Virksomhed i Aret, 1889, p. 1.

leave lasting consequences, 23, or 11·5 per cent., resulted in partial disablement, and 14, or 7 per cent., proved fatal. Twenty prosecutions took place during the year for infractions of the "Safety of Machinery" Law (*Maskinbeskyttelsesloven*).<sup>(1)</sup>

The law does not define what it means by workshops of the nature of a factory, but provides that disputed cases shall be referred to the Minister of the Interior. The factories now under inspection include the principal metal and machine works, tobacco and cigar factories, textile factories, printing, and chemical works; but a large number of small workshops of every description are still outside the scope of the law.<sup>(2)</sup>

Danish factory legislation, both in theory and practice, is still far from perfect, and though certain very desirable alterations have long been discussed, no serious attempt has been made to effect them. Setting aside the question of reduced hours, which has always encountered the persistent opposition of employers, there remains the still more urgent questions of sanitary inspection and the protection of women and children. It is desirable that the age at which children may begin work should be raised to 12 instead of 10, as at present, that the labour of women should be placed under the same restrictions as those now in force for young persons, that all factories, not only the present limited number, should be inspected, and that the sanitary condition of factories, no less than the safety of machinery should be made the subject of supervision. Factory inspection, however, limited as it is, is not thoroughly carried out. Frequent complaints are made as to the short and scanty nature of the inspectors' reports, which prevent the public from getting any real idea of the conditions of factory labour. The total absence of suggested improvements is conspicuous in these reports, and lends support to the assertion that the law is carried out in the interest of the employer rather than for the benefit of the employed.<sup>(3)</sup>

#### V.—ACCIDENTS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

In no Scandinavian country has the principle of employers' liability yet found general acceptance.

(a) In Sweden.

In Sweden the question is still regulated by the obsolete provisions of the law of 15th June 1864. The problems inherent in industrial enterprise on a large scale were unknown when this law was passed, and its regulations are in consequence better adapted to the circumstances of the domestic servant or apprentice than to operatives under the factory system. No hint as to the obligations of employers towards their injured workpeople can be gathered from this law, and therefore it was that a partial settlement of the question was attempted in the law of 12th March 1886 on the liability of railway companies. According to this law railway companies must pay compensation to all persons killed or injured in their service, provided that the accident was not caused by the gross negligence of the person himself. This isolated case could not, however, be regarded as anything more than a step either towards the introduction of a complete system of employers' liability, or of some other scheme for the protection of workmen against the injuries incident to their work. Under the influence of German legislation the Swedish Government rejected the principle of employers' liability, and proposed to consider the possibilities of insurance against accident.<sup>(1)</sup>

The question of introducing compulsory insurance against accidents was one of the subjects included in the reference of the Swedish Labour Commission. Before proceeding to draw up legislative proposals on this subject the Commission ascertained, by means of a thorough inquiry throughout the kingdom, the actual number of accidents which happened during a given time. Questions were issued to all private employers, to the municipalities, and to the medical profession. The total number of accidents, as returned by employers, was 3,471 for the period from 1st September 1884 to 31st August 1885. The municipal bodies, whose answers were confined to the six months ending 31st August 1885, reported only 98 accidents, while the number reported by the doctors for the whole year was 3,740. The returns made by employers were unfortunately the only ones of any value, as the municipalities failed to state the number of persons to whom accidents had happened. The following table shows the distribution of accidents in the principal occupations of the country and the results which followed:—

Industry.	Total Number of Accidents.	Number resulting in Death.	Number resulting in Permanent Injury.	Number resulting in Temporary Injury.
I. Agriculture, mines, and manufactures - - -	2,853	111	329	2,418
II. Transport by land and sea - - -	540	75	34	431
III. State and communal administration - - -	78	8	4	71
Total - - -	3,471	189	367	2,915

The victims of the 3,471 accidents reported by employers were nearly all men, the number of women who were injured being only 106. The percentage of accidents occurring to women was, according to employers, 3·05, according to the municipal returns, 10·76, and according to the doctors, 10·67 per cent. It was also satisfactory to note that young persons were apparently less exposed to danger than adults, as the number of persons under 18 years of age who sustained injuries was only 250 out of the total 3,471 cases. The following table shows the percentage of accidents, according to age:—

	Industrial workers.	Railway workers.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Under 25 years - - -	30·1	54·6
From 25-35 - - -	19·4	19·0
„ 35-45 - - -	15·3	27·5
„ 45-55 - - -	12·7	21·8
„ 55-65 - - -	11·0	30·2
„ 65-75 - - -	8·1	—

Taking the actual number of accidents in the various industries, the number reported in agricultural pursuits was 2,319, or 8·90 per thousand of the persons employed. Of these, 617 occurred in handling tools and machinery of various kinds, 458 were caused by vehicles or animals, 214 by the falling of goods (*föremål*), 417 by falls from ladders, waggons, &c., and 48 by falling into water.

In mines the total number of accidents was 219, of which 190 took place in metal mines, 31 in coal mines, and 11 in marble and stone quarries. The percentage of accidents among the men employed in mines generally was 29·8, of which 2·2 ended fatally. Two-thirds of these accidents were occasioned by falls of earth or explosions. Fatal accidents are more numerous in mining than in any other industry.

The total number of accidents in metal works was 524, 497 of which occurred in iron forges; 2·1 per cent. of these accidents proved fatal.

Machine making is another branch of industry in which the frequency of accidents becomes serious. The total number reported for the year was 546; of these, 346 took place in machine works and foundries, 139 in dockyards, 54 in sewing machine and arms manufactories, and 7 in instrument works; 506 accidents were

(1) Lehmann. Denmark, its Medical Organisation, Hygiene, and Demography, p. 176.

(2) *Id.*, pp. 10-15.

(3) Lexis. Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften, Vol. I. pp. 475-7.

(1) Queker. Etudes sur les Questions ouvrières, p. 44. Atlas de of Kommerkollegii angående Arbetsförhållningarna i Sverige om Försäkring för Ölycksfall i Arbetet, p. 4.

reported in connexion with factory and saw-mills, 72 of these took place in the cutting or floating of timber, and 17 were attended with fatal consequences, 419 took place in saw-mills, and 15 in timber depôts.

In other industries the number of accidents was not large; 121 occurred among joiners and other wood workers, 127 in the glass and pottery trade, 359 in the building trade, including harbour workers and canal makers, 16 in gas works, 33 in match factories, and 19 in other branches of the chemical trade, 52 in the textile trade, 13 in tanneries, 139 in the whole food industry, 80 in the paper trade, and 16 in the printing trade.<sup>(1)</sup>

The reports of the industrial inspectors for 1890-91 show that a considerable decrease in the number of accidents has taken place since the passing of the law on the safety of machinery. During the first six months after they came into office they had only 11 cases to report for the whole country, nine of which, however, were attended with fatal results. The number for the following year, 1891, was 80, of which 15 proved fatal. In both cases, however, the inspectors had reason to believe that the number of accidents returned fell considerably below the number which actually occurred. In 1890 the inspector of the southern district received indirect information as to six accidents, three of which were fatal, besides those officially reported to him. In 1891 again, 24 accidents occurred in industries not included under the law of 1889. The inspectors all agreed that the present system by which accidents are reported through the communal police leads to imperfect and unsatisfactory returns. They therefore suggest that employers should be obliged to report every accident which entails more than one week's absence from work to the proper authorities (*vederbörande Myndighet*).<sup>(2)</sup>

The large number of accidents which occurred during the period investigated induced the Labour Commission to draw up two Bills which together were to introduce compulsory State insurance against accidents. These Bills were presented to the Riksdag in 1888, and were discussed during the session of 1890. The Board of Commerce (*Kommerskollegium*), however, opposed them as unnecessary and reactionary in principle, and unsatisfactory in detail, and the measures were therefore dropped for a time. In the opinion of M. Millet, they will certainly be brought forward again at no distant period, and in the meantime they deserve careful attention.<sup>(3)</sup>

The Bill for the compulsory insurance of workmen against accidents lays down firstly, the principle of compulsory insurance, and then proceeds to enumerate the occupations to which the proposed insurance is to apply. These are railways, tramways, the loading and discharging of ships, mines and navvies' work, forges, blast furnaces, the timber trade, building trades, factories, and all Swedish ships in the merchant service which are registered at more than 30 tons' burden. A special law regulates the insurance of smaller vessels. Employers in the above industries are to insure all their men in the State Insurance Fund (*Riksförsäkringsanstalten*) and the premiums are to be paid entirely by them, whether they are single individuals, partners in business, a company, or a commune. Persons in the employ of the Government are to be insured at the expense of the Treasury.

A noticeable feature of the Bill is that no relief is to be given until two weeks after the accident has occurred. In fixing this interval the Swedish Commission has only followed the example of the German and Austrian legislatures, where the intervals are 13 and four weeks respectively. In these countries, however, the compulsory sick insurance societies are ready to fill the gap, whereas in Sweden the private sick funds have not yet been able to obtain even a subsidy from the State. If the accident results in complete disablement the Bill proposes to grant a benefit of 60 per cent. of the injured person's annual earnings for as long as the illness lasts. The benefit paid in cases of partial disablement is to be in proportion to the injury incurred, and is to continue for the whole length of the illness. In case of death the widow of the deceased person is to receive a benefit of 20 per cent. of the annual earnings of her husband, until she

marries again; children are to receive 10 per cent. of their father's earnings until they have completed their 15th year. The funeral benefit is to be 5 per cent. of the annual earnings of the deceased person, and these earnings are to be reckoned as 300 times the amount of the daily wage. No sums over 1,600 kr. will, however, be taken into account, but if the yearly earnings are found to be less than 400 kr. the benefit is to be reckoned as if they reached that sum. The various industries are to be placed in five classes according to the degree of danger they present, which classes will be subject to revision every five years.

Whenever an accident occurs inquiry must be made as to its cause, results, and the earnings of the injured persons. The persons by whom this inquiry is to be conducted are the employers, the injured person, or his family, and the local representative of the State insurance fund.

The amount of the benefit to be granted is fixed by these persons, but appeal may be made from their decision to a council of six members appointed by the King whose decision is to be final. The second Bill formulated the constitution of the State insurance fund and fixed its functions.<sup>(4)</sup>

The Board of Commerce (*Kommerskollegium*) objected to these proposals, on the ground that compulsory insurance was a breach of that freedom of contract which formed an integral part of Swedish industrial law. In practice, the Board of Commerce believed that such a measure would weaken the sense of personal responsibility, both in employers and employed, and would go far to destroy the spirit of self-help and independence which had grown up amongst the working classes during the last 20 years. But besides the objections which they urged against the principle of compulsory insurance, the Board believed that its introduction would be attended with serious results to the trade of the country. Insurance would probably mean an additional expense to employers of about 1½ per cent. on their expenditure in wages, and the burden thus imposed on industries in which wages form the chief expenses of production would be intolerable. To take an example: In 1886 a certain mining company, the Stora Kopparberg Bergslag, employed 3,188 men and spent 2,400,000 kr. in wages. If, then, the company was obliged to insure its men, its expenses would be increased by 30,000 kr. a year.

Again, employers would not only be burdened with heavy insurance premiums, but would also be obliged to take their share in the poor rates for the support of those incapacitated by accidents outside the limit of the insured trades. It was absurd to suppose that any employers would be prepared to submit to such deprivations without making an effort to reimburse themselves, and this attempt would, in all probability, prove more disastrous to the working classes than any risks arising from accidents. Employers might seek compensation, either in raising prices or in lowering wages, and if the premiums paid by employers meant simply so much deducted from wages it was difficult to see how the scheme would prove any advantage to the working classes.<sup>(5)</sup> It is evident that the above objections are of the kind to be expected from capitalists, and they cannot therefore be regarded as an exhaustive statement of the case.

According to the existing law, employers in Norway are only liable for those accidents which they have personally caused, and this liability does not extend to accidents caused by foremen or others to whom the employer's authority is temporarily delegated. Exceptions to this law have, however, been made for certain classes of industry. The mining law of 14th July 1842 obliges mine owners to provide for their injured workmen, without regard to the cause of the accident. This provision consists of free medicine and medical attendance, together with full wages for the first two months and half wages for the following four months.

The law of 24th March 1860 obliges shipowners to provide for persons who incur injuries in their service for four weeks, whether the accident was caused by the fault of the ship's crew or not.

Farmers are obliged by the provisions of the Poor Law to provide for their servants (*tyende*) if taken ill in their service for a period of four weeks, and the same obligation is placed upon factory owners by the law of 15th June 1881.

(1) Arbetsförsäkringskommittens Betänkande, III., 1. Olycksfall i Arbetet, pp. 27, 30, 66-78. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 87-98.

(2) Sammandrag af Trycksinspektörernas Berättelser för Åren, 1890 och 1891, pp. 14, 27, 28.

(3) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 104-5. Utlåtande af Kommerskollegium angående Forslag om Försäkring för Olycksfall i

(4) Arbetsförsäkringskommittens Betänkande, I., 1, pp. 20-45.

(5) Utlåtande af Kommerskollegium angående Arbetsförsäkringskommittens Forslag om Försäkring för Olycksfall i Arbetet, pp. 4-17.

Bill for  
compulsory  
insurance  
against  
accidents.

(b) In  
Norway.

The principle which underlies these various enactments is now generally recognised as valid for all industries and occupations. It is agreed that the community should not be burdened, through its poor rates, with a charge which ought to form part of the expenses of production of each individual employer. The comparatively small place occupied by industry in Norway, and the very recent development of large industries, has not exempted it from its full share of accidents. It is estimated that among the 50,000 men employed in industrial pursuits 30 cases of accidental death occur every year, 5 of total disablement, and at least 100 of partial disablement. If these figures be compared with the accident statistics of a great industrial country like Germany, Norway will be found relatively at a disadvantage. The number of fatal accidents in Germany is about 35 out of every 50,000 workers; the cases of total disablement are

between 9 and 10, while the number of partially-disabled persons is actually rather less than in Norway.<sup>(1)</sup>

The hardships entailed upon workmen by the existing law have long been acknowledged, and the question of insurance against accidents was one of the subjects for which the Labour Commission was invited to prepare a Bill. The Commission followed the example of its predecessor in Sweden, in sending out questions to all employers throughout the country as to the number and cause of the accidents occurring in their works. This inquiry was protracted through the years 1885 and 1886, and its results were held to justify the Commission in proceeding to draw up a Bill on compulsory insurance. The number of accidents occurring among men only during the two years in the principal industries of the country were found to be as follows:—

Industry.	Date.	Number resulting in Death.	Total Number of Accidents.	Total Number of Employed.
1. Mining	1885	4	200	2,206
	1886	1	185	2,044
2. Ice industry	1885	2	11	819
	1886	1	6	494
3. Timber trade	1885	1	2	90
	1886	—	1	109
4. Factories and industrial workshops	1885	15	509	24,816
	1886	9	315	17,149
5. Manual labour ( <i>Haandverksbedrifter</i> )	1885	8	90	5,385
	1886	—	55	3,236
Total	1885	25	812	33,316
	1886	11	560	23,072

The number of accidents which happened to women during 1885 was 25, and during 1886, 23.

The following table shows the percentage of accidents with their results in Norway, as compared with Sweden:—

	Percentage of Accidents which have resulted in —			
	Death.	Permanent Injury.	Temporary Injury.	Total.
According to Swedish (employers') returns	3.58	10.41	86.01	100
„ Norwegian returns	2.45	14.72	82.74	100

In Norway, as in Sweden, it was found that the victims of accidents were adult males in the great majority of cases. As stated above, only 25 of the 837 accidents occurring in 1885 happened to women, and in 1886 only 23 out of 583. As regards the age of the injured persons, only 70 out of the total number of accidents for 1885 happened to persons under 18 years of age, and in 1886 this number fell to 38.

The cause of the accidents reported was not given in all cases. Taking the two years 1885 and 1886 together, the total number of accidents was 1420, but the cause of the accident was recorded for 1,107 cases only. Of these, 140 were caused by the use of tools, 443 by machinery, while 624 arose from other causes. If these numbers are reduced to percentages for the sake of comparison with those given by the Swedish Commission, the following proportions will be found:—

	Sweden.	Norway.
Caused by tools	13.0	12.6
Caused by machinery	28.4	31.0
Arising from other causes	58.6	56.4

The report of the Norwegian Commission does not give the causes of accidents in each particular industry, so that comparison with the returns of the Swedish Commission is impossible in this respect.<sup>(1)</sup>

(1) Statistiske Undersøgelser angaaende Ulykkestilfælde under Arbejde ved Norske Industrielle Virksomheder, pp. 4-11, 13, 15, 38, 40. Cf. also Statistiska Undersökningar, III., 1. (Sweden), p. 56 and Table 9.

In 1890 the Commission presented an accident insurance Bill to the Department of the Interior, by which accident insurance was to be made compulsory for all workmen employed in factories, workshops, or other industrial establishments using motive power. Under this general description is included mines and quarries, the ice industry, industries dealing with explosive materials, the building trade, transport industries, including docks and canals, the floating of timber, the loading and discharging of ships, warehouse labour, chimney sweeps, and persons employed in fire brigades, and in salvage generally. Insurance is to be effected through a public insurance fund guaranteed by the State, and co-extensive with the country. The premiums are to be reckoned according to the wages earned by the person in question and the degree of danger which his occupation presents. The various industries are to be divided into six classes for this purpose, and the percentage of wages paid as premiums will be as follows:—

	Per cent.
1st class	0.5
2nd „	0.7
3rd „	1.1
4th „	1.5
5th „	2.0
6th „	2.5

These premiums are to be paid entirely by the employed. The benefits which they secure begin after the illness caused by an accident has lasted three

(1) Arbejder Kommissionens Indstilling, III., pp. 24-28. Quaker. Etudes sur les Questions ouvrières, pp. 40-42. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, p. 126.

weeks, and consist of (1) medicine and medical attendance for as long as is necessary; (2) sick pay, amounting to 60 per cent. of the annual wage of the person in question. This amount is only paid to persons who are entirely disabled from work (whether the disablement lasts for a longer or shorter time) and who have at least one child under 15 years of age. In other cases the benefit is fixed at 50 per cent. of the annual wage, but must not exceed 150 kr. a year. The benefit given in cases of partial incapacity is to be proportioned to the extent of such incapacity, but no benefit can be given where the incapacity entails a loss of less than 5 per cent. of the wages ordinarily earned. In case of death (1) a sum of 50 kr. is paid for funeral expenses; (2) pensions to the family of the deceased. If the widow (or widower) is incapacitated, he or she may receive a pension of 20 per cent. of the deceased person's wages, and 15 per cent. for every legitimate child under 15 years of age. If both father and mother are killed through an accident each child under 15 may receive 15 per cent. of the wages of both parents. Ancestors in the direct line who were dependent on the deceased are entitled to 20 per cent. of his wages. If the widow marries again she receives three times the amount of her annual allowance once for all. The wages upon which the pension is calculated are those earned by the deceased during the year which preceded the accident. The wages of apprentices are reckoned at 1 kr. 50 a day for boys and 1 kr. for girls.

Accidents are not to involve employers in any liability unless they are caused by personal negligence. "Contracting-out" is entirely prohibited.

The constitution of the insurance fund which is dealt with in a separate Bill is to consist of the central management, the committee of supervision, the acting committee (*Repräsentantskabet*), and the communal management. Some of the members of these bodies are to be chosen by the King and some by the *Storting*.<sup>(1)</sup>

The three laws which now constitute the labour legislation of Denmark, namely, the Factory Act of 1873, the Match Factory Act of 1876, and the Protection of Machinery Law of 1889, inflict certain penalties upon the employer who neglects to provide for the safety of his workpeople, but they make no provision for compensation to the workman for injuries incurred in the course of his work. The law of 12th April 1889, makes each person responsible for the consequences of an accident of which he himself has been the cause, and hence employers are not liable for accidents caused by their agents. The only way in which the workman can now obtain compensation, is by a lawsuit carried on in accordance with sections 301 and 302 of the penal code.

The task of remedying these unsatisfactory relations by means of accident insurance was committed to the Labour Commission of 1884, and the Bill prepared by them has since been submitted by Parliament to the consideration of a special committee, whose report is not yet published.

Before drawing up its proposals the Commission made inquiries as to the number and results of the accidents which had taken place throughout the country during the five years from 1880 to 1884, inclusive. As a result of these investigations, it was found that 94 deaths had been caused by accidents in Copenhagen alone during this period, whilst the deaths in the provincial towns numbered 36, and in the country 181. The total number of deaths was, therefore, 311, but this number included only those cases in which death had either followed the accident immediately or after a short illness. If the 200 deaths actually caused by accidents, though happening some time later, be added, the total number of cases is raised to some 500, or about 100 deaths a year. These fatal accidents were distributed among the various trades and districts in the following proportions:—

Industry.	Copenhagen.	Towns.	Country.	Together.
1. Railways	3	6	5	13
2. Building trade	39	5	5	49
3. Woll spinning	—	—	13	13
4. Other manual crafts	1	—	1	2
5. Industry	17	9	31	57
6. Day labourers*	24	7	57	88
7. Servants (Tyende)	19	9	60	87
Total	96	36	181	311

(1) *Arbejderkommissionens Indstilling III.*, pp. 1-10. 66-70. *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 130-9.

\* In as far as they are not included in the other classes.

The number of non-fatal accidents was found to be 80 in Copenhagen, and about 700 in the rural districts and provincial towns taken together, or 156 non-fatal accidents each year. About one-third of these accidents, however, involved only slight injuries, such as the loss of a finger; if, therefore, these are excluded, and those cases only are reckoned which entailed some actual diminution of working power, the number per year is reduced to about 100. There were thus 100 cases of death and 100 cases of disablement of a greater or less degree, caused by accidents every year.<sup>(1)</sup>

The Commission was not able to come to any unanimous conclusion as to the class of persons to be included in the proposed accident insurance law; some wished to include all workmen whether they worked for employers or on their own account, whilst others were desirous of confining the benefits of accident insurance to those who had proved their willingness to help themselves by subscribing to a sick fund. The Bill, in the form in which it was presented to Parliament was an attempt to combine both views, and at least in two respects the compromise can hardly be regarded as satisfactory. In the first place serious accidents might easily happen in occupations outside the scope of the law; and, secondly, the whole scheme was so bound up with the Commission's Bill on sick benefit societies, that failure on the part of the one would have compromised the working of the other. The Bill also differed from those proposed in Sweden and Norway, in that the insurance fund which it proposed to create was not a State fund.<sup>(2)</sup>

The Bill in consequence of these defects was allowed to fall through, and a second project was brought before Parliament in 1890. This bill proposes to establish a scheme of compulsory State insurance on the German model, with a special fund administered by State officials. Neither employers nor workmen are to take any part in the administration, but they may be represented on the board of arbitration to which the decision of disputed cases is referred. The persons included in the Bill are (1) industrial workers, (2) agricultural labourers, (3) sailors and fishermen. Compensation is to be given to every insured person in proportion to the degree of incapacity caused by the accident, and to the amount of wages previously earned. The indemnity cannot, however, in any case exceed two-thirds of the annual wages of the person in question. In case of death the funeral expenses are to be paid, and the widow is to receive a pension equal to 14 per cent. of the wages of her deceased husband, while each child under 15 years of age is entitled to a pension of 7 per cent., provided that the whole sum received by the family does not amount to more than 35 per cent. of the wages of the deceased. The Government reserves to itself the right of exempting employers who have insured their men in private insurance societies from the obligations placed upon them by the Bill. This Bill has passed the third reading in the *Landsting*, and was read for the second time in March 1891 by the *Folkething*.<sup>(3)</sup>

## VI. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

### 1. APPRENTICESHIP.

The modern movement in favour of the regulation of labour has found expression in legislation on apprenticeship, in Norway and Denmark, but in Sweden nothing has been done to alter or amplify the very meagre provisions of the law of 18th June 1864, on the extension of industrial freedom. This law simply states that all employers who engage workpeople must draw up a contract in the presence of witnesses in which the conditions of employment are clearly stated. Employers are also bound to see that their workmen and servants conduct themselves in a pious, moral, and orderly manner, whilst workmen are vaguely commanded to be obedient and willing in the performance of their duties. The only definite restriction placed on masters is the prohibition to employ children under 12, or to require young persons under 18 years of age to work at night. The inadequacy of these provisions has not, however, led to any general neglect of apprenticeship; custom has filled the place left vacant by legislation, and in this way the training of apprentices has been secured. Among recent improvements may

(a) In Sweden.

(1) For statistics of the accidents which have happened since the passing of the Protection of Machinery Law, see p.

(2) *Kommissionens Betænkning*, pp. 70-100. *Statistik Fremstilling af Ulykkestilfælde under Arbejdet i Danmark 1880-84*. Braun. Archiv für Soziale Ges. (Zeitung und Statistik), Vol. III., p. 250.

(3) *French Parliamentary Reports*. Chamber of Deputies, session of 1892, No. 1923, p. 17.

he mentioned the institution by the Board of Commerce of a system of travelling expenses to be paid to workmen journeying abroad for the purpose of "acquiring greater knowledge and practice in their different trades." Men already abroad when the grant is allotted receive 22*l.* each, the rest 28*l.* each; out of 230 applicants on May 10, 1893, the Board of Commerce recommended grants to 43 persons belonging to 32 distinct trades, the total amount payable being 1,146*l.*(<sup>1</sup>)

(b) In Norway.

In Norway apprenticeship is regulated by the law of 15th June 1881, the aim of which was to re-establish Chapters III. and IV. of the Industrial Code of 1839, which presupposed the guild system, and to harmonize them with the principle of freedom of industry. By the terms of the existing law the indentures of apprenticeship must be drawn up in writing; the term of service may not last longer than five years with an additional 12 months of probation. If the person indentured is a minor he may not be bound beyond his twentieth year. Masters are expected to give their apprentices board and lodging in the absence of any stipulation to the contrary. The duty of the master is to train the apprentice in his trade, to pay for his instruction in a technical school, and to employ him in such work only as was provided for in the indentures. In case of the master's death, the apprentice is free from his contract, unless the widow continues to carry on her husband's trade. The contract may be terminated when either party becomes incapable of fulfilling the obligations he has undertaken. An apprentice may be dismissed for theft, persistent disobedience, immorality, or any grave misconduct. The apprentice may leave his master if ill-treated, or if the conditions of his contract are not carried out. He may also leave if he wishes to change his trade; in this case, if he is a minor, the permission of his parents or guardian must be obtained. Breaches of the contract of apprenticeship must be compensated by payment of damages to the party injured. At the conclusion of his time the apprentice must pass an examination conducted by three persons appointed by the municipality, and if the result is satisfactory he receives a certificate from the examiner (*Svendebrev*), entitling him to work as a journeyman, and a certificate of apprenticeship from his master. If the master has failed to give his apprentice the education necessary to pass the examination, the master can be sentenced to pay damages.

Persons employing workmen without certificates are liable to the penalties inflicted by section 31 of the law on those who employ apprentices who have broken their contract with their former employers (<sup>2</sup>). (For the settlement of disputes between masters and apprentices, see p. 42.)

(c) In Denmark.

A Bill "on the conditions of apprenticeship for persons of both sexes," was presented to the Danish Parliament during the sessions of 1880 and 1881. Failing to pass, it was brought forward again in 1889, and after some modifications it was passed, and immediately put into force. This law, like the Norwegian law, limits the duration of apprenticeship to five years, and prohibits any person to be bound after he has reached his twentieth year. In its other provisions, however, this law is more detailed and far-reaching than its predecessor in Norway, and gives ample proof of the desire which exists in Denmark to bring the domain of industry once again under strict control. The law begins by defining a master as any artisan, manufacturer, or retail dealer who undertakes to teach his trade to another, and declares that if the master in question exercises his trade under a patent, and if the person employed is under 18 years of age, a contract of apprenticeship must be drawn up in writing. The local authorities must state that the contract is drawn up in accordance with the law, and if this form is not observed the contract is legally void. The local authorities are obliged to furnish indenture forms gratis. Three classes of persons are forbidden to receive apprentices: (1) those who have been found guilty of dishonourable actions; (2) those, who through failure or any other cause have already rescinded their contracts three times; (3) those who have been guilty of infractions of contract leading to the termination of the same three times within the last five years. The indentures must state whether the master is expected to feed and clothe his apprentice; or, if he is merely to pay him wages, the amount of such wages must be fixed. It must also be stated whether the master

undertakes to pay for his apprentice's education at a technical school and bear the expense of the final examination. The first three months are regarded as a probation, during which either of the parties may require the annulment of the contract without stating any reason. The hours of apprentices in occupations protected by the law of 23rd May 1873 are to be fixed conformably to this law. Children between 10 and 14 years of age may not therefore work more than six hours a day with an interval of half-an-hour for rest, whilst young persons between 14 and 18 are limited to 12 hours' work with two hours' rest. Apprentices under 18 in trades to which the law of 1875 does not apply are confined by the apprentices law to a 12 hours' day with two hours' rest, exceptions being, however, granted to bakers' apprentices, and in Copenhagen to pastry cooks and confectioners in addition. No apprentice can be required to work before 5 a.m. or after 9 p.m., except by special permission from the Minister of the Interior, nor on Sundays or festivals of the National Church after nine in the morning. Masters may not employ their apprentices in work alien to their trade, nor in any work which is beyond their strength to perform; they are also to watch over the conduct of their apprentices and to guard them from immoral influences. The master is bound to teach his apprentice to the best of his ability, and to prepare him for his examination. If the apprentice fails to pass, the master must give him a certificate stating the length of his apprenticeship and the degree of skill which he has attained. If his failure is due to insufficient instruction the master must pay compensation, the amount of which is to be fixed by arbitration. The law further provides at great length for the various cases in which either party may cease to be legally bound by the contract. These are in the main similar to those in the Norwegian law mentioned above. All disputes arising from this law are to be submitted to arbitration. In Copenhagen the arbitrator must be a member of the municipal administration, in provincial towns a mayor, and in the country a constable, together with two other persons chosen respectively by the master and the apprentice. The arbitrators are confined to one of two decisions, they must either award damages to the injured party or rescind the contract.<sup>(1)</sup>

This law, minute and careful as its provisions are, does not satisfy the desires of those who wish to organise labour and industry on the model of the mediaeval guilds. A State Commission has accordingly been appointed, and its report, recently published by the Minister of the Interior, recommends the practical re-establishment of the guild system. The Minister of the Interior is to authorise the formation of industrial societies or guilds, which shall be recognised by the State, and the members of which may take the title of master (*Mester*) and use the badge (*Fugmærke*) of the guild. These societies are to be practically compulsory trade syndicates, as every member of a trade must either belong to the guild established in his trade, or at least pay the subscription exigible from members. These guilds are to manage technical schools and schools of trade and commerce, propose State subventions for certain masters in their trade, and are to have the right of sending in their productions to the State lotteries. Admission to any trade is only to be obtained through the guild. Every person who wishes to become an artisan, tradesman, or factory operative must pass an apprenticeship examination or have been trained in a technical school. In commercial businesses, where there is no question of manual skill all persons entering the business must be examined by the head of the concern in the theory and practice of book-keeping.<sup>(2)</sup>

Schools for the promotion of technical education have been established in Sweden during the present century in fairly large numbers. There are now twenty-seven schools of agriculture, as well as two agricultural colleges in which more advanced teaching may be obtained. The Institute of Forestry must also be mentioned with its six schools of forestry, and the nine schools of navigation. Technical schools specially intended to promote the development of industry have also been founded in several parts of the kingdom. The most important of these are, the Technical High School at Stockholm, the Chalmers Technical Institute at Gothenbourg and the Technical School of Stockholm, which was founded in 1846. The school is open from October to May, and is frequented by large numbers of

Technical Education.  
(a) in Sweden.

(1) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 32, 70, Labour Gazette, June, p. 45.

(2) Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 117-9.

(1) Conditions du Travail en Danemark, pp. 35-9.

(2) Nationalökonomisk Tidskrift, 1893, p. 305. L'Association Catholique, 1892, p. 545.

persons belonging very largely to the working classes. The chief subjects taught are drawing, mathematics, book-keeping and languages. Sunday and evening schools, in which similar instruction is given are to be found in five provincial towns, and one of these, that of Eskilstuna, which is situated in an iron-working district, gives instruction in the elements of metallurgy. Various societies have been established for the encouragement of home industries in the rural districts. Weaving is still carried on by the peasant women in several districts, whilst men occupy themselves in winter in the manufacture of nails and cutlery. The technical education of women is provided for in the capital by a school which gives almost the same instruction as that afforded by the technical school for men, but outside Stockholm little special provision has been made for women beyond the establishment of schools of housekeeping, needlework, and cookery.<sup>(1)</sup>

† In Denmark.

The existing technical schools of Denmark date from the third decade of the present century. Prior to that time some attempts at technical training had been made, but without any important result. In 1837 the Joiners' Drawing Society (*Snedkeres Tegneforening*) was founded, the following year saw the institution of the Industrial Union, and in 1840 the Artisans' Society was established. None of these societies, however, offered the exact union of theoretical and practical knowledge requisite for thorough technical training, and hence a new institution, the Technical School of Copenhagen, was established in 1843. This institution owes its origin entirely to the efforts of one man, Kramp, who, himself a joiner by trade, saw the necessity of better training for young artisans than they were then able to procure. Kramp estimated that there were in the capital alone no less than 8,000 young artisans who needed instruction in drawing and mathematics. His aim was to establish a scheme of education which would develop the reason and taste of the worker whilst he was at the same time acquiring a practical mastery of his trade. The necessary funds were obtained by public subscriptions, the King gave 300 rigsdalers from the industrial fund and this formed the origin of the subsequent annual state subsidy. The expectations of the founder were realised even from the first year. In 1843 the school was frequented by 400 persons, 131 of whom were joiners. Branches were shortly afterwards established in the provinces, in 1847 nine provincial schools were in existence, but then followed a dead period until a fresh impetus was given to technical education by the coming into force of the Industrial Code of 1859.

The educational work which had formerly been done by the guilds now devolved entirely upon the technical schools, with the result that, in spite of the overwhelming difficulties which they had to encounter, three or four new schools sprang up every year in different parts of the country. In Copenhagen the extension of technical training brought to light the great need for better general education, and thus the technical schools added classes for Danish, arithmetic, bookkeeping, &c. to their programme, until they practically became continuation schools. Among the later developments may be mentioned the Industrial Museum and the school of industrial art for women.

A school for the instruction of dairy hands has lately been established at Ladulund where a five months' course of instruction is given in mechanics, physics, chemistry, anatomy of domestic animals, and the practical testing of milk. This course is attended by about 50 persons each year, all of whom have had practical experience of dairy work.

In 1879, 63 schools, with 4,513 students, existed in the provinces, which gave 28,531 hours' instruction during the year. The State subsidy to the schools of Copenhagen was at that time 28,000 kr. and to the provincial schools 35,000 kr. In 1892, the number of schools in the provinces had risen to 84 with 8,700 students and 80,000 hours of teaching, whilst some 2,000 students frequented the schools of Copenhagen. The State subsidy received by the schools of Copenhagen amounted to 40,000 kr., whilst 70,000 kr. were paid to the provincial schools in addition to the sums granted for new school buildings.<sup>(2)</sup>

## 2. NOTICE REQUIRED FOR TERMINATION OF ENGAGEMENT.

(a) In Sweden.

Allusion has already been made to the unsatisfactory nature of the Swedish law of 18th June 1864. It

stipulates that a contract of service be made in the presence of witnesses, but does not mention the conditions which may or may not be included in such a contract, and the penalties consequent upon breaches of the law are naturally never enforced<sup>(1)</sup>.

Labour contracts in Norway are regulated by the law of 15th June 1881, which applies to employer and employed as well as to masters and apprentices. According to this law the agreement made between an employer and a workman as to the performance of some particular work cannot be broken as long as the work remains unfinished. The ordinary period of notice for both parties is 15 days, unless some agreement has been made to the contrary. A workman may be dismissed without notice for insubordination, incapability, intemperance, or misconduct, and may leave without giving notice if he is subjected to ill-treatment or defrauded of his wages. Employers are obliged to give a written certificate to men who leave their employment for legitimate reasons. If the reason is adjudged to be illegitimate, the injured party can recover damages. An industrial court (*Handværkaret*) established in each town, and consisting of a magistrate, an employer, and a workman, decides upon all disputes between employers and their operatives. The members of the court are appointed by the president from a list of names prepared each year by the municipality. Half of the names on the list must be renewed each year, and must always comprise at least four employers and an equal number of employed. The meetings of the court are held as occasion requires. Appeal can be made from the decisions of this court to that of a court consisting of the same president and four assessors. No payment is given to the assessors of either court. In towns where such industrial courts do not exist, the same functions can be performed by the justices of the peace. Masters who neglect to make out a contract of apprenticeship can be condemned by the industrial courts to pay a fine of 4 kr. and upwards for every week's delay, provided that the total amount of the fine does not exceed 200 kr. Other breaches of the law are punishable by fines of from 2 to 200 kr. to be paid to the poor rates of the district<sup>(2)</sup>. The Factory Act of 27th June 1892 agrees with previous legislation in fixing 15 days as the period of notice incumbent on both parties to a permanent contract. It defines a permanent worker as one who has been regularly employed at his present work for at least four weeks. No notice is to be expected from either side if work is interrupted by accidents, or other unforeseen circumstances, but this last category does not include failure. Workmen must have a copy of their agreement in their possession for at least 24 hours before signing it, in order that they may be thoroughly apprised of its contents, and after it is signed copies must be retained by both parties. The contract cannot be rescinded by the employer before the time therein specified, unless the workman has been guilty of serious misconduct, nor can the workman break the contract unless the employer has treated him, or allowed him to be treated, in a manner contrary to the law or the agreement. An agreement, based on conditions as to payment of wages, fines, &c., which are opposed to the terms of this law, is to be considered null. Employers who dismiss their men, and men who leave work illegally, are subjected to fines varying from 5 to 200 kr. for employers, and from 2 to 200 kr. for the employed<sup>(3)</sup>.

(b) In Norway.

In Denmark contracts between employers and employed are entirely a private matter; both parties are expected to give notice of the termination of an engagement, but the law does not interfere if, as in the case of strikes, no such notice is given. The only means of redress for losses caused by breach of contract is through a lawsuit conducted in the ordinary way. The plaintiff is obliged to prove that the breach of contract has caused him a loss, and must also show the amount of the loss before he can claim damages.<sup>(4)</sup>

(c) In Denmark.

(1) Lavollée. *Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe*, Vol. II., pp. 287-90.  
(2) *Nationalsökonomisk Tidskrift*, 1883, pp. 449-57. *Conditions du Travail en Danemark*, pp. 68-69. *Foreign Office Reports, Misc. Series*, 1888, No. 101, p. 2.

(1) Quaker *Etudes sur les Questions ouvrières*, p. 165.  
(2) *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 117-119.  
(3) Brønnes. *Socialreformen i de nordiske Lande* II. b. *Arbejdskontrakter*. *Loi du 27 juin 1882 sur l'inspection du Travail dans le Faïrique*, § 51, 41.  
(4) Brønnes. *Arbejdskontrakter, Kontraktbrød og Afbrødes af Arbejdsindtægter*. *Conditions du Travail en Danemark*, p. 22.



## B. ORGANISATIONS.

## I. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED.

## 1. Organisations of Employers.

The development of trades unionism in Scandinavia has produced its usual result, namely, the formation of defensive associations among employers. When the working classes of Denmark first showed themselves capable of concerted action, and strikes were organised throughout a whole trade, the employers were surprised and taken unawares. The only organisations through which they could oppose the associated workmen were the trade guilds of Copenhagen, which still retained some faint traces of their former power. But when put to the test the guilds proved utterly incapable of maintaining a determined struggle, and the truth that new organisations were needed slowly forced itself upon employers. The movement in favour of masters' associations has not even yet been generally accepted, but the need of some united body authorised to communicate with the trades unions, and able to make war or peace, is now recognised in many of the more important trades. The provinces, and not Copenhagen, have taken the lead in this movement. The first organisation founded was the North Jutland Association of Master Bakers. This society dates from the year 1874, and very shortly afterwards that centralising tendency, which forms, as will be seen, so marked a feature of Danish trade unionism, was manifested in the formation of district unions in which all the employers of the district should be represented. The first three district unions were formed in Jutland, Ostifterne, and Copenhagen, and these were again federated into one common association co-extensive with the whole country. At the present time some 25 of these joint associations are in existence, and are generally known as central unions (*Centralforeninger*).

Some of these associations are purely, or at any rate, firstly, societies for mutual defence, and their *raison d'être* is the carrying on of negotiations with workmen's associations. Among these may be mentioned the Central Association of Master Builders of Ostifterne, founded in 1890, and the General Union of Ironmasters founded in 1891, which includes the whole country, with the exception of the capital.

Other associations, although they are pledged to help their members in strikes and labour difficulties generally, are essentially trade organisations. The promotion of the interests of the trade is their chief aim, and they carry it out by protecting their trade mark, by buying and selling in common, and by the foundation of trade journals and schools.

The latest development of the movement appears likely to result in the complete resuscitation of the guild system, although the guilds in their new form will adapt themselves to the requirements of modern industry. It was natural when the movement in favour of employers' organisations reached Copenhagen, that the activity of the guilds should revive, and that the movement should be greatly accelerated by the strikes which in 1890 especially, disturbed the trade of the capital. The masons' guild, incited by the strike of masons in 1890, has now collected a considerable capital, the joiners' guild has increased its membership up to the number of 260, and the master tailors have succeeded in imposing fines of 5,000 kr. upon any member who refuses to come to the assistance of his fellow members in the case of a strike or lock-out. Unsuccessful attempts have already been made to form one common employers' association for the whole of Copenhagen. The time has proved unripe for such endeavours, but the movement is still being carried on within the different trades. The old Guild of Handicraftsmen (*Haandværkerforeninger*) possessed an organisation which only needs to be revived in order to place it at once in possession of a body of representatives chosen from every trade in the union. Every guild or corporation which represented a trade used to send its master (*Oldermand*) or, if that was impossible, a member of its managing committee, to represent it in the general Guild of Handicraftsmen. This system fell into disuse when the freedom of industry was proclaimed, but efforts are now being made to revive it, and although the time may not yet have come for the complete organisation of employers, yet it appears certain that the movement is destined to a large development in the immediate future. Employers' associations of a permanent nature, and also temporary

associations for united action on certain occasions, exist on a smaller scale in Sweden. In Norway employers' associations have been formed, but simply for commercial purposes.<sup>(1)</sup>

## 2. Organisations of Employed.

The trades union movement throughout Scandinavia has been most intimately connected, from its origin down to the present time, with the Social Democratic party. Up to the year 1882 the only workmen's organisations, apart from the sick clubs and other friendly societies, which existed in Sweden, were the General Workmen's Union and the Reform Union of Stockholm, founded in 1879 and 1880, and whose principal aim was to obtain the extension of the franchise. The introduction of socialism in 1874 had been followed by a number of strikes which found the workmen unorganised, and which consequently ended in failure. The great strike in the building trade at Stockholm in 1881 proved even more conclusively that the workmen of the capital were entirely without leaders and organisation. Dr. Nystrom, the late secretary of the Reform Union, and founder of the Workmen's Institute, then placed himself at the head of the strikers, a committee was formed to consider the possibilities of organisation, and in March 1882 a draft proposal was published for the formation of trades unions on the English model. The trade associations which have since been formed in every part of the country have all been formed on the model rules then drawn up. These rules declared the object of a trades union to be the organisation of all the workmen in the trade in order that, by consultation and concerted action, they may be able to improve their condition, both from a moral and material point of view. The desire of the union is to further the true interests not only of the workmen, but of the employer and of the trade, to obtain higher wages, better workshops, and more sanitary conditions of work; to develop the skill of the workman, to promote sobriety, to further the cause of education generally, and to establish funds for providing accident, out-of-work, and superannuation benefits. The aim of a union must always be to prevent strikes and seek peaceable solutions of disputed questions. No strike in the trade shall receive the moral or material support of the union unless the latter, after due deliberation, shall have pronounced such strike to be justified by the circumstances. In the event of a strike, the union discountenances all violence, and endeavours in every way to maintain peace and order.

The benefits paid by the union comprise accident and out-of-work pay, and any other benefit which the members collectively agree upon as necessary. The entrance fee is 1 kr., and the monthly subscription 50 öre. These model rules have been adopted with more or less modification by all the unions since formed. The rule which provides for the improvement of the conditions of labour has been in many instances replaced by the more definite objects of a minimum wage and a normal working day. Some unions have formed special strike funds, and have adopted rules for the prevention of strikes. The Joiners' Union, for instance, directs its members to exhaust all possible means of obtaining a peaceable settlement before proceeding to declare a strike. Then, if no ground of agreement can be found, three-fourths of the men in the establishment concerned must sign a written declaration that they are ceasing work of their own accord, and unless these formalities are observed the strikers receive no help from the union. Each individual union, however, is able to give its members permission to strike, and there is no trades council, as in Denmark, representing all the unions of a particular locality whose common consent must be obtained before any one union can enter upon a strike. Strikes are consequently much more frequent in Sweden than in Denmark. Swedish societies differ from the more highly organised unions of Denmark in two other important respects; firstly, they admit any man who is willing to pay the union subscription, without any inquiry as to his ability or skill in his trade, and secondly, their funds are burdened with the payment of sick benefit, which, in Denmark, is left to the sick clubs of the various trades.

All the local trades unions are bound together in one central committee, to which each union sends one delegate for every hundred members it comprises. During the last few years the central committee has become more and more Socialistic, so that now it is

(1) Trades unions. (a) In Sweden.

Central Committee

(1) Nationalökonomisk Tidskrift, 1883, pp. 22-8.

actually a Socialist committee appointed by the leaders of that party. The result of this change has been a growing lack of unity among unionists. A considerable minority of the trades unions of Stockholm refuse to affiliate themselves to the Socialist central committee, and others, though affiliated, have only a small proportion of Socialists among their members, and send delegates to the central committee merely on account of the disadvantage of standing alone.

Triennial Congresses, for the discussion of social and economic questions, have been held since 1879 in various parts of Sweden, at which trades unions are largely, but not exclusively, represented. At the last congress held at Stockholm in June 1890 the principal subjects of discussion were the introduction of a normal working day, piecework and timework, the prevention of strikes, and the proposed insurance legislation. Allusion has already been made to the decision of the congress with regard to the hours of labour (*see*, p. ). As to the system of payment, statements were made by many speakers which showed that the prevalent custom of payment by the piece led to extreme competition among the workers, and brought down the wages of labour below the minimum necessary to maintain life. The congress therefore decided, though by a small majority, in favour of timework payment. The discussion on the third question, the prevention of strikes, was opened by Herr Axel Raphael, the author of a work on the solution of labour conflicts in England and America, and his suggestion in favour of permanent boards of arbitration was adopted by the congress. Insurance legislation was not discussed owing to want of time.<sup>(1)</sup>

Nor. Norwegian trades unions are occupied with political questions as much as with matters which more nearly concern the interests of their trades. The aim of the Brickmakers' Union is to acquire political rights agreeable to the principles of Social Democracy, the Journeymen Joiners of Bergen are affiliated to the labour party and all members subscribe to the Workmen's Democratic Union. The maintenance of the present rate of wages is an important object in most unions; members of the Masons' Union of Bergen promise not to work for less than the current rate, while the Journeymen Tailors (Skien) make it a rule that a member must not accept work at less than the average rate without the consent of the union, and any member who works on his own account for less than the customary prices shall be liable to a fine.

Most unions have benefit funds and provide assistance to members who are out of work.

In 1885 a central organisation was founded, to which any trades union may be affiliated. The aims of this organisation, which is known as "The United Norwegian Workmen's Association" (*De forenede norske Arbeidersamfund*) are (1) to promote education and culture among the working classes, (2) to secure their economic independence, (3) to procure for them full political rights. The Association holds a general meeting every three years, to which all the affiliated societies send representatives in proportion to the number of their members. Its other means of propaganda include meetings, lectures, the publication of newspapers and pamphlets, the establishment of sick funds and other institutions for the benefit of the working classes. The programme drawn up for the first extraordinary meeting held at Christiania in 1892, shows the kind of subjects which are discussed by the Association. This programme treated of the following topics:—

- (1.) The direct franchise for men and women in State and communal elections.
- (2.) The abolition of all taxes which fall unfairly on the small tax-payer, and the substitution of progressive income, property and inheritance taxes.
- (3.) A legal eight hours' day for all trades.
- (4.) Old age pensions for all poor persons over the age of 60.
- (5.) Sick and accident insurance for workmen.
- (6.) The appointment of workmen as factory inspectors.
- (7.) The development of elementary education in a democratic direction.
- (8.) Free legal and medical assistance.

The last two general meetings of the Association have been attended by representatives of the Social Democratic Unions of Christiania and Bergen.

(1) *Nærs Historiska Anteckningar ur Arbetarörselen i Stockholm*, pp. 1-2. *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 139, 165. Report of Sir Francis Plunkett, 1891, No. 47, Commercial.

The fifth meeting of "The United Norwegian Workmen's Association," held at Drammen in July 1891, was attended by 95 delegates from about 40 labour associations. Resolutions were passed by this meeting in favour of universal suffrage, sick and accident insurance, an eight hours day for town and country, and free legal aid to those who have no means of their own. The meeting condemned the contract system as tending to increase competition and depress wages, and unanimously resolved in favour of a Bill to be laid before the *Storting* for the extension of freedom of combination. The object of the Bill is to punish by fines and imprisonment all masters who by dismissal, threats of dismissal, presents, offers or promises, seek to restrain, or influence those who are placed under them, from exercising their rights as citizens or from participation in public activity or lawful combination. After a long discussion on the means of improving the condition of agricultural labourers and small tenants the original Social Democratic resolution on that subject was rejected, and certain resolutions as to the re-partition of arable land and the establishment of State loan banks were adopted instead.<sup>(1)</sup>

Trades unions in Denmark owe their origin to the socialist movement of 1871. The earliest unions were branches of the *Internationale* and some of them attained to considerable size and prosperity, the cigar-makers' union, for instance, having some 400 members. In 1873 the *Internationale* was suppressed in Denmark, but the trade societies maintained their existence as separate organisations. The "Independent Trades Unions," as the new societies were called, were at first joined by large numbers of workmen, but the later years of the decade 1870-80 witnessed their gradual disruption. This decline was caused partly by economic difficulties, partly by the fact that the general Social-Democratic movement was in a state of dislocation during that period, its leaders were constantly changed and the party had no settled organisation. From 1880-90 a gradual change took place. The socialist party gained ground, both by means of its improved organisation and through the greater moderation of its aims. At the same time the trades unions grew in numbers and influence, and though they remained intimately connected with the Social-Democratic party the relation between the two bodies is now only that of common sympathy. A member of the Social-Democratic Federation must be a professed Socialist and agree to all the far-reaching reforms included in the Social Democratic programme, but he need not belong to any particular trade. The qualifications of a trade-unionist are exactly the opposite of these; the candidate for admission must belong to a particular trade, but is not obliged to express any views on social or political matters. Trade unions again, seldom aim at general social reform, but endeavour to ameliorate the condition of the labourer who works under the existing organisation of industry. In spite of these distinctions the fact remains that a large number of trade-unionists are members of the Socialist party, and the connexion between the two organisations has done much to aggravate the ill-feeling towards trade unions already existing among employers. During the earlier period of their existence, employers tried to ignore the unions and refused to treat with them. Now, however, the unions are respected as a power able to make war or peace, and compromises on disputed questions are brought about more frequently than in earlier days. This change of position may be ascribed to a variety of causes; the more favourable attitude of public opinion towards the labour movement in general has exercised a considerable influence, but the chief factor in the change has been the more perfect organisation of the unions themselves and the justice and moderation of their aims. Organisations of employers have gradually been formed to counterbalance the power of the organised workmen, and strong organisation on both sides seems to have exercised a most tranquilising effect. No strike of any importance has taken place in Denmark for the last three years. The number of unions now existing throughout the country is about 400 with a membership of some 35,000 persons. Of these 89 unions, with 22,000 members, are situated in Copenhagen, whilst the rest are distributed among the 59 provincial towns. Aarhus and Odense, the largest of these towns

(c) In Denmark.

(1) *Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège*, pp. 160-3. Report of H.M. Consul at Christiania, 1891, No. 35, Commercial. Love for De forenede norske Arbeidersamfund og Arbeiderforeninger. Arbeidsprogram for De forenede norske Arbeidersamfund, vedtaget paa det late over ordentlige repræsentantmøte i Kristiania. Forhandlinger ved det femte norske Arbeidermøde afholdt i Drammen. Juli 1891.

have over 30,000 inhabitants, and in the former there are 17 unions with 1,500 members, and in the latter 16 with 1,200 members.

The largest unions in Copenhagen are the Masons' union with about 1,500 members, the Carpenters' with 1,200, the Tobacco-workers' with 1,050, the Shoemakers', Smiths', Masons' labourers and Excavators' each with about 1,000 members. The total number of persons employed in industry in Copenhagen is estimated at about 35,000, and of these 20,000 are members of trades unions. In skilled trades the great majority of the workers are unionists, out of 1,600 journeymen masons for instance, 1,500 belong to the Masons' union. The 15,000 unorganised workmen are therefore chiefly recruited from the ranks of unskilled or half skilled labour. Some half-dozen out of the whole number of unions are associations of women including some 400 members. Some unions admit both men and women; the cigar-makers' union, which is one of these, endeavours to obtain the same rate of wages for women as for men. Women are, however, generally employed on a lower class of work than men. The weavers' union includes about 50 female members and the tailors' union, which is confined to women, has 100 members. The usual qualifications demanded from members of unions are that they shall not have been found guilty by law of any dishonourable act, and that they shall be able to show a certificate stating that they have passed their apprentice examination (*Svendestykke*). The Masons' and carpenters' unions and several of the other larger societies require in addition that intending members shall also be members of the sick club belonging to the trade.

The rules of some unions contain special regulations with regard to persons who remain at work during a strike. The Joiners and Cabinet-makers' union declares that it must be a point of honour with every member to refrain from all communication with blacklegs (*Struebrækkere*).

The object of the trades unions is to secure the best possible conditions of labour for their members. They therefore endeavour to raise, or at least to maintain the existing rate of wages, to reduce the hours of labour, and to protest against arbitrary conduct on the part of any individual employer. They also attempt to settle disputes by arbitration and collect and publish statistical information as to the state of the labour market in every trade. Their benefits comprise strike pay, out-of-work pay, travelling money and assistance to members engaged in lawsuits on labour questions. Sick benefit, which is so general in English unions, is not offered by any Danish union, because nearly every trade already possesses its sick club (*Fagsygekasse*), and as stated above membership of the trade sick club is a condition of admission in many unions. Members of trades unions pay an entrance fee and a weekly subscription varying in amount from 10 to 35 öre according to the benefits paid by the society.

In several trades the unions have formed trade federations embracing in one central organisation all the unions in the trade throughout the country. A further step towards centralisation has been taken by those federations which include a variety of cognate trades. Examples of these are the Joiners' Federation (including ships' joiners, cabinet-makers and model-makers as well as joiners proper) and the Blacksmiths' Federation with the allied societies of Boiler smiths, Machinists, and Locksmiths. Several of these federations have entered into relations with similar federations abroad.

Besides the above amalgamation of local unions under one central federation, Danish trades unions possess a second central agency. All the unions in the larger towns are bound together under one central management known as a Trades Council (*Fagforeninger Samvirkende*).

The principal Trades Council—that of Copenhagen—consists of the managing bodies of all the trades unions and trade federations in the town, together with the management of the Social Democratic Federation. The committee of management of the council consists of seven members, five of whom are chosen from the representatives of the trade organisations and two from the Social Democratic Federation, the latter custom having been established when the trades unions and the Socialist movement were both under the same organisation. The committee elects its own president, vice-president, and secretary. The present president of the Copenhagen Trades Council is Mr. J. Jensen, a decorative painter, and member of the town council of

Copenhagen. The ordinary meetings of the Trades Council are held once a month for the transaction of ordinary business, and in the January of every year is held the annual meeting, at which the members of the committee of management are elected. The principal function of the Trades Council is to decide what strikes shall take place, and to support those which are undertaken with its consent and approval. The only strikes upon which an individual union can enter are those caused by a positive breach of contract on the part of any single employer, for all others the consent of the Trades Council must be obtained. The following procedure must be gone through by any union desirous of beginning a strike. If the point in dispute is a question of an advance of wages, reduction of hours, or any other matter affecting the trade in general, a resolution in favour of a strike must first be obtained by a majority of votes at a general meeting of the union concerned. Some unions require a simple majority for this purpose, others a certain specified majority. The management of the union must then send in a written statement to the committee of management of the Trades Council before any application is made to the employers. The committee may take a fortnight to consider the application in order that it may collect information as to the state of the labour market, at home and abroad, before returning its answer. Whether the committee agrees with the union or not, the question is next referred to the Trades Council as a whole, and a vote is taken from the general body. A rule, which has recently been adopted, gives the larger unions a larger number of votes, and thus secures a full hearing for the more important and more moderate unions. The decision thus arrived at is final and binding, and no strike receives support from the Trades Council which has not been sanctioned in this manner.

Not only is pecuniary support denied to unions which refuse to act in concert with the Trades Council, but these unions are also forbidden to publish accounts of the strike, or to enter into negotiations with employers until they have returned to work. If, however, a strike is approved by the Trades Council, a subscription of 10 öre a week (5 öre in women's unions) is levied for the benefit of the union on strike from every other union in the town. The strike pay given by the striking union is drawn from its own funds, as well as from the levies thus collected, and amounts to 10 kr. a week in men's, and 6 kr. in women's unions. Any eventual surplus which remains when the strike is concluded is paid into the funds of the Trades Council. The total amount spent on strikes by the trades unions of Copenhagen between the years 1880 and 1890 is estimated at 700,000 kr.

Besides acting as a strike committee, the Trades Councils have endeavoured in many other ways to promote industrial peace. Through their efforts permanent courts of arbitration have been established in several provincial towns for the settlement of trade disputes, and in Copenhagen similar courts have been instituted in the different trades. These courts consist of an equal number of employers and employed, elected from the trades unions and employers' associations, with an umpire elected by both parties. Several cases have already been successfully referred to these courts, though the decisions given by them are not legally binding. Notices of trades union meetings, and other official communications, are made through the *Socialdemokrat*, a Copenhagen daily paper with a circulation of about 25,000 copies. Several minor papers, and some trade journals, are published by the unions outside Copenhagen. (1)

The principles of Social Democracy were introduced into Denmark by the followers of the German socialist leader, Karl Marx, with which party the Social Democratic Federation of Denmark is still intimately connected. The centralisation of all the more important industries of the country in Copenhagen, and the unsatisfactory relations subsisting between the well-to-do peasants and their poor labourers, opened a wide field for agitators, both in town and country. But in no other country have the circumstances which fostered the growth of socialism been so little due to social and

(1) The greater part of the above information was furnished by Mr. J. Jensen, President of the Copenhagen Trades Council, and forwarded for the use of this Commission by Mr. M. Rubin, head of the Statistical Bureau of Copenhagen, together with the rules of the Trades Council, and of several other unions and federations. The following works have also been consulted:—Lexis, "Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften," Vol. II., p. 42; "Women's Trades Union Journal," 1880, p. 88.

2. Socialist organisations. (a) In Denmark.

Federations of Trades Unions.

Trades Councils.

economic causes, and so largely to the result of political discontent. The immense preponderance of the National Liberal party drove the leaders of social reform to take up an attitude of uncompromising hostility. Twenty years ago the National Liberal party represented all the wealth and intellect of the country, and out of the 15 different ministries formed between 1845 and 1873, only one was chosen from the opposition. The opponents of the Liberal party are not the Conservatives, for no such party exists in Denmark, but the various political factions which make up the party known as the "United Left."

The most important of these factions is that which in the year 1848 first assumed the name of *Bonlevener* (friends of the peasants), and whose aim is to raise the social and political status of the numerous peasant proprietors of the country. A second section, that of the *Grundtvigianer*, aims at the disestablishment of the National Church, whilst a third, composed of extreme radicals, is now scarcely distinguishable from the Socialist party. The first beginnings of social agitation which prepared the way for a fully developed Social Democracy are discernible as early as 1860. In that year the first workmen's union was founded under the leadership of Herr C. V. Rimestad, who plays the same part in the history of Danish Socialism as that filled by Schulze-Delitzsch in Germany. His great aim, the education of the working classes, was taken up and developed by Pastor Sonne of north Jutland, who, in 1866, founded the first Danish co-operative society. These unions spread rapidly, and in 1871 representatives of the local societies assembled at Copenhagen and instituted a central union, of which Pastor Sonne was the head. A newspaper was started to propagate the principles of the co-operators under the title of, "The Workman: a weekly paper for self-help and co-operation" (*Arbejderen. Et Ugeblad for Selvhjælp og Samarbejde*).

The remarkable success of these societies is shown by the fact that at a general meeting held in 1874 representatives were present from 92 local unions. These societies were not confined to co-operative distribution, but included building societies, savings banks, sick clubs, and every kind of benefit society, and, though far from being socialistic in their aims or intentions, are to be considered, according to Dr. Meyer, as the forerunners of the actual Social Democratic movement. The latest development was the actual trades union, but even trades unions were established in Denmark before the advent of the *Internationale*. Strikes also had already appeared, although the trades unions disclaimed any part in them, and professed to be simply protective associations, and one of the trades unions, that of the porcelain workers, had entered into communication with the Hirsch unions of Berlin. At the general meeting of the Sonne unions mentioned above, great enthusiasm for the workman's cause was exhibited, an educational union was formed, and certain persons were selected to prepare themselves, through study abroad, for the task of educating their fellows at home.

Up to this point social agitation had been carried on by native leaders, and was entirely the product of national circumstances. Its strength was, however, by this time almost exhausted, and when Social Democracy appeared the non-socialist unions broke down altogether. In the spring of 1871, shortly after the overthrow of the Commune in Paris, two anonymous pamphlets were published in Copenhagen recommending the programme of the *Internationale* to the working classes of Denmark. The contents of this paper bore a strong resemblance to the works of German Socialists, but their author was never known. The principles thus inculcated found a ready reception, a Socialist paper was started on July of 1871, and in August the first Danish branch of the *Internationale* was founded, under the leadership of Louis Pio and Paul Geleff. The rules of the new union declared that the time had now come when all should have equal access to the enjoyments of life, and called upon the working men of Denmark to unite in putting down all oppression, whether it was exercised in the name of patriotism, education, capital, or religion. Geleff then travelled through the country, and founded branch unions at Odense, Aalborg, Aarhus, and several other towns. Even women were admitted to membership, and in 1872 the *Internationale* counted 8,000 members in Denmark, of whom 5,000 were centred in Copenhagen. Numbers of strikes were carried upon, and the aspect of affairs became so threatening that no

printer could be found to publish the "Socialist," which was temporarily printed at Hamburg.

On the 5th May 1872, a large mass meeting was to be held at Copenhagen to protest against the reception of poor relief entailing civil disability, and to demand boards of conciliation for the settlement of differences between employers and employed. The police, fearing a disturbance, prohibited the meeting; the people, nevertheless, tried to assemble, and a riot ensued, in which some blood was shed, and five of the principal Socialists were taken prisoners. The most earnest efforts were made to obtain their release, but without result, and Pio, Geleff, and Brix were sentenced respectively to six, five, and four years' imprisonment. Many years ensued before the Socialist party recovered from this blow, and in the meantime the independent trades unions had been formed, and dissensions had arisen in the party itself. The more moderate Socialists wished to join hands with the Radicals, while the extreme section formed a revolutionary Socialist Party. This division still continues, but the revolutionary Socialists cannot count more than a couple of hundred adherents in the whole country.

In 1880 a revival, brought about chiefly through the renewed activity of the trade organisations, has led to the spread of Social Democracy among the rural population. The co-operation of the peasant classes was essential to the success of the movement in a country where agricultural interests so largely predominate. Daily papers are published in the towns of Aarhus, Horsens, Randers, and Aalborg, which together reach a circulation of 6,000 copies. A weekly satiric illustrated paper is also published in Copenhagen. Since the separation of the Social Democratic Federation from the trade organisations five congresses have been held at which only purely Socialist societies have been represented. At the last congress, held in 1892 at Copenhagen, 104 such delegates were present. Besides these Social Democratic congresses, several meetings of the General Scandinavian Workmen's Congress have taken place. All the workmen's unions of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden are entitled to take part in these meetings. The fourth congress was held at Malmö in 1892. The number of delegates present was 131, of whom 68 came from Denmark, 53 from Sweden, and 10 from Norway. The programme of the Social Democrats in Denmark is as extensive and revolutionary as elsewhere; the practical efforts of the party have, however, been chiefly confined to agitation for the extension of the franchise and the introduction of the eight hours' day.<sup>(1)</sup>

The Socialist movement in Sweden, as in Denmark, has been throughout so closely connected with the labour and trades union movements that it is almost impossible to separate them. In Sweden, too, Social Democracy was unknown till recently, but on its first appearance it found the way prepared by the labours of the "workmen's unions." These unions, though by no means socialistic in their aims, had accustomed working men to meetings and demonstrations, and had raised a spirit of ambition and desire for progress which Social Democracy promised to satisfy. The first Socialistic agitator, August Palm, who had imbibed the principles of German Socialism during his residence in Schleswig, returned to Sweden in 1881. His efforts to spread the new doctrine met with no success at Stockholm, but at Malmö, whither he next betook himself, he succeeded in 1882 in founding a small newspaper, of which he himself was both the editor and colporteur. The time was a propitious one, for the trades union movement had just been set on foot, and gradually the influence of Social Democracy penetrated further and further into these societies which had been started as purely trade organisations. The earliest labour newspaper, "The Time," changed its liberal views for those of the Socialist party, and in 1886, when it ceased to appear, it was succeeded by the organ of the Socialists, the "*Sozial Demokrat*."

This paper has appeared daily since 1890, and has been followed by several others. At Gothenburg, the "New Era" and the "Voice of the People" are published, at Malmö, "Labour," and at Norrköping, "The Proletarian." The whole Socialistic press of Sweden has a circulation of about 10,000 copies. Trade journals, such as the "Ironworker" and the "Woodworker," are also edited by Socialists, while the only

(5) In Sweden

(1) Lexis, Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften, Vol. V., p. 726. Meyer, Emancipationakamf des Vierten Standes, Vol. II., pp. 273-319. Die Sozialdemokratie in Danemark. Bericht an dem internationalen sozialistischen Arbeitercongress in Zurich, 1893. Conditions du Travail en Danemark, pp. 79-81.

journal published by the labour party is the "Swedish Printing Times." Between 1880 and 1890 the socialising of the trade unions went on apace; one after another of the Stockholm unions returned Socialist delegates to the Central Committee, until in 1886 the committee was so completely dominated by the Socialists that the liberal trade unions preferred to withdraw altogether. This rapid development caused alarm in official circles. August Palm was committed to prison for speaking disrespectfully of the Parliament (*Reichstagsbeleidigung*), and several other sentences followed, until in 1889 the editors of nearly all the Socialist newspapers were in confinement. In spite, however, of these misfortunes, the party held its first general congress at Stockholm in the spring of 1889. This meeting was attended by some 60 delegates from the various towns of the kingdom. Social Democracy has from the outset up to the present time been confined exclusively to the industrial population of the towns, for its condemnation of private property gives it little chance of success among the inhabitants of the rural districts, so large a proportion of whom are the proprietors of their homes and farms. The congress expressed its assent to the principles of Socialism as laid down in the Erfurt programme, emphasised the difference between Socialists and all other political parties, however radical they might be, and declared the two measures to which it attached the greatest practical importance to be the extension of the franchise and the establishment of a normal working day. The elections of 1890 put the strength of the party to the test, and revealed weaknesses which had hitherto been unsuspected. At Malmö the socialist candidate was utterly defeated by a Conservative, with the result that the party determined to change its tactics and pay more attention to strictly practical matters. The outcome of this change of front has been the establishment of a large people's hall, where the Socialist newspaper is now printed, the opening of a people's park, which, from its proximity to Copenhagen, forms a convenient meeting place for Danish and Swedish Socialists, and has done much to improve the financial position of the party. In Stockholm, circumstances proved less favourable. The Socialist candidate was opposed by a Liberal, and the latter obtained more than 1,000 votes, whilst the former only polled 186 votes. This defeat caused a division in the Socialist ranks, a small minority under the leadership of Hinke Bergegren, a former contributor to the "*Sozialdemokrat*," renounced all further connexion with parliamentary action, and adopted the "propaganda of the deed" preached by Most. This party, though small, was sufficiently active to call for a protest on the part of the non-revolutionary Socialists who, in the second general congress at Norrköping in 1891, expressed their entire disapproval of the principles adopted by the Anarchists. The socialist movement at the present time is much restricted for want of money. According to the report made to the International Congress of Socialists at Zürich in 1893, it is, however, still advancing. Herr Branting, one of the foremost leaders of the party, points to the large demonstrations which have lately taken place at Stockholm on the 1st of May as a proof of the activity of his party, to whose influence he also ascribes the many measures for the benefit of the working classes which have been laid before Parliament during the last 10 years. (1)

Socialism in Norway is chiefly confined to Christiania, where it was introduced by Danish agitators, and where a party newspaper is published. The absence of large industrial centres, the scattered nature of the population, and the strong religious sentiment of the inhabitants of the rural districts have prevented the movement from attaining to any importance.

A distinct Socialist party was nevertheless constituted in August 1887, under the title of "The Norwegian Labour Party." The ultimate aim of the party is to abolish the private ownership of land, and the instruments of production. It therefore opposes all movements in the direction of State Socialism, which, it believes, will simply result in placing the State in the position now held by the private capitalist. The practical reforms set forth in its programme are similar to those of the United Workmen's Association, and include an eight hours' day and 36 free hours in the course of each week, secular education and the disestablishment of the Church, the abolition of all indirect taxation, universal and direct suffrage, &c. At the seventh general meeting, held in August 1893, the

Socialist leaders congratulated the members on the growth of the party, which they said now included 56 unions with 6,000 members. They also flattered themselves that the leadership of the whole labour movement was gradually passing into their hands, and that their influence was largely felt in political circles. There is, however, reason to think that all these statements are highly exaggerated.

Norway sent one representative to the Zürich Congress held in August of the present year (1893), Denmark was represented by two delegates, while Sweden was prevented by the elections at home from sending any representatives. (2)

Allusion has already been made to the fact that the working classes of Denmark have, to a large extent, adopted the principles of Social Democracy, and are therefore opposed to the present organisation of society and to the teaching of their National Church. The alienation of the masses of the people from the Church of their country is a fact which may be partially explained by the attitude of indifference assumed by the Church during the last 20 years, in which the working classes have been struggling to assert their claims. An essay on "Christianity and Socialism" was published just as the labour movement was beginning by Bishop Martensen, the then Primate of Denmark (died 1884). This work was founded on the writings of academic and of Catholic Socialists, and contained proposals which were considered radical. But though the ideas which it advanced caused some discussion, the work had no practical effect. No champions of State Socialism were then to be found among the political party in power, and again, the bishop's work was regarded rather as an attack on liberalism, of which he had always been an uncompromising antagonist, than as dictated by sympathy with the working classes. All through the labour conflicts which have marked the last 20 years the attitude of the Church has been one of absolute neutrality. No churchman has come forward as a mediator in a strike, but, on the other hand, no support has been afforded by the Church to the opponents of the workmen. Where the labour question has been discussed at all by churchmen they have confined themselves to general denunciations of violence and extreme measures.

The influence of the Church on the labour movement may therefore be said to be nil, but, on the other hand, the influence of the labour movement on the Church has been powerful, though indirect. Of late years the Danish Church has made great efforts to win back the affection of the working classes. Social agitation has made the contrast between the lives of the rich and the poor patent to everyone, and the Church has done its utmost to fill the gap by means of charitable institutions and organised relief. In 1888 a letter, signed by all the bishops, was issued to all the clergy of the country urging them to "offer relief, in a more complete manner than hitherto, of the want from which so many are suffering." The result has been the zealous co-operation of clergy and laity all over the country in the works of charity recommended by the primata. That this movement is connected with the labour movement is, as Mr. Rubin points out, beyond a doubt. Here, however, the work of the church has stopped; it has contributed nothing towards the organisation of labour, the public discussion of labour problems, or towards the gaining of a better understanding between employers and employed. (3)

## II.—CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Sweden possesses no special legislation for the settlement of disputes between employers and employed. Such disputes must be decided in a police court, as if they were mere quarrels between a master and his servant. The want of some special means more suited to the conditions of modern industry is now widely felt, and a resolution in favour of courts of arbitration was passed at the workmen's congress at Stockholm in 1890. In the following year the great mining strike at Norberg was actually brought to a satisfactory conclusion by means of arbitration, and as this was the first strike on a large scale in which a settlement had been thus effected it attracted a good deal of attention. A resolution in favour of arbitration was passed at a

(1) Program og Lov for Det norske Arbejderparti. Protokoll over Forhandlingerne paa det norske Arbejderpartis 7de Landsmøde Aug. 1893.

(2) Schweizerische Blätter für Wirtschafts- und Social politik, 1te Jahrgang, p. 114.

(3) The above facts were communicated in a private memorandum to the Secretary from Mr. Marcus Rubin, head of the Statistical Bureau of Copenhagen.

(1) Branting Bericht über die Arbeiterbewegung in Schweden dem Internationalen sozialistischen Arbeiter Kongress, 1893, in Zurich. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège, pp. 55 and 71.

Attitude of the Danish Church towards the labour movement.

(c) In Norway.

(a) In Sweden.

joint meeting of owners and men held at Upsala, shortly after the commencement of the strike. The principal provisions of this agreement were as follows:—

- (1.) That a board should be appointed to examine the question of the wages to be paid to the men of the Kallmora Mine, and to compare them with those earned by the other miners of the district.
- (2.) That the board should be composed of seven members, three of whom should be appointed by the owners and three by the men. The director of the mining department of the Ministry of Commerce should be invited to act as president, or to name a substitute if unable to be present himself.
- (3.) That both parties should undertake to abide by the decision made by the board.
- (4.) That the men should resume work immediately, and, if they failed to do so within a certain specified time, the agreement should not be binding on the owners.

Although this agreement was signed by the representatives of the men, the latter did not hold full powers, and could only undertake to do their best to persuade the men to accept its terms. The whole negotiation, consequently, was on the point of breaking down, as many of the men objected to the terms of the agreement, and work was not actually resumed until two days after the date fixed. The owners, however, agreed to overlook this default, and the board of arbitration met at Norberg to begin their inquiry on the 6th May.

The board instituted a thorough inquiry into the wages earned in all the mines in the district, and also investigated the conditions of labour peculiar to the Kallmora Mine. To enable the board to do this successfully, all the mine owners placed their books at the disposal of the board, and it was thus possible to ascertain the average wage earned per diem in the district of Norberg. This average was found to be 2 kr. 35 öre, and the board decided that this sum should be fixed as the usual daily wage for the men in the Kallmora Mine. As the origin of the dispute was the proposed lowering of the wage from 2 kr. 50 to 2 kr. 10, this award was, on the whole, favourable to the men. The example set at Norberg was immediately followed in other disputes. A strike which broke out among the workmen employed in the Gefle sawmills on the 22nd May 1891 was settled by an arbitration conducted on very similar lines to the one recorded above, and again, in August a dispute at a sugar factory at Ystad was submitted to a board of arbitration.

The same absence of any simple method of dealing with industrial disputes is found in Denmark as in the northern kingdoms. Breaches of contract or other disputes can only be settled by means of a lawsuit, and, as M. Bramsen points out, litigation seldom gives a satisfactory result to either party. It is an expensive and tedious remedy for the workman, but if he should win his case he is better off than the employer, because the damages awarded are pretty certain to be paid. On the other hand, if the employer wins, he is probably no better off than before, as the workman has no means of paying the damages to which he is condemned. In a speech made at the Sixth Danish Industrial Meeting, held at Copenhagen in 1892, M. Bramsen therefore recommended the formation of courts of arbitration for the settlement of industrial disputes. The proposed courts were to consist of an equal number of employers and employed, elected by secret ballot, with a president appointed by the communal authorities. The cases submitted to such a court should be those in which the estimated damages did not amount to more than 200 kr. The decisions given by the courts should be final and binding. M. Bramsen considered that such an institution would not only provide a cheap and speedy method of settling existing strikes, but that it would be especially efficacious in preventing disputes. Employers and employed would have opportunities for personal contact and mutual exchange of opinions which would, in many cases, be sufficient in themselves to prevent strikes, or if a strike were unavoidable, the free discussion of the question would tend to form a right public opinion upon the point at issue. A resolution in favour of courts of arbitration was passed by the meeting.<sup>(1)</sup>

Towards the end of the present year (1893) M. Bramsen laid a Bill before the *Folkething* for the establishment of Industrial Courts and Boards of Conciliation. The proposed courts are to be formed in compliance with the wishes of both employers and employed, and must be sanctioned by the communal authorities. Each court is to consist of at least four members, who are elected in equal numbers by employers and employed for a term of at least three years. The members choose a president who is to remain in office for one year. Neither the president nor the members are to be paid. Disputes are to be settled by conciliation where this is possible; where it is tried and found impossible, resort may be made to arbitration. Difficulties arising from the existing conditions of labour and the obligations incumbent on both parties to a contract are to be referred to the industrial courts, whilst the boards of conciliation are to confine themselves to the consideration of strikes and lock-outs. The Bill has been favourably received by the *Folkething*, in spite of ministerial opposition, and before rising for the Christmas vacation the house decided to refer it to the consideration of a committee.<sup>(1)</sup>

## C. TRADE DISPUTES.

### I.—STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS.

Allusion has already been made to the large number of strikes which have taken place in Sweden of late years. Details cannot, however, be obtained, except in a few important cases, as no statistics of strikes are kept in Sweden. Nothing in connexion with these strikes is, however, more remarkable than the want of success which has attended them in nearly every case. One strike after another ends in unconditional surrender, and this in spite of the support of public opinion, and the pecuniary assistance afforded to the strikers from Denmark, France, Belgium, and other parts of the continent. The earliest strikes coincide with the beginning of Socialist agitation. The year 1874 witnessed strikes for higher wages among the English colliers employed at the Bjuf mines in Skane, among the tailors of Gothenburg and the gas-workers of Stockholm. The number of persons concerned in these strikes was not, however, large, and not till 1879 did any important strike occur.

The strike of the workmen employed in the Sundsvall sawmills on the 28th May 1879 was, in some respects, the most serious labour conflict that has ever taken place in Sweden. From 1874-6 the timber trade had been prosperous, and sawyers had enjoyed high wages. When, therefore, a change set in and employers were no longer able to maintain the old rates, the men knowing nothing of the state of the trade, became discontented, and resolved upon a strike. Nearly 6,000 workmen employed in 19 different sawmills combined to demand higher wages. Many of the strikers lived in cottages belonging to the employers, and when work ceased they left their houses and camped out on either side of the town. The authorities, fearing a riot, called in the help of several detachments from Stockholm, and soldiers with loaded rifles and fixed bayonets were stationed round the quarters of the workmen. The strikers committed no act of violence, but, notwithstanding this, the ringleaders were imprisoned on the charge of inciting to riot and sedition. The strikers were also threatened with imprisonment as vagabonds without means of support, and, as they were utterly destitute of funds or organisation, they yielded, and resumed work at the old rates during the first week in June. The leaders who had been arrested were brought to trial and acquitted, and the action of the authorities was very severely criticised in the press, public opinion declaring itself almost entirely on the side of the strikers.

The next general strike, that of the building trades in Stockholm, has already been alluded to as the occasion of the formation of trades unions. Several thousand workmen demanded an advance of wages, but again funds and organisation were entirely lacking, and work was resumed at the original rates after a short campaign of one week.

In August 1881 the men employed in the timber trade of Stockholm combined to demand higher wages and shorter hours. The men drew up a petition stating that, in view of the high rents and high prices of food,

(a) In Sweden.

Sundsvall saw-mills.

(c) In Denmark.

Building trade, Stockholm.

Timber trade, Stockholm.

(1) Bramsen, *Arbejdskontrakter, Kontraktbrud og Afgjærelse af Arbejdsstridigheder*. Report of Sir P. Plunkett from Stockholm, 1891. No. 47, Commercial.

(1) *Sozialpolitisches Centralblatt*, 2nd year, pp. 119, 167.

together with the heavy taxes imposed upon them, the joiners in the building and furniture trades were compelled to ask for an average wage of 35 öre an hour, 40 öre for the best workmen, and an advance of 25 per cent. on the very low rates then paid for piece work. After further discussion the men resolved to include the question of hours in the petition, and to demand that the present 12 or 14 hours a day should be reduced to 10. Three hundred copies of this circular were printed and sent out to the employers; only 32 employers, however, took any notice at all of the circular, and of these only six were willing to grant the concessions requested. The men then held a general meeting, and resolved to invite the employers to take part in a friendly discussion as to the best means of improving the condition of the workers. This meeting was held, but, out of the 400 persons present, only two were employers. As all peaceable means of settlement had now been exhausted, the men went out on strike, demanding a 10-hours day, and 60 hours a week, 20 per cent. advance of wages for both time and piece work, and 50 per cent. advance for overtime. Strike pay of 7 kr. a week was granted to single men, and 10 kr. a week to married men. The strikers were generously supported by their companions in the trade, by the working classes generally both in Stockholm and the provinces, and contributions were even received from Copenhagen and Paris. The total amount collected came to 6,200 kr., of which some 4,000 kr. was distributed to the men in strike pay, while the rest was used for expenses. The demands of the men were gradually conceded, either entirely or in part, by the employers, and, by the 14th October, work was everywhere resumed.

Brick-makers,  
Malmö.

In the spring of 1889, the workmen in four brick-yards near Malmö were locked out simply because they had become Socialists. The employers offered to take back any men who would take their names off the books of the workmen's club, but this the men resolutely declined to do. The employers then proceeded to import fresh hands, and when the new men arrived, the old hands, who lived in the employer's houses, were required to give board and lodging to the men who had come to supplant them. The old hands resisted this demand, and, though no cases of assault actually occurred, the employers sent for help to the military authorities. Further resistance became useless, the men yielded unconditionally, dissolved their club, and were then permitted to return to work.

Bakers,  
Stockholm.

A strike of bakers in Stockholm during the spring of 1890 was also chiefly remarkable for the endeavours made by employers to introduce free labour. The dispute was occasioned by the long hours and insanitary condition of the bakers' work, and again public opinion was entirely on the side of the men. The imported hands, who were brought from Hamburg, were met on their arrival at Stockholm by a deputation of bakers, who put the case of the strikers so convincingly before them, that they too espoused the cause of the men, and agreed to return to Hamburg by the next train if their expenses were paid. For six weeks the men stood firm, but the long struggle exhausted their funds, and they were obliged to return to work on the old conditions.

Miners,  
Norberg.

The most important of the more recent disputes was the miners' strike, which broke out at Norberg in the early part of 1891. The Norberg mines, which belong to many different owners, give employment to more than 1,000 men altogether, but the strike, in the first instance, was confined to the Kallmora Mine, where only some 80 men are employed. At the end of 1890 the manager of this mine resigned, and his place was taken by Herr Gramström, the general superintendent of the whole mining district. Shortly after assuming the management of the Kallmora Mine, Herr Gramström told the men that their wages must be reduced, as he considered them too high in comparison with the rates paid in the other mines of the district. The men would probably have acquiesced in the reduction had it not been for an irregularity in the way in which it was announced. Herr Gramström also insisted on making the reduction retrospective for the month of January, a proposal which the men considered unjust. On February 3rd, therefore, they went out on strike and remained firm in their refusal to work at the reduced rate until the end of March, when the month's notice to which they considered themselves entitled would have elapsed. Towards the end of that month, however, they received notices of eviction, and were informed that new hands would be taken on in their place. The men employed in the other mines now felt

that the time had come for them to interfere, and a mass meeting was accordingly held at which it was resolved to organise a general strike in support of the Kallmora miners. This meeting was held on the 1st April, and on the 11th upwards of 1,000 men laid down their work. The unanimous action of the men on this occasion was the more remarkable from the fact that no union existed amongst miners at that period. At the very beginning of the Kallmora dispute, however, Socialist agitators had been despatched from Stockholm, and the general sympathetic strike is attributed largely to their influence. The funds for the support of the strikers were mostly supplied by the Central Socialist Committee of Stockholm, but contributions were also received from sympathisers at home and abroad. The Governor of the Province sent troops to Norberg to prevent disturbances, but, as on previous occasions, the strikers remained quiet and orderly. After the general strike had been in progress for rather more than a week, a meeting of mine-owners was called at Upsala to consider means of settlement at which five representatives of the men were present. The dispute was ultimately settled by arbitration, and as the rate of wages which the men agreed to accept was 2 kr. 3 öre per day instead of the proposed 2 kr. 10 öre, the award may be considered as, on the whole, favourable to the men. (For particulars of the settlement, see under Arbitration, p. 42).

The first months of 1891 were marked by strikes in several other trades. A dispute which arose at the beginning of the year between the Tailors' Union and the Association of Master Tailors culminated in May in a strike on a very large scale. The Tailors' Union is one of the oldest and best organised, and, at the same time, the most Socialistic of the trade associations in Sweden, while, on the other hand, the master tailors have long acted in concert with one another with a view to fixing fair prices, and resisting the dictation of the union. This dispute was not concerned either with wages or the hours of labour, but arose with regard to the length of time for which a price list should be considered binding. The masters wished it to expire on the 1st March 1892, while the men demanded that it should hold good till 1st May of that year. The union insisted on this point, because in May the summer orders come in and the masters would not then be likely to risk a strike by lowering the rate of wages. The masters had already conceded much to the union, and resolved to withstand them on this important point. Accordingly, on the 6th May, 900 men went out on strike, and the negotiations which took place throughout the month proved useless. On the 30th of the month, therefore, the secretary of the Masters' Association addressed a letter to the workmen's committee declaring that all the men who had not resumed work on the 3rd June should be finally dismissed. This resolute action seems to have come as a surprise upon the leaders of the union; a general meeting was called at which each workman was authorised to negotiate separately with his former employer.

The most important dispute of the present year (1893) was the lock-out in the building trade at Gothenburg, which began early in June and lasted till the 20th of September. For some time past agitation for higher wages and a different mode of payment had been going on among the masons of the town. A petition was accordingly laid before the employers asking for shorter hours and the introduction of time work instead of piece work. With regard to the first of these demands the employers consented to reduce the hours from 10½ to 10 per day, but would not agree to any change in the payment of wages. The men were not satisfied with this compromise, and at the end of May the Masons' Union sent in a written request to the master builders demanding time wages and an advance of 5 öre per head, so that men who had formerly received 35 öre an hour should now earn 40 öre, and those who had had 30 öre should be raised to 35 öre. These demands were not granted, and on the 2nd June the men employed by two builders struck work. The members of the Master Builders' Association immediately saw that if the men succeeded in obtaining their demands in these two instances they would strike at every builder's yard in succession. They therefore issued a circular announcing that unless work was resumed within three days all the master builders of the town would close their works. This threat was disregarded, and on the 8th June the lock-out became general. Other matters such as the question of contract work were now added to the original question of wages, and the workmen proposed to meet the employers and

Masons,  
Gothenburg.

discuss the whole situation. The employers consented to a meeting, but only on condition that the subject of wages should not be called in question. The men naturally refused to agree to this, and the negotiations fell through. Some 400 masons and nearly as many labourers were thrown out of work, many of them were obliged to leave the town, and the rest were supported by the funds of the Masons' Union and by contributions from the general public. The province of Skien and Denmark were among the chief contributors. The amount given as strike pay varied from 6 to 10 kr. per head. At the end of August negotiations were entered into by the Master Builders' Association and the Masons' Union, but without result. In the meantime, however, work had been resumed, partly by non-unionists and partly by workmen from other places, in the two works where the strike had originally broken out. Another member of the masters' association who had a large contract on hand also communicated privately with his men, and induced them to return to work on the 26th August. With these three exceptions, however, the associated employers remained firm, and fresh hands were imported from other districts, some of whom worked under the protection of the police, whilst others were persuaded by the strikers to return home. The lock-out had now lasted 12 weeks, and as supplies were failing and there seemed no prospect of a general settlement, the workmen surrendered unconditionally, and on the 20th of September they returned to work, each man making what terms he could with his own employer. No advance of wages or advantage of any kind resulted from the strike.

Glove makers, Malmö and district.

Several smaller strikes have occurred during the present year, the most important of which took place in the glove-making trade. On July 31st a strike for an increase of 30 per cent. in wages broke out at Malmö and the neighbouring towns of Lund, Helsingborg, and Halmstadt. About 130 persons ceased work, and these included all the men employed in the trade and the women outers, but not the sewers and dyers. The strikers were assisted by the German and Belgian glove-makers' unions. Fifteen of the principal employers in south-west Sweden offered an advance of 2 öre per pair of gloves, and on the 16th August the strike ended in a compromise.

Shoemakers, Stockholm.

In May 1893 a strike broke out in Stockholm against 13 master shoemakers on a technical point regarding the specification of certain kinds of work. The employers declined to form a joint committee to settle the dispute, and declared that they could only take back the strikers individually and unconditionally. The strikers then issued a circular asking all the trade unions in Stockholm to support their efforts, and named six retail bootshops to be boycotted. At the beginning of the strike 122 men ceased work; this number had dwindled down to 30 in August, and in September the men all went back to work at the old rates. This strike was chiefly remarkable for the fact that one man who had taken work during the strike was assaulted and beaten so severely that he died a fortnight afterwards from injuries received.

Picketing and intimidation.

Up to the present year no restriction has been placed by Swedish law on the action of workmen during a strike unless such action resulted in a breach of public order, when military assistance was promptly called in. Great disturbances took place in connexion with the Norberg mining strike of 1891, but sentence was not pronounced on the offenders until the present year, when the Supreme Court condemned one of the agitators to four months and another to three months hard labour. In view of the difficulty of dealing with such cases under the existing law, a new law was passed in June 1893 to facilitate the prosecution of agitators. By this law the Public Prosecutor can now take action against any person who forces another to take part in a strike, or prevents him from returning to work. Formerly the task of prosecution devolved upon the sufferer himself, with the result that he generally neglected to take the necessary measures out of fear for the consequences.<sup>(1)</sup>

(b) Denmark.

No chronicle of strikes, official or unofficial, is kept in Denmark, and the information which can be gained

concerning them from newspapers or from private sources is so insufficient that no consecutive account can be given even of those which have taken place during the last 10 years. Up to the year 1870 strikes were almost unknown in Denmark, but during the next decade, which witnessed the beginning of the labour and Socialist movements, they occurred in large numbers, and were often protracted for weeks or months. The early strikes were largely undertaken to obtain recognition of the trades unions which were then in process of foundation; many of them were begun without due preparation and ended in disaster. Since the organisation of the trades unions has become more perfect, and concerted action has also been taken by employers, the number of small and badly managed strikes have tended to decrease. In the future a complete cessation of strikes against individual employers may be expected owing to the pressure placed both on individual masters and separate unions by the large organisations to which both belong. The earliest strikes on record are those of the printers in 1848, the bricklayers in 1865, and the carpenters in 1867. These three unimportant strikes, scattered over a period of 20 years, were followed in the years 1870-80 by an almost continuous train of labour disputes. In December 1870 the gasworkers of Copenhagen laid down their work and the city remained a whole night in darkness. In January of the following year the joiners struck; in February the ships' carpenters employed in the large works of Burmeister and Wain, the painters and masons followed in May, and in June a strike was reported among the sail makers. In January 1885 the Shosing Smiths' Union refused to communicate with employers except through the leader of their union, and when this point was arranged a second strike broke out because the employers had not taken back all the men whom they employed before the first strike.

Strike of shoering smiths.

An important strike which occurred among coopers in the same year originated from a question of wages, though the recognition of the authority of the union afterwards became the turning point of the dispute. An agreement had been made between the employers and their journeyman coopers to the effect that the latter should receive 20 kr. a week. In one establishment, the brewery at Tuborg, the men received less than the stipulated amount, and in consequence they ceased work. The brewery then tried to put out its work, but the coopers forbade any master cooper to accept work from this brewery, and thus the strike became general. After a six months' struggle, in which the resources of the union were taxed to the uttermost, the men were obliged to return to work at the old rate of wages.

Strike of coopers.

A strike among smiths and machine makers which also occurred in 1885, was caused by the demand of the Smiths' Federation for a minimum wage of 37 öre an hour for smiths, and 30 öre an hour for machine makers. At the same time, the Federation demanded shorter hours, payment for overtime, and abolition of Sunday work. It also insisted that all communications should be carried on through the union committee (the members of which were Socialists), and that any employer who attempted to negotiate with individual workmen should be regarded as guilty of a breach of contract. These demands were made at one factory first, and it was intended to extend them until the strike became general. The employers, however, who had recently formed an organisation, were prepared for united action, their answer to the men, therefore, was that all their demands should be granted, except that for a minimum wage, and that if they persisted in this demand they must prepare for a lock-out. In the course of the dispute the master smiths pointed out that the wages actually paid by them were in most cases higher than that for which the Federation had struck. Good workmen received from 30 to 40 öre an hour, and could make from 19 to 25 kr. in a week of 63 hours. The machine manufacturers also proved that their men on the whole received considerably more than 30 öre an hour, but the employers in both branches of the trade refused to accept the principle of a minimum wage, and pointed out that if the men gained the day, employers would no longer be able to give work to young, infirm, or aged persons; the men, however, declined to relinquish their demand, but after a strike of four months, during which 1,200 families were deprived of the means of subsistence, they were compelled by threats of dismissal to return to work without gaining any concession whatever. Sixty-four workmen's unions had supported the men during this lock-out, and the

Smiths and machine makers.

(1) The above account of the masons' strike at Gothenburg was furnished for the use of this Commission by Mr. O. Dehl, barrister, of Christiania. For the other strikes the following works have been consulted.—Meyer, *Emancipationkampf des Vierten Standes*, Vol. II., p. 313. Kjellberg,  *Ett Öronkast på Packforeningens Frågan i Sverige*, pp. 10-13. Report of Sir F. Plunkett from Stockholm, 1881, No. 47, *Commercial Labour Gazette* for June, August, and September, 1893. Quaker, *Etudes sur les Questions Ouvrières*, pp. 410-415.



failure of the movement gave a great blow to their hopes. The projected United Association of Scandinavian Workmen was abandoned, and nothing more was heard of the intended co-operative machine manufactory. Both parties to the dispute sustained heavy losses, the amount expended by the men in strike pay alone being estimated at 150,000 kr. (1)

Masons' strike.

The year 1890 was marked by two important strikes, those of the masons and firemen. The building trades had, as usual, been slack during the winter, but when spring returned, work was resumed with more than usual activity, and not a single sign of discontent preceded the manifesto of the 1st May. The employers were then informed that work would cease unless the following concessions as to hours and wages were granted. In winter the working day was to be seven hours instead of seven-and-a-half, eight hours in February and November, eight-and-a-half hours in March and October instead of nine hours, and nine hours during the summer months instead of 10. Wages were to be raised to 50 öre an hour instead of 35 or 36 öre, which was the rate then prevailing. The employers consulted one another, and decided to raise the rate of wages in autumn and winter to 50 öre per day, whilst retaining the existing hours of labour. The leaders of the movement unfortunately hesitated to accept these proposals, and in the meantime the masons had held a meeting at which they decided to take affairs into their own hands and announce a strike for the 12th May. Vigorous preparations for resistance were made on both sides. The employers formed a syndicate, and subscribed some 1,000,000 kr. for the support of the small masters who were likely to suffer most by the strike. The members of this syndicate remained loyal to the agreements made, and only some 20 out of the total number of 109 yielded to the demands of the men. When the 12th of May arrived, 1,000 masons, and between 700 and 800 hodmen came out on strike. The union possessed a reserve fund of 50,000 kr., and strike pay was given to members at the rate of 8 kr. a week to single men, and from 12 to 15 kr. to married men, in proportion to the size of their families. Some of the strikers appear to have had private resources, as they did not apply for strike pay until the beginning of June. The labourers who had thrown in their lot with the masons were not entitled to strike pay as they were not members of the union; some assistance was nevertheless granted to them, both by the Masons' Union and out of the contributions sent in by other trades unions throughout the country. The 200 masons who had remained at work also showed the strongest sympathy with the strikers, and everyone of them contributed one krona a day towards the strike fund. In spite, however, of this resolute struggle the employers remained firm, and announced that they should withhold work for the whole summer unless the men went back before the 21st July. The strike had already lasted nearly 10 weeks, funds were exhausted, and further resistance was impossible. When work was resumed, not a single advantage had been gained, but on the contrary, the wages of the labourers who had taken part in the strike were reduced, and obnoxious rules were forced upon the men. These regulations merely prohibited the workmen from receiving friends or visitors during working hours, and forbade the consumption of beer and spirits, and indulgence in smoking while work was going on. The rules, however, were most distasteful to the masons in consequence of their compulsory character, and were also stricter than those prevailing in other branches of the building trade; as a matter of fact they have never been strictly enforced, and employers have been obliged to close their eyes to frequent transgressions. The loss which the strike occasioned to the workmen alone was estimated at 600,000 kr. (2)

Firemen's strike.

Ten days after the outbreak of the masons' strike the firemen on the ships belonging to the United Steamship Society (*Forenede Dampskibs Selskab*) struck work, demanding 60 kr. instead of 50 kr. a month, and definite rules as to payment for overtime. The movement spread from the men employed by the United Steamship Company to those in the service of an Atlantic line, the *Thingvalla*. It was also supported by the secretary of the English Sailors and Firemen's

Union, who threatened to stop all Danish vessels in English ports. Three ships on arriving at Copenhagen had lost their crews, the United Steamship Company nevertheless made no attempt at conciliation, but after announcing that no man who quitted his post would be re-engaged before a year had elapsed, it invited Swedish, Norwegian, and German sailors to take the places of the deserters. Work was scarce in the Baltic ports, and consequently the offer of the Danish shipowners was readily accepted. Foreign sailors flocked to Copenhagen, and encounters took place between them and the native seamen, which called for police interference. A few arrests were made, but order was quickly restored, and the company remained victorious. The failure of this strike has been attributed to the apathy of the English sailors who refused to interest themselves in the claims of the Danes. The strike was, however, concluded by an agreement signed at Newcastle by the presidents of the English and Danish Sailors and Firemen's Unions on the one side, and by some captains and officers of the United Steamship Company on the other. The agreement exacted that the Danish shipowners should recognise the sailors' union and take back the strikers, the Danish Company, however, refused to recognise the agreement, and many of the strikers were obliged to leave the country and seek employment elsewhere. In order to prevent the recurrence of strikes caused by foreign organisers, the Minister of the Interior put in force for the first time the law of 1875 on the expulsion of foreigners without visible means of subsistence. The person in question was a British subject who had taken an active part in organising the Seamen's Union in Scandinavia; he was expelled for having, as a promoter of the firemen's strike, caused the loss of a considerable amount of dairy produce which was awaiting shipment.

Danish law confers no power on the authorities to prevent combinations of employed, or to forbid strikes, but all possible efforts are made to put a stop to the intimidation of those who continue at work during a strike. A few local and partial strikes have occurred recently, but no general or important strike has taken place since the conclusion of the firemen's strike in 1890. (3)

Intimidation.

#### APPENDIX A.

##### *Sixth Meeting of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.*

The sixth annual meeting of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association, which was held at Skien, in January 1894, was attended by 62 representatives of the affiliated unions. The report on the work of the last three years showed that the association now included 13,000 members, and it was therefore proposed to change the name of the association to "The United Norwegian Workmen's Federation." Resolutions were passed, as in former years, in favour of the eight hours' day, and of State insurance against sickness, accident, old age, and invalidity. A discussion on the condition of agricultural labourers was followed by a resolution which demanded that the State should distribute small holdings of cultivable land to the labourers, and enable them to obtain working capital, by establishing a system of cheap loans. More prominence was given to purely political matters than in past years. The meeting demanded that universal suffrage for men should be discussed in the next session of Parliament, and made agreement on this point a condition of co-operation with the Left in the coming elections. The meeting further resolved that if a majority of two-thirds could not be obtained for this reform, universal communal suffrage should be passed by law.

An amendment to the effect that the meeting would not oppose the simultaneous introduction of proportional voting was passed. A lively debate took place on the representation of workmen in the *Storting*, and it was resolved that the party should endeavour to send as many representatives as possible, instead of trusting to the promises of the Radical members. With regard to the question of the Union, the meeting resolved that Norwegian independence must be asserted by means of a separate consulate, and a separate Ministry for Foreign Affairs. It was also resolved that the *Storting*

(1) Meyer. Der Emancipationskampf des vierten Standes, Vol. II., p. 301. Et Alvorsord til Arbejderne af en Arbejderven, pp. 19-32. Conditions du Travail en Danemark, p. 52.  
(2) Conditions du Travail en Danemark, p. 53. Report of Mr. McDonell from Copenhagen, 1891, No. 34, Commercial.  
(3) Conditions du Travail en Danemark, p. 55. Report of Mr. McDonell from Copenhagen, 1891, No. 34, Commercial.

(1) Conditions du Travail en Danemark, p. 55. Report of Mr. McDonell from Copenhagen, 1891, No. 34, Commercial.  
\* The extension of the franchise to women is part of the programme, but the Association does not regard it as a matter of immediate urgency.

must seek to carry out its decisions by all constitutional means, especially the numerous labour reforms which were now retarded by strife on matters concerning the Union<sup>(1)</sup>.

## APPENDIX B.

List of Books and Pamphlets consulted in the preparation of the Report on the Labour Question in Scandinavian countries.

## SWEDEN.

1. Arbetareförsäkrings komitens. Förslag till Lagar. (Bill proposed by the Commission on the Insurance of Workmen.)
2. Arbetareförsäkrings komitens Betänkande. (Report of the Commission on the Insurance of Workmen.)
  - I. Utlåtande och Förslag, 4 vols. (Recommendations and Proposals.)
  - II. Öfversigt af lagstifningen rörande arbetareförsäkring i åtskilliga främmande länder. (Legislation in Foreign Countries.)
  - III. Statistiska Undersökningar, 7 vols. (Statistical Investigations.)
3. Skrifter utgifna af Lorenska Stiftelsen. (Publications of the Lorén Institute):—
  - (1.) Untersuchungen über die Ernährung Schwedischer Arbeiter bei frei gewählter Kost. E. O. Haltgren and Ernst Landergren. (The Food of Swedish Workmen.)
  - (2.) Arbetarelagstifningen och Fabriksinspektionen i Utlandet. J. H. G. Fredholm. (Labour and Factory Legislation in Foreign Countries.)
  - (3.) Tjenare, Statare och Torpare. Urban v. Feilitzen. (Servants, Farm labourers, and Cottagers.)
  - (4.) Bostadsförhållandena för de mindre bemedlade i Göteborg. Studie sommaren, 1889. Hjalmar Wallqvist. (Housing of the poorer classes in Gothenburg.)
4. Arbetagifvare och Arbetare. Axel Raphael. (Employers and Employed.)
5. Ett ögonkast på Fackförningsfrågan i Sverige. Isidor Kjellberg. (A glance at the Question of Trades Unions in Sweden.)
6. Åtta-Timmars-Dagen. Försök til Utredning af Normal Arbetsdagsfrågan. Pehr Eriksen. (On the Eight Hours' Day.)
7. Om Skydd för Arbetarne mot Yrkesfaran. Adolf Hedin. (On protection for Workmen against the Dangers incidental to their Trades.)
8. Nationalökonomiska Föreningens Förhandlingar, 1884. (Transactions of the National Economic Society.)
9. Arbetarefrågan med afseende fäst på Jordbrukarbetaren. H. Tissell. (The Labour Question, especially as it concerns Agricultural Labourers.)
10. Några Historiska Anteckningar ur Arbetarörelsen i Stockholm, 1887. (Historical Sketch of the Labour Movement in Stockholm.)
11. Bidrag till Sveriges officiella Statistik. Hushållningsällskapens Berättelser för år, 1891. (Reports on Domestic Economy.)
12. Det Nya Arbetareförsäkringsförslaget. (The new Workmen's Insurance Bill.)
13. Sammandrag af Yrkesinspektörens Berättelser för Åren 1890 och 1891. (Summary of Inspectors' Reports for 1890 and 1891.)
14. Aschehough. Das Staatsrecht der vereinigten Königreichen Schweden und Norwegen. (Constitutional Law of Sweden and Norway.)
15. Millet. Conditions du Travail en Suède et Norvège. (Conditions of Labour in Sweden and Norway.)
16. Foreign Office Publications:
  - Miscellaneous Series:—
  - 1890, No. 184, Gothenburg Licensing System.
  - 1893, No. 274, Further report on Gothenburg Licensing System.
  - 1893, No. 278, State Bank.
  - Annual Series:—
  - 1892, No. 1067, Trade of Gothenburg.
  - 1892, No. 1125, Trade of Stockholm.
  - 1893, No. 1156, Trade of Sweden.

## NORWAY.

1. (1.) Arbeiderkommissionens Instilling. I., 1888.
- (2.) Arbeiderkommissionens Instilling. II., 1890.
- (3.) Arbeiderkommissionens Instilling. III., 1890. (Labour Commission Reports.)
2. Oversættelser og Aftryk af endel Udenlandske Love og Lovforslag om Tilsyn med Arbeide i Fabriker, Arbeiderforsikring og, v., 1889. (Translations of Foreign Laws and Bills on Factory Inspection, Workmen's Insurance, &c., Appendix to Report I. of the Labour Commission.)
3. Indstilling 0, LX.
4. Oth. Prp., No. 24.
5. Statistiske Undersøgelser angaaende Ulykkestilfælde under Arbeide, 1889. (Accident statistics. Appendix to Report III. of the Labour Commission.)
6. Bætzmann. Indberetning til den kongelige Norske Regjerings Departement for det Indre angaaende den belgiske Arbeider kommission of 15de April 1886. (Report on the Belgian Labour Commission, 2 vols.)
7. Castberg. Beretning om Arbeidsdagen i England, 1892. (Report on the Hours of Labour in England.)
8. Castberg. Indberetning om Fabriksinspektor Institutionen i England.
9. Castberg. Indberetning om Fabriksinspektor Institutionen i Schweiz, Tyskland, og Østerrige, 1892. (Report on Factory Inspection in Switzerland, Germany, and Austria.)
10. Loi du 27 Juin 1892 sur l'Inspection du Travail dans les Fabriques. (Norwegian law on Factory Inspection.)
11. Statistik over Norges Fabrikantlæg ved Udgangen af Aaret, 1890. (Factory statistics in Norway, 1892.)
12. Dehli. Indberetning om Arbeiderforhold og Arbeiderlovgivning i England og de Forende Staten, 1893. (Report on the Conditions of Labour and Labour Legislation in England and the United States.)
13. Tabeller vedkommende Folkmengdens Bevægelse i Aarene, 1866-90. (Movement of the Population.)
14. Tabeller vedkommende Norges Bergvaerksdrift i Aarene, 1889 and 1890. (Mining Statistics.)
15. Oversigt over Kongeriget Norges civil, geistlige og judicielle Inddeling, 1893. (Civil, clerical, and judicial classes.)
16. Foreløbige Resultater af Folketællingen i Kongeriget Norge, 1ste Jan. 1891. (First results of Census of 1891.)
17. Meddelelser fra det Statistiske Centralbureau ellefte Bind, No. 4, 1893. (Communications from the Central Statistical Bureau.)
18. Kiær. Indtægts og Formuesforhold i Norge, 1892. Første Hefte. (Wealth of Norway.)
20. Lov om Fattigvæsenet i Kjøbstæderne. (Poor Law in towns.)
21. Lov om Fattigvæsenet paa Landet and Tillæg. (Poor Law in the country.)
22. Beretning om Christiania Fattigvæsen for Aaret 1892. (Report on the administration of the Poor Law in Christiania in 1892.)
23. Fattigvæsen. (The Poor Law in Christiania.)
24. (a) Love for De forende norske Arbeidersamfund og Arbeiderforeninger. (Rules of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.)
- (b) Arbeids program for De forenede norske Arbeidersamfund, vedtaget paa det 1ste overordentlige repræsentantsmøde i Christiania den 31te July 1892. (Programme of the first extraordinary meeting of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.)
- (c) Udkast til Love for De forenede norske Arbeidersamfund. (Proposed rules of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.)
- (d) Plan for det 6te norske Arbeidermøde. (Programme for the sixth meeting of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.)

(1) Sozialpolitisches Centralblatt. 2te Jahrgang, p. 236.

25. Forhandlinger ved det Første til Femte norske Arbeidermøde. (Transactions of the first five general meetings of the United Norwegian Workmen's Association.)
26. Program og love for Det norske Arbejderparti. (Programme and rules of the Norwegian Labour Party.)
27. Protokol over Forhandlingerne paa Det norske Arbejderpartis 7de Landsmøde, 1893. (Report of the seventh annual meeting of the Norwegian Labour Party.)
28. Foreign Office Reports :
  - Miscellaneous Series:—
  - 1891, No. 215, Fisheries of Norway.
  - 1893, No. 279, Gothenburg Licensing system.
  - 1893, No. 282, Peasant Proprietors in Norway.
  - Annual Series:—
  - 1892, No. 1143, Trade of Norway.
  - 1893, No. 1272, Trade of Christiania.

## DENMARK.

1. Kommissions Betänkning, 1887. (Report of the Commission appointed in 1885 to inquire into the means of establishing a general system of Insurance against sickness and accident, with the following Appendices:—
2. England's og Tysklands Lovgivning for Arbejdere i Industri og Haandværk. Ludvig Bramsen. (The Laws of England and Germany with regard to Industrial Workpeople.)
3. Statistisk Fremstilling af Ulykkestilfælde under Arbejdet i Kongeriget Danmark for Femaaaret, 1880-4. Th. Sørensen. (Statistics of Accidents during Work.)
4. Sygeforsikring og Alderdomsforsørgelse, 1888. P. Knudsen. (Insurance against Old Age and Infirmary. Report of the Commission appointed by representatives of the Danish Sick Clubs, 1883.)
5. Fremstilling af den i forskellige fremmende Lande gjældende Ret og de senere Aaringers Reformforsøg med Hensyn til Sikringen af Arbejderne imod Følgerne af Ulykkestilfælde under Arbejdet. Jul. Schovelin. (Account of Sick and Accident Insurance of Workmen, as it exists in Germany, Austria, France, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, England, and the United States.)
6. De Danske Sygekasser. Jul. Schovelin. (Statistics of Danish Sick Clubs.)
7. Beretning om Arbejds-tilsynets Virksomhed i Aaret, 1888. (Reports of Inspectors of Labour for Years 1888, 1880-91, 1891-2.)
8. Englands Fabrik og Værkstedlovgivning. Birger Hansted. (English Factory and Workshop Legislation.)
9. Hvad kan der gjøres for at forbedre Tyendforholdenes. (What can be done to improve the relations between masters and servants?)
10. Et Alvorsord til Arbejderne af en Arbejderen i Copenhagen, 1886. (A word in earnest to Workmen by a workman's friend.)
11. Hvilken Indflydelse har den nyere Tids industrielle Udvikling havt paa Almuens Kaar. W. Scharling, Copenhagen, 1863. (What influence has the industrial development of recent times had upon the position of the poor?)
12. Tabelværk til Kjöbenhavns Statistik, 1883. (Statistics of Copenhagen, 1883.)
13. Oplysninger om Arbejdernes økonomiske Vilkaar i Kongeriget Danmark i Aaret, 1872. Udgivne af Indenrigsministeriet. (On the economic condition of the working classes in Denmark in 1872. Published by the Ministry of the Interior, 1874.)
14. Arbejdslønnen i Kjöbenhavn i Aaret 1892. M. Rubin. (The Wages of Labour in Copenhagen in the year 1892.)
15. Denmark, its Medical Organisation, Hygiene, and Demography.
16. Sygekasse Spørgsmaalets Behandling i Danmark siden 1861 af Thorvald Kornorup, 1891. (The Treatment of the Sick Funds Question in Denmark since 1861.)
17. Ubemidlede Forsørgelse under Sygdom, Arbejdsudygtighed og Alderdom. Ludvig Bramsen, 1890. (Provision against Sickness, Incapacity, and Old Age.)
18. Om Alderdoms og Invalideforsørgelse af N. Neergaard. (On Insurance against Old Age and Invalidity, 1890.)
19. Arbejders Forsikring imod Ulykkestilfælde af Ludvig Bramsen, 1884. (The Insurance of Workmen against Accidents.)
20. Om Statens Stilling til Ubemidlede Alderdomsforsørgelse i flere Europæiske Lande af Cordt Trap, 1892. (The position of the State towards Old Age Insurance in several countries of Europe.)
21. Statens Stilling til Ubemidlede Alderdomsforsørgelse. (Answer to Cordt Trap, by L. Bramsen, 1892.)
22. Lov af 9 April 1891 om Det offentlige Fattigvæsen samt Lov om Alderdomsunderstøttelse. A. Krieger. (Poor Law and Law on Provision for Old Age.)
23. Vedtægter for de samvirkende Fagforeningers Fællesvirksomhed. (Rules of Trade Councils.)
  - Love for Snedker og Stølemagernes Fagforening. (Rules of Joiners' and Cabinet-makers' Union.)
  - Love for Malernes Fagforening. (Rules of Painters' Union.)
  - Love for Malerforbundet i Danmark. (Rules of Painters' Federation.)
  - Love for Tobaksarbejder Forbundet, "Enigheden." (Rules of Tobacco-makers' Federation, "The Alliance.")
  - Love for Tobaksarbejder Forbundet i Danmark. (Rules of Tobacco-makers' Federation in Denmark.)
  - Love for Skomageravendes Forbund i Köbenhavn. (Rules of Shoemakers' Federation in Copenhagen.)
  - Love for Skomageravendes Forbund in Danmark. (Rules of Shoemakers' Federation in Denmark.)
24. Arbejdskontrakter, Kontraktbrud og Afgørelse af Arbejdsstridigheder L. Bramsen. Særtryk af Beretning om det sjette danske Industrimøde i Kjöbenhavn, 1892. (Labour contracts, breach of contracts, and settlement of labour difficulties.)
25. Den voksne Kvinde og Arbejderkonferencen i Berlin. Særtryk af "Kvinder og Samfundet." (Adult women and the Labour Conference at Berlin, reprinted from "Women and Society.")
26. Reprints from "For Industri og Haandverke," 1892. Socialreformen i de nordiske Lande.
  - I. Sverige.
  - II. Norge. (a.) Beskyttelseslovgivningen. (Protective Legislation.) (b.) Arbejdskontrakter. (Labour Contracts.)
  - III. Normalarbejdsdagen. (Normal Day.)
27. Nationalökonomisk Tidsskrift, 1893. (Economic Journal.)
28. Conditions du Travail en Danemark, 1891. (Conditions of Labour in Denmark.)
29. Goos und Hansen. Staatsrecht des Königreichs Dänemark. (Constitutional Law of Denmark.)
30. Foreign Office Reports :
  - Miscellaneous Series:
    - 1888, No. 101, Dairy Farms in Denmark.
    - 1889, No. 151, State Butter Shows.
    - 1890, No. 187, State Insurance.
    - 1892, No. 287, Statistics of Copenhagen.
  - Annual Series:
    - 1892, No. 1,090, Agriculture of Denmark.
    - 1892, No. 1,138, Trade of Denmark.

## GENERAL.

- Meyer. Emancipationskampf des vierten Standes, Vol. II.
- Lavollée. Les Classes Ouvrières en Europe, Vol. II.
- Quèker. Etudes sur les Questions Ouvrières.
- Lexis. Handwörterbuch des Staatwissenschaften, Vols. I.-V.
- Weitemeyer. Le Danemark.
- Congres International des Accidents du Travail. Berne, 1891. Rapports et Procès-verbaux.
- Statistical Abstract, 1881 to 1890-1.
- Poor Laws in Foreign Countries. Reports communicated to the Local Government Board.
- Provision for the Industrial Population for Old Age, C. 6429.
- Working of Cargoes on Sundays, C. 6369.
- Condition of the Industrial Classes in Foreign Countries, C. 68.
- The Labour Gazette.
- Statistical Journal:  
 Vol. XLVIII., Part I.  
 Vol. L., Part I.  
 Vol. LII., Part II.
- L'Association Catholique, 1893.
- Sozialpolitisches Centralblatt, Vols. I. and II.

## REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

### TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page.
<b>I.—INTRODUCTION :</b>	
1. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS . . . . .	51
2. POLITICAL CONDITIONS . . . . .	51
(a.) Political parties . . . . .	51
(b.) Socialists . . . . .	51
(c.) Anarchists . . . . .	52
3. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS . . . . .	52
(a.) Industrial conditions . . . . .	52
(b.) Condition of agriculture . . . . .	52
4. GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE . . . . .	52
5. MOVEMENT OF THE POPULATION . . . . .	53
(a.) Immigration of foreign labour . . . . .	53
(b.) Migration from department to department . . . . .	53
(c.) Emigration . . . . .	53
6. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED . . . . .	53
(a.) Important strikes at Bilbao and Barcelona . . . . .	53
(b.) Strikes in the province of Valencia . . . . .	54
(c.) General conditions in Portugal . . . . .	54
<b>II.—CONDITIONS OF LABOUR :</b>	
1. WAGES . . . . .	55
(a.) Wages in Spain generally . . . . .	55
(b.) Wages in Valencia . . . . .	55
(c.) Cost of living in Spain . . . . .	56
(d.) Wages and cost of living in Portugal . . . . .	56
2. HOURS . . . . .	56
(a.) Usual hours in Spain . . . . .	56
(b.) Usual hours in Portugal . . . . .	56
(c.) The Eight Hours agitation . . . . .	56
3. LABOUR OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN . . . . .	57
(a.) Child labour in Spain . . . . .	57
(b.) Labour of women in Spain . . . . .	57
(c.) Labour of women and children in Portugal . . . . .	57
4. STATE EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR . . . . .	58
(a.) Tobacco factories and other industries . . . . .	58
(b.) Public works . . . . .	58
5. ACCIDENTS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY . . . . .	59
<b>III.—ORGANISATION :</b>	
1. DIFFERENT KINDS OF ORGANISATIONS . . . . .	59
(a.) Guilds . . . . .	59
(b.) Co-operative and mutual benefit societies . . . . .	59
(c.) Trade unions and strike funds . . . . .	61
2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION . . . . .	61
(a.) Joint committees . . . . .	61
(b.) Intervention of the civil authorities . . . . .	61

APPENDIX A. LIST OF BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS CONSULTED IN THE PREPARATION OF THE REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL . . . . . 62

APPENDIX B. STATISTICAL INFORMATION SUPPLIED BY SEÑOR DON GUMERSINDO DE AZCARATE, March 10th, 1894 62

## REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

### INTRODUCTION.

The labour question has not hitherto assumed very great importance either in Spain or Portugal, owing to the agricultural character of the countries, the comparatively slight development of their industrial resources, and the frugality and relative sparseness of their population. There is, moreover, much difficulty in arriving at any general conclusions as to the social and economic position of the working classes and their relations to their employers, because in Spain, at any rate, these conditions vary indefinitely from province to province, and are complicated by differences of race and of climate. The chief sources of information on the subject of Spanish labour are the reports dating from 1889 to 1892 of the Royal Commission on Social Reform. In these reports a considerable mass of evidence, both oral and written, has been collected, bearing on wages, hours of work, the labour of women and children, trade disputes, benefit societies, and kindred points; but very much of the information is far less recent than might be supposed from the date on the title page. It is, moreover, often so irrelevant in character and so general in its bearing as to more than justify the opinion of Sir Francis Clare Ford, Her Majesty's Ambassador at Madrid in 1891, that the whole subject is "in the stage of theoretical study rather than in that of practical treatment."

In forming any estimate of the economic condition of Spain there are certain social and political factors which must be borne in mind. The strong local and provincial feeling, founded on real racial distinctions, from which the federalist party of 1873 drew their inspiration, still exists, though minor differences have been to a great extent forgotten in a common and chivalrous devotion to the child-king and his mother. Around Madrid, the half-Parisian centre of the kingdom, are clustered the Basque provinces of the north-west, Carlist and Ultra-montane in sympathy, and the Catalan provinces of the north-east, including Barcelona, the commercial heart of Spain, and the source whence any general labour agitation is likely to proceed. In the south lie the plains of Estremadura, and the provinces of Valencia, Murcia, and Andalusia, skirting the Mediterranean Sea, and with a population little disposed to active exertion, and careless of any rapid industrial development.

The chequered course of Spanish history during the present century, with its rapid transitions from monarchy to republic, and its internecine warfare between rival dynasties, has brought about a very great subdivision of political parties, even within the two main camps of republicans and supporters of the monarchy. The extreme right on the monarchical side is represented by the Ultramontanes, who are again subdivided into Pure Ultramontanes, not wedded to any particular dynasty or form of government, Carlists, or supporters of the monarchy by divine right, the most numerous section, and a small group known as the Conservative-monarchical party. This party is not far removed from the next division, the Liberal Conservatives, whilst the Liberal party under Señor Sagasta includes many of the old democratic party, a certain number of the old progressists, and a few members who were formerly linked with the Conservatives. The Republican Opportunists, who for some time represented the conservative and anti-revolutionary element on the republican side, have, since the retirement of Señor Castelar, shown a tendency to revert to the ranks of the liberal supporters of the monarchy, whilst most of those who were averse to this course have been merged in the other republican parties. These are three in number, the Federalists, who advocate a federation of small groups after the fashion upheld by Proudhon; the Centralists, who hold a position between this view and that of the third section; the Progressive Democrats, who adopt an attitude of hostility towards the monarchy, whilst at the same time desiring to see a Republican Government conducted on Conservative lines. There remain the Socialists and Anarchists, who hold aloof from all political parties, the Anarchists, in accordance with their principle of hostility to every form of government, and the Socialists, apparently owing to their desire to form an independent

party amongst the working classes as soon as they shall be strong enough (1).

The Socialist party in Spain, led by Señor Pablo Iglesias, a compositor in Madrid, was in its origin connected more or less directly with the Internationale, which had gained the adhesion of a certain number of Spanish revolutionary associations. Upon the collapse of the Internationale after the congress at the Hague in 1874, which adopted the resolution that "the proletariat can only act as a class by openly organizing itself as an independent political party prepared to attack all parties consisting of members of the "propertied classes," the Spanish members sought to accomplish their ends by the formation of associations. Lack of funds, and a declaration on the part of the Conservative Government that the movement was illegal, hampered their progress, but in 1878 the first branch of the Socialist Labour Party was established in Madrid, and issued a manifesto setting forth its programme. The main points in this programme were the necessity for great efforts on the part of the working classes to obtain political power, the conversion of private and corporate property into national property, and the establishment of society upon a federal basis involving the scientific organisation of labour and complete education for both sexes. In 1881, when the Conservative party went out of office, branch associations were formed at Barcelona, Malaga, and Guadalajara, and at a congress held at Barcelona in 1882, there were present 119 delegates from 88 workmen's unions. In 1885 the Madrid branch established a paper "*El Socialista*," to serve as the organ of the party, and, according to Señor Iglesias the diffusion of information by means of this paper greatly strengthened the influence of Socialist principles upon the Spanish workmen. By 1887 branch associations existed in Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia, Tarragona, Bilbao, Burgos, Mataro, Gracia, Roda, San Juan de Vilnaar, San Martin de Provencals, Malaga, Jativa, Guadalajara, and Linares, and the party succeeded in organising a General Workmen's Union, which, by 1891, included 60 branch unions. At a Socialist congress held in Barcelona in August 1888, nineteen districts were represented, and the programme adopted in 1878 was strengthened by the addition of clauses declaring that every workman ought to enjoy the full product of his labour, and that society was under an obligation to provide for the sick and aged. Amongst the immediate aims of the party were freedom of combination, freedom of the press, universal suffrage, personal security, the inviolability of private houses and of postal communication, abolition of capital punishment, free administration of justice, trial by jury for all criminal cases, abolition of a standing army and the general arming of the people, abolition of the national debt, the withdrawal of State aid from the clergy and the confiscation of their lands. The economic reforms demanded included a legal eight hours' day, the prohibition of the employment of children under 14, and the restriction of the hours of young persons between 14 and 18 to six, a minimum wage to be fixed every year by a permanent Labour Commission in accordance with the price of the necessaries of life, equal wages for equal work, irrespective of sex, one day's holiday every week, the prohibition of women's work where it is dangerous to health or morals and similar provisions, ending up with a progressive income tax upon all incomes of over 3,000 pesetas. In 1890 the branch associations numbered 23, and at the Congress of that year it was decided that the party should take an active share in the elections and should support only their own candidates. In February 1891 this decision was put into effect, but no Socialist candidates were elected, and the Socialist vote did not exceed 5,000 in any district. The progress of the party, however, can be seen, according to Señor Iglesias, in the increase of the branch associations to 36, and of the newspapers to four. Socialist influence is also to be traced in the demonstrations in favour of an eight hours' day which took place both in May 1890 and May 1891, and in the disturbances which resulted in both years at Bilbao in connexion with strikes amongst miners. In the

(1) Private information received.

General  
deter-

1. Political  
conditions.  
(2.) Poli-  
tical parties.

(3.) Social-  
ista.

municipal elections of 1891, the Socialists succeeded in returning one candidate in the mining districts and four in the towns; but, with this exception, they have not as yet accomplished much in their electoral campaigns, and in the last election of deputies to the Cortes, their vote in Madrid was insignificant.<sup>(1)</sup>

(c) Anarchists.

The Socialist party appear anxious to dissociate themselves from the Anarchists, whom they accuse of making continual attacks upon them and of trying to discredit them. Thus Señor Iglesias declares that the demonstration of the 1st of May 1891 would have been much more striking than it was "had not the Anarchists, who are for ever hindering the labour movement and the cause of labour organisation, brought forward a proposal for a general strike to obtain an eight hours' day and declared against any legislation for the protection of labour." It is difficult to obtain any accurate information as to the numbers and influence of the anarchist party. It is said to have its headquarters in Barcelona and in the province of Cadix. A writer in the "Neue Zeit" makes mention of a secret society in Andalusia known as the Society of the Black Hand (*mano negra*) said to be of anarchist views and including some of the clergy among its members.\* The general attitude of the Church towards the Anarchists is, however, better indicated by the writings of Father Antonio Vicent of the Society of Jesus, who speaks of the anarchist doctrine and practice in terms of the strongest reprobation, both on account of the specific declarations of atheism made, for instance, at the Valencia meeting of 1891, and on account of the violence and terrorism exercised in action. A writer in "La Justicia," the organ of the Republican Centralist party, describes the modern Spanish Anarchists as the direct descendants of the Spanish supporters of the Internationale. The principles of this association were introduced into Spain in 1869 by an Italian named Giuseppe Tauelli, who called together a small meeting in Barcelona. He was joined by two Spaniards of the name of Pellicer, one an engraver and the other a printer, who were respectively elected president and secretary of the first Spanish branch of the association, known as the *Nucleo*. The members of this *Nucleo* soon effected a secret junction with the sections of the Internationale led by Bakounin and devoted themselves to conducting a secret agitation in favour of social revolution. By exerting their influence they contrived that Rafael Farga Pellicer, their secretary, should be sent to the Congress at Bâle as the delegate of a group of Federal Republicans, known as the Federal Centre of Socialist Workmen. Upon his return Farga Pellicer summoned a congress of the Federal Centre, at which the Spanish section of the International Association of Working Men was definitely constituted with an executive committee stationed at Madrid. A shoemaker named Mora was a prominent member of this committee, and as early as 1870 a dispute arose between him and his colleagues, some of whom were opposed to the principle of authority at all. At the Congress of Zaragoza in 1871, the party opposed to authority triumphed; the victors started a paper entitled "El Condenado," and the vanquished a rival paper, "La Emancipación." At the congress of the Hague, where Bakounin finally broke with Karl Marx, the Spanish delegates voted for Bakounin and were prepared to adopt his most violent utterances. Of these delegates, however, Tomas Gonzalez Morago, one of the most extreme, became afterwards a forger of bank-notes and was imprisoned at Granada, where he died. Another, Nicolas Alonso Marcelao, a former theological student, returned to his earlier studies and became a priest. Farga Pellicer remained faithful to the party, and in 1873 was able to assure the Geneva Congress of the adhesion of 700 Spanish groups with 50,000 members, a greater number than had been announced from any other country. During the monarchical reaction the party showed little sign of life, but in 1881 the Anarchists and Collectivists formed themselves into the District Federation of Workmen, an association which survived until 1888 and then gave place to the League of Union and Solidarity (*Pacto de Union y Solidaridad*). This society aims rather at revolutionary measures than at the promotion of strikes and has its most numerous groups in the provinces of Andalusia, Valencia and Catalonia. Its organ is called "El Productor" and during 1886 and 1887 a monthly review was also published at Barcelona under the title of "Acracia." Latterly a communist opposition to the

collectivist principles of the league has appeared in Andalusia, and the old charge of a desire to exercise too much authority has been brought by the former against the latter. There exists also a third branch, the Anarchists without qualification, either collectivist or communist, who aim at revolution for revolution's sake without regard to its results. The practical aims of the Anarchists have been indicated both by the attack made upon the Xeres prison in January, 1892, and by the outrage in the Barcelona theatre on November 7th, 1893. According to the most recent accounts the Spanish authorities have made a large number of arrests and are said to be on the track of certain anarchist plots.<sup>(1)</sup>

In the absence of any industrial statistics it is impossible to do more than frame a rough estimate of the number of persons employed in industry and manufactures whether in Spain or in Portugal. In the most important of the Spanish manufacturing departments, Barcelona, Lerida, Tarragona, Castellon, and Valencia, the manufacturing population may be put at over 200,000, and in Catalonia generally a large number of persons are employed in the textile trades. The organisation of industry in Andalusia is still very primitive in form, and consists for the most part of small groups of workmen, usually seven in number, under an employer or "master." If the trade is exercised within a limited space the group is known as a "workshop" (*taller*); if it is carried on in different places as a "gang" (*quadrilla*). Wherever this system prevails the number of employers is relatively very great. In the departments of Alicante and Murcia the working population is about 15,000, in Malaga, Granada, Jaen, and Cordova it is 13,000, and in Cadix, Seville, and Huelva 30,000. Estremadura, La Mancha, and Castille are chiefly agricultural, but in the north again, and especially at Bilbao, there is considerable industrial development. The iron mines occupy 12,000 men, the metal works and foundries nearly 5,000, the fish-curing establishments 2,000, and the general working population may be estimated at about 40,000.

3. From condition (a.) Industrial conditions.

For Portugal no statistics are available later than those for 1881, which give 10,250 men, 5,375 women, and 3,599 children employed in factories, whilst 15,733 men, 3,159 women, and 2,146 children are employed in workshops. Home industries are very prevalent, and employ as many as 45,000 persons. The progress of industry may be partially inferred from the fact that in 1881 the total number of machines in use in Portugal was 328, whilst in 1889 the annual importation was 85.<sup>(2)</sup>

The extent to which agriculture is hampered through the difficulties experienced in obtaining credit by the small proprietors and peasant cultivators is made a strong point by the advocates of some such system of rural banks has been successfully established in Germany and Italy. In Andalusia the condition of the agricultural classes is specially wretched owing, it is said, to the exactions of the local officials or mayors (*caciques*) who seize upon the goods of the small farmers in arrears with their taxes, or get them into their power by lending them money at an exorbitant rate of interest. The general depression is shown by the number of villages which are gradually becoming depopulated and by the absence of bridges over the rivers or of dams to prevent the frequent floods. In many of the small towns there is no post office, in a large number of districts there are no schools, even with a population of 15,000. The administration of justice, and the recruiting for the army, are a mere question of money payments; it is only the poorest who are obliged to serve in the ranks from inability to secure their freedom by bribery.† Mr. Crawford, writing of Portugal, gives a more favourable account of the Portuguese farmers. Though leading a laborious life, they are said to be a cheerful, contented race, with a fair standard of living, and far removed from actual want.<sup>(3)</sup>

(b.) Condition of agriculture.

There is, as has already been indicated, a marked difference between the population of the different Spanish provinces. In the Basque provinces of the

4. General observations on the population.

(1) Private information received. *Neue Zeit*, 1891-2, No. 20. Socialismo y Anarquismo. Padre Antonio Vicent, 1893, pp. 127-132. "La Justicia," January 2nd, 1894. Contemporary English press accounts.

(2) French Report 1890, pp. 12-14, 57, 58.  
(3) Babaso "El Credito Agrícola," 1893, pp. 13-41, 349. Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., p. 202 et seq. Vol. III, pp. 93, 94. *Neue Zeit*, 1891-92, No. 20. Crawford, "Round the Calendar in Portugal," 1890, pp. 186-210, 241-253. De Tora, "La Crisis Agraria Europea," 1897, pp. 215-221. Escartin, "La Cuestion Economica," 1890, pp. 172-174.

† Some difference of opinion exists among the authorities on these points.

(1) *Neue Zeit*, 1891-92, Nos. 12 and 13; Articles by Iglesias.  
\* The presence of clergy in this society has been disputed.

north the workmen are said to be hard-working, tractable, and thrifty. They do not possess any great physical strength, and are often ill-fed, but they are, nevertheless, able to meet the severe demands made upon them by the work in the mines and blast-furnaces. The low standard of education brings with it an indifference to politics, which has been to a certain extent overcome lately by the efforts of socialist emissaries from Catalonia. This province is in closer accord with other European industrial centres than any other part of Spain; the standard of education is considerably higher, and, though the Catalonian labourer is as industrious and temperate as the Basque, he takes far more interest in economic questions and in politics. In Andalusia again, the labourer is little inclined to exert himself to any greater extent than is necessary to satisfy his very moderate daily wants. In standard of living he is below the workmen of the other provinces, and as he is absolutely devoid of any forethought, he is not unfrequently reduced to a condition of pauperism. Sobriety and an almost primitive simplicity characterise the Portuguese workman. Helped by the favourable climate, a modest wage places him beyond the reach of actual privation, and, were it not for his passion for lotteries, he might frequently succeed in effecting some small annual saving. Intellectually he is little developed, and, though possessed of political rights in the form of almost universal suffrage, appears to concern himself little with political questions.<sup>(1)</sup>

There is but little immigration of foreign labour into either Spain or Portugal. English or Belgian foremen are often engaged in the metal works of the province of Biscaya, and in the textile mills and other establishments in Catalonia. As a rule, however, their engagement is only temporary, and its object is rather to instruct the Spanish workmen in new processes than to effect any permanent substitution of foreign for native labour. Frenchmen were for a long employed in the glass industry, but now the native Spaniards are taking their place. One industry forms a curious exception. There has been a continuous stream of French bakers into Madrid for many years, and baking is almost entirely in the hands of Frenchmen. Wages in Portugal are scarcely high enough to attract any large number of foreign workmen. Consequently there is little immigration other than the temporary engagement of workmen of a superior class for purposes of instruction as in Spain. A fair number of Spaniards come in also from Galicia to undertake the severer forms of labour for which the Portuguese are disinclined. According to the figures collected by the Spanish Geographical and Statistical Institute the proportion in Spain of aliens to the total inhabitants is greatest in the departments bordering on Portugal and France, but it is nowhere very considerable, and does not in any case amount to 1 per cent. In Cadiz and Huelva it is 0·94, in Barcelona 0·92, in Guipuzcoa 0·85, in Gerona 0·74, in Biscaya 0·71, and in Madrid 0·50. The French are most numerous in Barcelona, Gerona, Madrid, Guipuzcoa, and Navarra, the Portuguese in Badajoz and Huelva.<sup>(2)</sup>

No very recent statistics are available with regard to migration from one department to another, but some idea of its extent may be gathered from the figures showing the proportion of inhabitants who are not natives of the department. According to the calculations of the Geographical and Statistical Institute in Madrid, this proportion amounts to 45·49 per cent., but no other department can show anything like this percentage. Barcelona comes next with 19·56 per cent., Alava with 16·35, Cadiz with 15·09, Biscaya with 13·79, Valladolid with 13·10, Jaen with 12·55, Seville with 11·93, and Zaragoza with 11·40. All the other departments show less than 10 per cent. of inhabitants who are not natives, and there are only 12 in all out of the 49 departments which exceed 7·74 per cent., the average for Spain as a whole. These 12 include Santander, Navarra, and Guipuzcoa, besides those already mentioned. At certain seasons there is a considerable influx of agricultural labour from other provinces into Andalusia and Castille.<sup>(3)</sup>

It is difficult to obtain accurate information as to the extent of the emigration from Spain. The Geographical and Statistical Institute attempts to give

some idea of it by stating the number of persons entering Spain, and those leaving it, for the years 1882 and 1883, and also the number of Spaniards resident in different parts of the globe. There were 75,794 in other European countries, 73,781 of whom, or 98·65 per cent., were to be found in France alone. In Asia there were 420, chiefly in China and Singapore; in Africa there were 115,449, of whom more than 99 per cent. are in Algeria, and in America the total number was 140,822, including 59,022, or 41·91 per cent. in the Argentine Republic, 39,780, or 28·24 per cent. in Uruguay, 20,000, or 14·20 per cent., in Mexico, and 11,544, or 8·19 per cent. in Venezuela. The United States only contained 5,121, or 3·62 per cent. The United States statistics give the number of Spanish immigrants into the country as 1,123 in 1869, after which a gradual decline set in, until in 1883 it was only 262. From that year until 1889 the numbers rose gradually to 526, in 1890 there was a marked increase to 813, in 1891 to 905, and in 1892 to 1,006. According to Signor Bodio's figures, the total transoceanic migration from Spain for the years from 1882 to 1891, and from Portugal from 1872 to 1890, was as follows:—

	Spain.	No.
1882	- - -	25,796
1883	- - -	26,669
1884	- - -	20,769
1885	- - -	24,315
1886	- - -	34,043
1887	- - -	37,200
1888	- - -	49,383
1889	- - -	97,719
1890	- - -	37,025
1891	- - -	37,721

Portugal.	No.	Portugal.	No.
1872	- - -	1882	- - -
1873	- - -	1883	- - -
1874	- - -	1884	- - -
1875	- - -	1885	- - -
1876	- - -	1886	- - -
1877	- - -	1887	- - -
1878	- - -	1888	- - -
1879	- - -	1889	- - -
1880	- - -	1890	- - -
1881	- - -		

In 1890 as many as 12,008 Spanish immigrants arrived in Brazil as well as 25,177 immigrants from Portugal. A large proportion of the European immigration into Chile is said to be Spanish, and the majority of the Spanish immigrants are unable to read and write.<sup>(4)</sup>

In Spain, as in other countries, disputes between employers and employed have been for the most part concerned with wages or hours of work; it is comparatively seldom that these disputes have resulted in strikes. A strike of ironfounders is recorded as early as 1852, one of metal workers at Seville in 1872, and one of printers in 1882. Locksmiths, bakers, and members of other industries have struck from time to time in some districts, but most frequently at Valencia and Barcelona. All these disturbances were of short duration, and were arranged between the parties concerned. It was not until 1887 that any serious strike occurred necessitating official intervention, but in that year the miners of Huelva, affected by a general agitation which was being carried on against the mining companies to compel them to abandon the practice of burning lime in the open air, became so violent that it was necessary to call out the troops. The regulation of the lime burning question by the administrative authorities put an end to the disturbance.

It is only, therefore, quite within recent years that trade disputes on any extended scale have shown themselves in Spain and as in other countries it is the districts in which industry has been developed on the largest scale which have proved the most fertile in strikes.

(a.) Immigration of foreign labour.

(b.) Migration from department to department.

(c.) Emigration.

(d.) General relations between employers and employed.

(e.) Important strikes at Bilbao and Barcelona.

(1) French Report 1890, pp. 15-17, 57.  
 (2) French Report, 1890, pp. 31, 32, 66, Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., pp. 15-21.  
 (3) Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., pp. 11-16.

(4) Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., pp. 22-31. Foreign Reports, Vol. II., p. 190, Vol. VII., p. 68.



The province of Biscaya, on the northern coast, and its chief town, Bilbao, the centre of the iron mining industry, have been the scene of the most rapid advances of the Socialist party as well as of the most serious amongst Spanish strikes. The immediate occasion of the disputes both in 1890 and 1891 was the celebration of the festival of Labour Day on or about May 1st, in accordance with the resolutions passed at the Paris International Congress of 1889. Immediately after the demonstration of May 4th, 1890, one of the mine owners discharged all the members of the Socialist society of *La Arboleda* how were in his employment, and the miners in return struck to the number of 15,000, and demanded the re-instatement of the discharged men, the abolition of the shops and dwellings erected by the employers, and the reduction of the working hours from 12 or 14 to 10. Troops were at once moved into the district, and many arrests were made; but the strike, according to Señor Iglesias, terminated in favour of the miners, partly through the action of the commanding officer, who after a personal visit to the houses of which complaints were made, declared them unfit for habitation, and advised the employers to give way. In Carthagena and Portman, there were small strikes at the same time, but these were speedily terminated by the mediation of the Chamber of Commerce. Similar disturbances at Madrid and Valencia were settled in the one case by the intervention of the civil authorities, and in the other by the action of a joint committee. On the approach of the 1st of May 1891, the mine owners again decided to discharge persons who had made themselves prominent in Socialist agitation. The provincial government of Biscaya took the lead in one of their own mines by discharging 17 men, and other mine-owners followed their example. The miners, however, decided against a general strike in view of the necessity of strengthening their organisation. Later in the year strikes occurred amongst the iron-founders, stone-cutters, bakers and paper-makers of Bilbao. The bakers' strike was the most important and led to very serious results. A meeting was called by the strikers in the theatre to protest against the action of the authorities in supporting the employment of unskilled labour by the master bakers during the strike. Towards the end of the meeting the police interfered and drove the crowd into the street, where in the struggle that followed one of the strikers was shot dead by a policeman. The tumult excited by this misadventure had finally to be quelled by the troops; several arrests were made, but after being kept in custody for several weeks all the persons arrested were discharged. In 1890 serious strikes occurred in Catalonia, also in connection with the May Day demonstrations. There, again, they were "not terminated without exceptional measures being taken" by the authorities for the preservation of order, a "military government being temporarily established in place of the ordinary civil administration."<sup>(1)</sup>

(b) Strikes in the province of Valencia.

With the exception of the provinces of Valencia no complete or detailed information is available, whether with regard to strikes, or to any other part of the labour question. Inasmuch, however, as Valencia stands half-way between the Catalan provinces of the north, and the more purely Spanish provinces of Murcia and Andalusia in the south, it may be taken as representing an intermediate stage between the greater activity in labour matters of the Catalans, and the comparative apathy and indifference of the Andalusians. Whilst on the one hand strikes are probably both less numerous and less violent than at Barcelona or in the Basque provinces, they are almost certainly more frequent than would be the case in the south.

A strike in the Valencia silk industry is mentioned as early as 1873, and appears to have been not unconnected with the influence of the Internationale. Since that period, up to the date of the Commission's inquiry, there have been five strikes in the industry, two in 1878, one in 1879, one in 1881, and one in 1882. A small strike for an increase in wages occurred amongst carpenters in 1883, but as a rule, disputes in that industry in Valencia from 1873 to 1879 have been amicably settled by means of a joint committee, and since by peaceable negotiation between the two parties. This method of settlement has been also employed by

the bricklayers. A strike of four months duration occurred amongst ironworkers from October 1882 until February 1883. Strikes have occurred amongst bakers in 1871 for an increase of wages, in 1879 for a weekly day of rest, in 1881 for increase of wages and reduction of hours, and in 1884 for a lightening of work by increasing the number of men in a shift. A strike amongst tanners in 1874 was, like the silk-workers' strike in 1873, attributed to the influence of the Internationale. The object of the strike was an increase of wages, a reduction of hours and the non-admission or discharge of workmen without reference to the general body. It was declared at a most unfortunate moment for the employers, when the tanning pits were full of skins which would be irretrievably ruined if they were not taken out and worked at the proper time. In 1882 the employers, remembering their former experiences, discharged a number of workmen of collectivist tendencies, with the result that another strike was declared. A five months' strike occurred amongst the printers in one establishment in 1881, and was supported by the Typographic Society, a union formed for strike purposes, on the ground that the owners of the particular establishment were indisposed to make certain concessions with regard to a proposed wages scale and the recognition of workmen's committees in the different establishments which had been obtained from the other employers. Stonemasons and workers in marble struck in 1872 for an increase of wages and a reduction of hours, and at the same time demanded that the employers should defray the cost of grinding their tools. The strike resulted in a compromise, on the whole in favour of the workmen, who gained an advance of 50 centimes, whilst their hours were reduced to nine, and except in one workshop the demand for the cost of grinding was conceded. Another strike occurred in the same workshop in 1882 owing to the discharge of certain members of a benefit society; it resulted in a further advance of wages, raising them in all to 3 pesetas a day. In 1884 there was a small strike in one establishment over the question of tool grinding. A fruitless strike took place amongst tailors in 1873, due to the length of the hours of work, which were often prolonged until 8 or 10 p.m., and included also the mornings of festivals. A curious strike is mentioned in 1881 as occurring amongst brokers and brokers' assistants, because they were unable to obtain their usual commission on the sale of lottery tickets. Besides these, strikes which are mentioned as occurring in the capital, disputes occurred in 1873 amongst members of the woollen industry at Bockairente, and amongst paper makers at Onteniente. At Enguera there was a general strike in 1874, and another in the woollen industry in 1883. An eight days' strike is also stated to have occurred amongst carpenters at Sueca in 1877. With the exception of the Enguera strike of 1874 none of the strikes, either in the capital or in any part of the province, were of a general character. They were in every other case confined to one industry, and very many only affected one or two workshops. The strikes of 1873 and 1874 were, for the most part, influenced and supported by the Internationale. A large number of the strikes were finally settled by the intervention of officials; in some cases the Governor interfered, and in others the Mayor (*alcalde*). The bakers' strike of 1881 resulted in the temporary formation of a joint committee, under the presidency of the head of the district trade guilds (*gremios*).<sup>(1)</sup>

In Portugal, according to a despatch from Her Majesty's Minister at Lisbon in 1892, "the conditions of labour in Portugal remain very much what they have been in the past, and, at all events, have not changed to the extent of giving rise to a 'capital and labour question' as it exists elsewhere. There are symptoms, however, of a change in this respect. A congress was held last year at Oporto, attended by members of all the clubs and associations representing labour, at which there was a good deal of wild declamation, and some quarrelling, but nothing came of it, and it did not excite much public interest, even at the time." According to the answers received from a firm of British pottery manufacturers near Lisbon, a few strikes have occurred in the hatters' trade in Oporto, but such disputes are still comparatively rare.<sup>(2)</sup>

(c) General condition in Portugal

(1) Neue Zeit, 1891-2, No. 13, Article by Iglesias. Memorandum from H.M. Ambassador at Madrid, for the use of the Royal Commission on Labour, July 14th 1891. French Report 1890, p. 16.

(2) Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. III, pp. 32-40.

(3) Memorandum from H.M. Minister at Lisbon for the use of the Royal Commission on Labour, April 13th, 1892.

II. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

1. WAGES.

Wages  
main  
rally.

The wages in Spain vary very greatly according to the district. They are highest in the north, where they average from 2 to 8 pesetas a day for a man, and from 1 to 2.75 pesetas for a woman. In Catalonia the average is lower, except in Barcelona, but here the cost of living is higher in proportion than the increased rate of remuneration. In the south wages are, as a rule, lower, but it is difficult to make any general statements owing to the extent of the local fluctuations. Thus miners at points as far removed as Bilbao, in the north, and Huelva, in the south, receive from 3 to 5 pesetas a day, whilst in Murcia their wages are only from 2.25 to 4 pesetas. The general averages for Spain, as a whole, are given in the following table, taken from the report of the French representative in 1890:—

Industry.	Men.	Women.
	Pesetas.	Pesetas.
<b>Railways:</b>		
Engine-drivers -	280 a month	—
Stokers -	150 a month	—
Guards -	90-130 a month	—
Workmen -	2.50-3.80 a day	—
Pointsmen -	2.50 a day	—
<b>Mining (including iron, copper, coal):</b>		
Foremen -	3.50-7 a day	—
Miners -	2.50-5 a day	1 a day.
<b>Metal works, blast furnaces, forges, &amp;c.:</b>		
General labourers -	2.80 a day	—
Fitters -	—	—
Moulders -	3-6 a day	—
Turners -	—	—
Smelters -	—	—
Foremen smelters -	7-8 a day	—
<b>Lead foundries:</b>		
Smelters -	2.75 a day	—
Refiners -	2.25 a day	—
General labourers -	1.75-2 a day	—
<b>Dynamite works, chemical works, &amp;c.</b>	2.50-5 a day	1.25-2 a day.
Ship-building -	3.50-9 a day	—
Fish curing -	2-3 a day	1-2.50 a day.
Saw-mills and timber yards.	3.50-4.50 a day	—
Tobacco factories -	3-4 a day	1.25-2.75 a day.
Match factories -	2.25-3.50 a day	1.25-1.75 a day.
Brick and tile works -	2-4 a day	1-2 a day.
Textile trades -	2-4.50 a day	1-2.50 a day.
Cotton printing and bleaching.	3.50 a day	—
Printing -	4.50-7 a day	—
Gas works -	3-5 a day	—
Electric lighting -	3-7.50 a day	—
Flour mills -	3-4.50 a day	—
Bakers -	3.50-4 a day	1.50 a day.
Masons, house painters, carpenters, joiners, cabinet makers, stone cutters, locksmiths, plumbers, tinmiths.	2.50-5 a day	—
Carmen -	4.50-7 a day	—
Navvies -	0.25-0.35 a day	—
Tailors -	—	2 a day.
Glove makers -	—	2 a day.
Seamstresses -	—	0.75-1.25 a day.

As a rule, wages are fixed by special agreement between the individual parties, but in the Barcelona cotton printing and bleaching industry a tariff was established in 1881 by a committee composed of five delegates from the employers and five from the employed, with the civil governor of the province as president. According to this tariff every workman 21 years of age must receive a minimum wage of 21 pesetas a week, or 3.50 a day, on whatever kind of work he is employed. Children under nine years of age may not be employed and those between 9 and 12 must not be given work involving any severe physical strain. Ten pesetas a week must be paid to children between 12 and 14, 12 pesetas to those between 14 and 16, 15 pesetas to those between 16 and 18, and 18 pesetas to those between 18 and 20. Workmen in charge of special machinery receive 23 pesetas a week and those employed on night work instead of day work an extra 2 pesetas. The tariff was fixed for five years

at first, but since 1886, it has been kept in force by the tacit consent of both parties, though the workmen are disposed to regard it as inadequate and to demand its revision.<sup>(1)</sup>

The wages paid to members of different industries in the three towns, Valencia, Sueca, and Onteniente, in the province of Valencia, are shown by means of a diagram, from which the following figures have been taken:—

Industry.	Valencia.	Sueca.	Onteniente.
	Pesetas.	Pesetas.	Pesetas.
<b>1. Silk:</b>			
Brocade weavers -	3.50	—	—
Damask weavers -	2.75	—	—
Velvet weavers -	2.50	—	—
Handkerchief makers.	2.25	—	2.50
Plain silk weavers	2.25	—	2.25
<b>2. Locksmiths:</b>			
Foremen -	5.0	—	—
Workmen -	3.50	—	—
<b>3. Carpenters -</b>	3.25	1.75	1.50
<b>4. Cabinet-makers:</b>			
Men -	3.50	—	—
Women -	1.0	—	—
<b>5. Coopers -</b>	6.0	—	—
<b>6. Iron-workers:</b>			
Day labourers -	2.25	2.25	2.25
Skilled hands -	4.25	2.0	1.75
Foremen -	6.25	—	3.0
Apprentices -	1.50	—	—
<b>7. Bricklayers:</b>			
Builders -	3.0	2.75	2.50
Labourers -	1.82	—	—
Apprentices -	1.82	—	—
Women -	1.0	—	—
<b>8. Stone cutters -</b>	3.0	2-50	—
<b>9. Marble workers -</b>	2.50	—	—
<b>10. House painters -</b>	2.87	3.0	—
<b>11. Mosaic workers:</b>			
Furnace men -	5.0	—	—
Workmen -	2.25	—	—
Women and children.	1.25	—	—
<b>12. Tile makers:</b>			
Journeymen -	2.75	—	—
Day labourers -	1.87	—	—
<b>10. Brick and tile makers:</b>			
Brick makers -	6.50	—	—
Tile makers -	4.50	—	—
Clay diggers -	7.50	—	—
Carriers -	4.0	—	—
Kiln clearers -	7.50	—	—
Women -	1.25	—	—
Boys -	2.0	—	—
<b>14. Pottery makers:</b>			
Journeymen -	3.0	—	—
Day labourers -	2.0	—	—
<b>15. Bakers:</b>			
Men -	3.0	—	—
Apprentices -	1.0	—	—
<b>16. Chocolate makers -</b>	3.75	—	—
<b>17. Tailors:</b>			
Men -	4.33	2.0	—
Women -	2.25	—	—
<b>18. Milliners, women -</b>	1.75	—	—
<b>19. Shoemakers:</b>			
Men -	3.0	3.0	—
Women -	1.0	—	—
<b>20. Tanners:</b>			
Journeymen -	2.87	3.0	—
Day labourers -	2.0	—	—
Apprentices -	1.37	—	—
<b>21. Lace makers, women -</b>	1.25	—	—
<b>22. Cloth workers:</b>			
Men -	3.0	—	—
Women -	1.0	—	—
<b>23. Carriage drivers -</b>	3.25	—	—
<b>24. Match makers:</b>			
Women -	1.87	—	—
Children -	0.75	—	—
<b>25. Paper makers:</b>			
Machine workers -	3.12	—	2.25
Day labourers -	1.62	—	1.50
Women -	1.0	—	—
<b>26. Printers:</b>			
Compositors -	3.0	—	—
Pressmen -	3.75	—	—
Marcadores -	1.75	—	—
<b>27. Engravers -</b>	4.50	—	—

(1) French Report, 1890, pp. 18-20.

According to this table the wages paid in the capital appear on the whole to be higher than those in provincial towns, though the order is occasionally reversed, as in the case of the Sueca house painters and tanners. Where any mention is made of women's wages they are as a rule less than half those of men.<sup>(1)</sup>

(c.) Cost of living in Spain.

The fluctuation in wages in the different parts of Spain has its counterpart in the great variety which appears in the cost of living. In Andalusia, for instance, it is quite possible to live on a peseta a day and yet to secure a diet which is as varied and as substantial as the character of the climate demands. This peseta would probably be distributed in the following manner:—

Bread	-	1½ lb.	0.25 pesetas.
Potatoes	-	1 lb.	0.07 "
Beans, peas, and rice	-	½ lb.	0.04 "
Salt pork	-	½ lb.	
Fresh fish	-	1 lb.	0.25-0.80
Salt cod	-	½ lb.	
Eggs	-	2	0.15
Coffee	-	2 lb.	0.10
Fuel, olive oil, &c.	-	—	0.10

In the north, whether in Castilla, in the Basque provinces, or in Catalonia, the daily food would cost from 0.50 to 1.50 pesetas a day more, and house rent is proportionately higher than in the south. Sixty pesetas a year is an average rent in Cadiz, but in Madrid or Barcelona a workman would have to pay from 120 to 140 pesetas for a house in the city and from 70 to 80 pesetas at least for one in the suburbs. The clothes of a Spanish workman cost him from 150 to 160 pesetas a year; on the whole, an unmarried workman earning 3 pesetas a day, or 900 pesetas a year, might in Andalusia save 50 or 60 pesetas a year, provided he met with no accident, and was not at any time out of work. In the north it would be difficult to save out of anything less than 4 pesetas a day. Few married workmen can hope to save unless the family income is augmented by the labour of the wife. According to Señor Enrique Serrano Fatigati, the heavy protective duties are partly responsible for the high price and inferior quality of food in Madrid. In Valencia the Commission on Social Reform reports that 3 pesetas a day will support an average workman's family, provided that there is no enforced idleness except on the usual religious festivals. The passion for lotteries, however, absorbs a large share of the earnings of many families, and is responsible for a good deal of the poverty among the working classes. Two representative budgets are given for Valencia, one relating to the income and expenditure of a single workman, the other to that of a man with a wife and two children. In the first case the weekly expenditure on food amounted to 8.40 pesetas, rent and lighting were 1.31 pesetas, washing and personal expenses, 1.09 pesetas, contributions to societies, 0.35 pesetas, tobacco and recreation 1.17 pesetas. The annual expenditure on these objects was 630.64 pesetas, which, with 82 pesetas a year for clothing and 17 for shoes raised the total amount to 730.39 or 145.39 more than the annual earnings at the rate of 2.25 pesetas a day for 260 days. The annual expenditure for food and rent of the married workman was 949.52 pesetas, clothing cost 119.50 pesetas, and boots and shoes 36.50 pesetas. The total expenditure for the year amounted to 1,131.77 pesetas, and the husband's earnings to 585 pesetas as in the former case. For the deficit of 546.72 pesetas it was impossible to look to the exertions of the wife since upon her fell the care of two young children, as well as the work of making and washing the clothes of the family. From these facts the Commission infer that 3 pesetas is the minimum wage which will serve for the support of a family.<sup>(2)</sup>

(d.) Wages and cost of living in Portugal.

There are no statistics of wages for Portugal later than those collected during the Inquiry of 1881, when a commercial treaty with France was about to be concluded. According to these figures 3.60 francs would be an exceptional rate of payment a day for a man, and 1.66 francs for a woman, or 1.18 francs for a child would be equally exceptional. In the pottery works from which answers were sent to the Commission in 1892, boys were said to begin at 4d. a day, and by

the end of their second year to be in receipt of 1s. They afterwards rise to 1s. 3d., 1s. 4d., and 1s. 5d. Artisans can make from 3s. 6d. to 6s. a day, but this rate appears to be higher than is usual, and it is impossible to obtain any reliable average figures. The cost of living is high, owing to the protectionist policy of the Government, and the price of wheat bread, meat and coffee remove these articles into the category of luxuries. The diet of the working classes consists for the most part of fish, and bread made of maize (*brôa*). In Oporto from 0.75 to 1 franc a day is made to serve for four meals.<sup>(1)</sup>

## 2. Hours of Labour.

According to the tariff established for the cotton printing industry of Barcelona the average working day was fixed at 9 hours and 40 minutes, but the actual hours varied from 8½ to 10½ according to the time of year. The inquiry instituted by the Commission on Social Reform showed that the average of the usual working hours in 36 departments was 10½, though there was considerable local fluctuation. In Albacete and Teruel, 8 hours was the rule; in Cadiz, La Corona, Lerida, Orense, Palencia, and Biscaya, 11 hours; and in Pontevedra as many as 12 hours. The remaining 27 departments return 10 hours. The length of the working day in the different industries appears from the following table:—

(a.) Hours in Spain.

Miners (winter)	-	9½ hours.
" (summer)	-	11½ "
Metal workers	-	10½ "
Chemical workers (winter)	-	9 "
" (summer)	-	11 "
Ship-building	-	10½ "
Textile trades (in towns and suburbs)	-	10½ "
" (in the country)	-	11 "
Cotton printing (winter)	-	9 "
" (summer)	-	10 "
Flour mills	-	10-11 "
Gas works	-	10-11 "
Electric light works	-	8-9 "
Printers	-	10½ "

In Barcelona the hours of work in summer are 11½ for engineers, iron workers, and leather workers; 11 for textile workers, tailors, dyers, locksmiths, and joiners; 10½ for ironfounders; 10 for tinsmiths, cabinet makers, and stonemasons; 9 for coopers; and 8½ for tanners. Excluding agricultural labour, which was included in the Commission's estimate, it is probable that the average working day for Spanish industries may be reckoned at 10 hours. There is no law at present either in Spain or Portugal with regard to Sunday labour. After the deliberations of the International Labour Conference at Berlin, in March 1890, a report on the subject was drawn up by Señor Vicente Santamaria de Paredes acting for the Commission on Social Reform, and it was recommended that a Bill should be introduced prohibiting Sunday work for all young persons between 10 and 16, and limiting it for those under 18 to absolutely necessary work.<sup>(2)</sup>

According to a long established custom in Portugal the working day extends, as a rule, from sunrise to sunset with half-an-hour's interval at 8 a.m., two hours at mid-day, and half-an-hour again at 4 p.m. On Saturdays, in the north, work ceases at 3 p.m., and one hour only is allowed at mid-day. On Mondays work begins an hour later than usual, so as to allow the town workmen to spend Sunday with their families in the country. A good many factories work from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with no interval except the two hours at mid-day, which are practically universal. Sunday work is only carried on in a very few industries.<sup>(3)</sup>

(b.) Hours in Portugal.

The eight hours' agitation both in Spain and Portugal is almost entirely carried on by the Socialist party. The universal demonstration in favour of an eight hours' day, recommended by the Paris International Congress of 1889, was carried out in Spain under the influence of Socialist leaders, especially at Barcelona and Bilbao, where, as has been already mentioned, it resulted in strikes. Demonstrations took place at Lisbon and Oporto on May 1st 1890, but according to the French report, "the Portuguese workmen appeared to be obeying a foreign word of command rather than a national impulse springing from any

(c.) The eight hours' agitation.

(1) Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. III., pp. 92-101. Appendix 25.

(2) Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II. p. 69, Vol. III., pp. 96, 463-467. French Report, 1890, pp. 18, 19.

(1) French Report, 1890, pp. 50, 60.

(2) French Report, 1890, pp. 27-29. Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Limitación de las Horas de Trabajo, 1891, Democrao Domingo (Proposed law).

(3) French Report, 1890, p. 64.

"real want." The Spanish Commission on Social Reform reports that the demand for an eight hours' day does not appear outside the Socialist propaganda. That limit of hours only exists in non-industrial districts, and in other districts, where strikes have occurred in favour of a reduction of hours, the number eight has not been mentioned. The commission's inquiry, however, was completed before 1890, and does not therefore take into account the increased agitation which began in that year.<sup>(1)</sup>

### 8. Labour of Women and Children.

Spain is far behind the majority of European countries in the matter of legislation for the protection of labour, even the labour of women and children. Where any proposed legislation has become actual, which is of rare occurrence, it is seldom or never enforced, and no provision is made for any system of inspection into its working. In 1871 a parliamentary inquiry was instituted into the moral and material condition of the working classes. It resulted in a law passed on July 24th, 1873, to regulate the employment of children in manufactures and the health of the workpeople generally. According to the provisions of this law no child under 10 might be employed in a factory; boys under 13 and girls under 14 might not work more than five hours a day, whilst the hours for boys between 13 and 15, and for girls between 14 and 17 were restricted to eight. Employers were to maintain schools for the education of all children in their employment who could neither read nor write, and every factory was to be regularly visited by a doctor. This law remained a dead letter because no order was ever issued by the administration for the appointment of any staff of inspectors to see to its observance. In 1884 the Government, indeed, issued an order reminding employers of the existence of the Act, and a few prosecutions were undertaken for failure to observe it, but before long it was again allowed to sink into oblivion. It was no uncommon event to find children of eight or nine years of age at work in a factory, and boys of 13 or girls of 14 working the same hours as adults. A fair number of employers established schools. In 1889 a fresh Bill was introduced reducing the minimum age for employment in any factory, workshop, or mine to nine, and limiting the hours of those between nine and 13, irrespective of sex, to five, whilst those between 13 and 17 might not exceed eight hours in all or four hours consecutively. No such children or young persons might work underground or be employed in connexion with poisonous, inflammable, or unhealthy material. They might not be employed in cleaning machinery in motion, and no child under 13 might work at night or on Sundays and holidays. Young persons between 13 and 17 might work for a few hours in the mornings of festivals when the exigencies of business demanded it. In all other cases the special permission of the authorities was required. The same provision for education was made as in the earlier law, and inspectors were to be appointed to see that the law was enforced. This Bill, introduced by the Government, underwent considerable modification at the hands of the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies to which it was referred. They desired to see the minimum age raised to 10 for boys and 12 for girls, and the day's work for all under 14 limited to half the hours of an adult labourer. The Commission on Social Reform, in its most recent utterance on the subject (April 25th 1891), protests very strongly against the Government proposal to reduce the minimum age from 10 to nine. Finally, on May 25th, 1891, the Spanish Government laid before the Cortes a Bill fixing 10 as the minimum age, and restricting the hours of boys under 14 and girls under 16 to half time, or, at the most, six hours a day. No child under 14 was to be employed underground or in labour connected with machinery in motion or in dangerous and unhealthy industries, and no child under 16 might work at night. All children must have a medical certificate of vaccination, and if they have not already received primary instruction must attend school for three hours a day. This Bill has not, however, as yet become law, and the Act of 1873 is the only one in force.<sup>(2)</sup>

Up to 1890 there had not even been any proposal to restrict the employment of women in Spain, or to pass any laws for their protection. Spanish women are remarkably

industrious and are to be found engaged in all kinds of work, including the rough manual labour of navvies. As many as 2,500 are employed about mines, in some districts women are the only porters, and they are present in large numbers even in dynamite works and in the tanning and chemical industries. The State tobacco factories employ as many as 25,000, and a very large number are to be found in the textile trades, in cotton printing, paper-making, rag-sorting, book-folding and sewing, pottery making, pickle making, shoemaking, laundry work, dress-making, and the other departments of the clothing trades. Their hours are the same as those of men, and they are often kept at work far into the night. They are very frequently engaged in agriculture, and often work all day at employments beyond their strength. Home industries, such as weaving and lace-making, are very prevalent in certain districts. Round Almagro in La Mancha there are something like 6,000 lace-makers, and throughout Leon, Asturias, and Galicia a large number of women are employed in weaving. As a rule married women work at home, but where they do go into the factories and workshops their conduct is as a rule satisfactory, even in the provinces from which there is a large percentage of temporary emigration amongst the men. The condition of the unmarried factory workers is said to be less satisfactory. In March 1891 various proposals were made by the Commission on Social Reform prohibiting night work for women under 21, and restricting their hours to 10, with at least one-and-a-half hours rest. They were also to be excluded from occupations prejudicial to their health, and, according to Señor Vicente Santamaria de Paredes, married women were not to be allowed to return to work until four weeks after their confinement. No women were to be employed underground, and where employers built lodgings for their employes, proper provision was to be made for the separation of the sexes. One member of the commission objected to any special law dealing with women's labour, and proposed instead that some clause dealing with their health and their employment in dangerous industries should be inserted in a general law regulating the labour of children and young persons, and that this clause should be first freely discussed by workpeople of both sexes. Señor Muret also opposed the views of the majority of the commission with regard to the limitation of the hours of women and their exclusion from unhealthy and dangerous industries, on the ground that 80 per cent. of the women who worked in factories were obliged to do so, and that the proposed legislation would both damage their chance of obtaining work and form a precedent for undue interference with private and family life, since questions of health were matters for individual decision. However, on May 25th, 1891, the Government introduced a Bill prohibiting night work for girls between 16 and 18, and restricting the hours of women between 18 and 23 to 10 a day, with one and a-half hours rest. Women were not allowed to work "in the days immediately following childbirth." No women of any age might work underground, and the sexes were to be separated in factories unless members of the same family. This Bill, like that regulating child labour, has not as yet become law.<sup>(3)</sup>

Until recently there were no laws regulating the labour of women and children in Portugal, but in February, 1890, the Government declared its intention of dealing with the subject. Before this, boys under 13 and girls under 15 were not admitted into certain industries such as cigar making, but this prohibition was due to the action of the administrative authorities and not to legislation. In April, 1891, however, a Royal decree was issued prohibiting the employment of children under 12, and limiting the working hours of boys under 16 and girls under 21 to eight with one or two intervals for rest. Girls under 21 might not be employed at night. They are also excluded from all underground work, and the same prohibition is extended to boys under 14. Girls under 21 and boys under 16 may not be employed in unhealthy or dangerous industries or in industries making too severe demands upon their physical strength. As in the Spanish Bill, vaccination is made obligatory. Employers who have more than 50 women in their employment are obliged to provide a crèche at a distance not greater than a quarter of a mile from their place of business. Children, subject by law to

(c.) Labour of women and children in Portugal.

a.) Labour of women in Spain.

(1) French Report, 1890, pp. 29, 64.

(2) French Report, 1891, pp. 6-10. Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Trabajo de los Niños. (Report, proposed Bills) Vol. II., pp. 173-189. Correspondence concerning Berlin Labour Conference, 1891, p. 38. Escartin, "El Estado y la Reforma Social," 1893, pp. 170-81.

(3) French Report, 1890, pp. 24-26. Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Trabajo de las Mujeres (Reports of proposed Bills), Vol. II., pp. 147-172. Escartin, "El Estado y la Reforma Social," 1893, pp. 151, 179-181.

compulsory education, must attend school for two hours daily, but these two hours are not to be taken from the time set apart for work or rest. All minors (i.e., boys under 16 or girls under 21) must be furnished with books "stating their names, domiciles, and places of birth." They cannot be admitted into an establishment without such books, and the date of admission or of discharge must always be entered in the book by the employer, together with a certificate as to the work in which the holder of the book was employed. No minor may work on Sunday except in special cases, and even here there must be a long interval of rest of not less than six consecutive hours. A system of supervision and inspection of industrial establishments is to be organised in connection with the decree<sup>(1)</sup>

#### 4. State Employment of Labour.

(a.) Tobacco factories, and other industries.

A large amount of labour, and to a great extent women's labour, is employed by the Spanish Government in the tobacco industry. There are Government factories in Madrid, Seville, Alicante, Valencia, Coranna, Gijon, Santander, Cadiz, Bilbao, and San Sebastian, employing in all 26,000 workpeople, of whom the immense majority are women. The conditions of their labour appear to compare favourably with those of women in private employment. The average wage is 1½ pesetas a day, whereas in a large number of industries women only earn 1 peseta. In Valencia, however, the average wages in the State factories are as low as 13 pesetas a fortnight. Skilled hands, working by the piece, can sometimes earn as much as 5 pesetas a day, but this implies exceptional ability. Between March and October the factories open at six in the morning, and from November to February at half-past. The workers may come in at any time up to two hours later, or may leave work as soon as it becomes dark, provided that they have completed 10 hours' work. During these 10 hours they must not leave the factory except for good reasons; they have a kitchen in the factory, where they can heat the food which they bring with them for the midday meal. In Valencia the hours in winter are nine and a half. Fifty per cent. of the women employed are single, and 10 per cent. are widows. The moral level of the women is said to be high, but they suffer physically in many of the factories from the effects of the tobacco in ill-ventilated rooms. Efforts are being made to improve the sanitation and ventilation of the buildings; in Cadiz a new factory has been recently constructed, and it has been proposed to build another at Malaga. In Pamplona there are municipal bakeries, and, prior to 1868, there were slaughter-houses supported by the municipality. By means of the municipal bakeries the price of bread was maintained at a level, which made it accessible to all, even during the civil wars. In Guipuzcoa municipal slaughter-houses have been established, and private owners have been obliged to reduce their prices.<sup>(2)</sup>

(b.) Public works.

Workmen employed on public works in Valencia are said to receive better wages than those in private employment of a similar kind. During a period of depression in 1892-3 a sum of 360,000 pesetas was expended in Madrid upon relief works, including work on the highways or forestry. The greater number of the men employed in the latter branch were ultimately set to construct a new park, but no details are available as to the expense of this undertaking. The employment of men on the highways for 47 weeks cost in all 151,625.40 pesetas, or about half the sum voted. The total number employed in each week, and the sums expended appear from the following table:—

Weeks.	Foremen.	Day labourers.	Sum expended.
			Pesetas.
1	40	359	1415.00
2	10	14	610.25
3	7	10	502.00
4	39	41	1481.25
5	53	47	1815.13
6	55	44	1886.25

<sup>(1)</sup> French Report, 1890, p. 63. Correspondence concerning the Berlin Labour Conference, 1891, pp. 28-38.

<sup>(2)</sup> Comisión de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., pp. 33-38, Vol. III., pp. 153-155. Escartin, "El Estado y la Reforma Social," 1893, pp. 108-110. The tobacco industry is only indirectly worked by the Government through the medium of a company.

Weeks.	Foremen.	Day Labourers.	Sum expended.
			Pesetas.
7	58	49	1966.88
8	59	46	1893.75
9	61	48	2002.50
10	61	104	2478.50
11	67	108	2476.75
12	68	152	3050.50
13	81	158	1976.75
14	84	127	1768.00
15	84	228	2486.25
16	84	230	2958.50
17	82	272	2722.50
18	89	305	2977.50
19	89	250	2291.88
20	81	360	3421.50
21	15	420	4306.50
22	12	400	3420.62
23	18	759	6827.75
24	23	795	5906.50
25	25	833	7664.25
26	25	210	1255.50
26	82	1,468	12,306.00
27	38	517	4698.00
28	28	1,054	7257.00
34	15	278	2841.88
35	18	307	2223.00
36	21	398	3659.25
37	13	438	3888.50
38	21	519	4686.88
39	22	487	2487.50
40	23	434	1937.75
41	21	432	3838.12
42	18	403	3714.88
43	18	297	2871.75
44	15	845	5266.88
45	21	913	6735.00
46	24	822	6190.50
47	28	796	5550.75
Total	-	-	151,625.40

The total estimate for permanent and casual labour and the sums actually expended during 1892-93 appear from the following table:—

Permanent and Casual Labour.	Pesetas.
<b>Men employed on Pathways.</b>	
10 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	12,775
20 stonemasons at 3.50 pesetas a day	25,550
60 stonemasons' labourers at 3.00 pesetas a day.	63,700
40 day labourers at 2.00 pesetas a day	29,300
10 apprentices at 1.50 pesetas a day	5,475
Total	138,700
Sum expended	123,788.50
<b>Men employed on Pavements.</b>	
10 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	12,775
100 paviers at 2.50 pesetas a day	91,250
75 paviers at 2.00 pesetas a day	54,750
For apprentices	24,937.50
2 workmen for laying down wood at 3.50 pesetas a day.	2,555
2 assistants for laying down wood at 2.75 pesetas a day.	2,007.50
2 manual labourers for laying down wood at 2.00 pesetas a day.	1,460
3 caretakers at 2.50 pesetas a day	2,737.50
Total	192,472.50
Sum expended	175,603.28
<b>Men employed on Highways.</b>	
1 chief engineer at 10 pesetas a day	8,650
3 engineers at 5 pesetas a day	5,475
3 furnacemen at 2.50 pesetas a day	2,737.50
20 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	25,550
200 roadmen at 2.00 pesetas a day	146,000
For locksmiths' and carpenters' workshops	21,200
Total	204,612.50
Sum expended	187,861.50

Permanent and Casual Labour.	Pesetas.
Casual Labour.	
20 foremen for 313 days at 2.25 pesetas	- 14,085
200 labourers for 313 days at 1.75 pesetas	- 109,550
Total	- 123,635
Sum expended	- 96,778.18

The estimate made for 1893-94 is given below:—

Permanent and Casual Labour.	Pesetas.
Men employed on Pathways.	
5 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	- 6,387.50
13 stonemasons at 3.50 pesetas a day.	19,162.50
55 stonemasons's labourers at 3.00 pesetas a day.	60,225
85 day labourers at 2.00 pesetas a day.	25,550
10 apprentices at 1.50 pesetas a day	5,475
	116,800
Men employed on Pavements.	
5 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	- 6,387.50
90 paviors at 2.50 pesetas a day	- 82,125
75 paviors at 2.00 pesetas a day	- 54,750
For apprentices	- 23,525
2 workmen for laying down wood at 3.50 pesetas a day.	2,007.50
2 assistants for laying down wood at 2.75 pesetas a day.	2,555
2 manual labourers for laying down wood at 2.00 pesetas a day.	1,460
3 caretakers at 2.00 pesetas a day	2,190
	175,000
Men employed on Highways.	
1 chief engineer at 8 pesetas a day	- 2,920
3 engineers at 5 pesetas a day	- 5,475
3 furnacemen at 2.50 pesetas a day	- 2,737.50
10 foremen at 3.50 pesetas a day	- 12,775
200 roadmen at 2.00 pesetas a day	- 148,000
	169,907.50
Casual Labour.	
7 foremen for 313 days at 2.25 pesetas.	4,929.75
140 labourers for 313 days at 1.75 pesetas.	76,685
To meet the industrial crisis	- 100,000
	181,614.75
Total	- 643,322.25(1)

5. Accidents and Employers' Liability.

There is no special law with regard to employers' liability either in Spain or in Portugal, nor with regard to the adoption of measures for the prevention of accidents. In Spain a civil action for damages may be brought against an employer, and municipal authorities may issue byelaws for the regulation of dangerous and unhealthy industries. As a rule, however, these byelaws confine themselves to prohibiting the erection of dynamite or gunpowder mills in the immediate vicinity of inhabited houses. A Bill on the subject of employers' liability was drawn up in 1888, but it did not even come up for discussion, and the opinion seems widely prevalent that Spanish industry is in too depressed a condition to admit of imposing any further burdens on employers. Another Bill was drafted in 1891 which distinguishes between accidents resulting from the nature of the industry and accidents due to chance or circumstances impossible to control. The Bill provides compensation for accidents of the last two classes only and graduates it according to the degree of disablement. It has not yet become law. According to the proposed law with regard to child labour employers of children are responsible for any accidents which may arise through non-observance of

the previous provisions of the law (see p. 57), and a Bill with regard to dangerous and unhealthy industries has been drafted by Señor Joaquim Maria Sanroma and published by the Commission on Social Reform. This measure would provide for the classification of all such industries according to degree of risk or unhealthiness and would require corresponding precautions, to be defined in general sanitary legislation, in municipal byelaws and in factory rules drawn up with the workmen's aid. The workmen would express their opinion either by joint committees, or committees composed of delegates elected by the workmen's associations. The law would also provide for the drawing up of a list of precautions to be observed, and would make their observance compulsory. The Commission also consider that the employer should be made responsible for accidents resulting from neglect of these precautions. In Portugal the common law, according to Article 2,398 and the following Articles of the Civil Code, makes employers, whether agricultural or industrial, railway companies, and others, liable to pay damages for accidents to any persons resulting from their fault or that of their agents, whether it be actual fault or negligence. On the other hand, fault or negligence on the part of the person injured modifies the amount of compensation to a corresponding degree, or may remove the employer's liability altogether. From the workman's point of view the benefits of these provisions are entirely illusory, as he will hardly venture to enter upon a costly method of procedure without any certainty of compensation. By a decree of Oct. 13th, 1863, unhealthy and dangerous industries are arranged in three classes and are for the most part subject to regulation by the civil government assisted by experts, and to inspection once a year. In June 1884 some further regulations were issued with reference to steam boilers and hydraulic machinery, and on Feb. 10th, 1889, the Government announced its intention of regulating the conditions of factories generally in the interest of the health and safety of the workpeople. In August 1889 employers on public works were ordered to provide shelters for quarrymen or cement makers and to furnish medical attendance.(1)

III. ORGANISATIONS.

1. Different kinds of Organisations.

With the exception of the old guilds (*Gremios*) the movement towards organisation in Spain, as well as in Portugal, has been almost entirely confined to the ranks of the employed. The guilds or "unions of merchants, artisans, or labourers of the same profession or trade" before this century exercised considerable influence over the affairs of the trade, and could even prevent non-members from practising it. Since the law of June 1813, and the Royal decree of June 1815, which secured freedom of trade, the guilds have really lost the reason for their existence, and would probably have fallen entirely into abeyance, but for the fact that the tax known as the "industrial contribution" must by the decree of 1847 be assessed by the trade guild. According to this decree, therefore, "All persons practising the same industry or profession, handicraft, or trade in any locality must form a guild (*gremio*) for the payment of the said contribution." The guilds consequently continue to exist, and in some cases have led to the formation of benefit and co-operative societies amongst the workmen, though it has not as yet proved possible to convince any great number of Spanish workmen of the advantages of these institutions.(2)

The attempt to form co-operative and mutual benefit societies appears to have come from economists and from persons interested in the welfare of the working classes, rather than from the working classes themselves. Indeed, Señor Iglesias, the leader of the Socialist party, speaks slightly of the co-operative movement, and declared in his evidence before the Commission on Social Reform that a co-operative society must "either exploit its workmen or not exploit them; if it does not exploit them, it cannot live, or resist the competition of the other manufacturers who do exploit them; if it does exploit them it fails

(a.) Guilds.

(b.) Co-operative and mutual benefit societies.

(1) French Report, 1890, pp. 36, 62, 65. Escartin. "El Estado y la Reforma Social," 1888, p. 198. "La Cuestion Economica," 1890, pp. 163-4. Comision de las Reformas Sociales-Industrias Peligrosas e Insalubres (Bill and Report). Report on Insurance against accidents, French Chamber of Deputies, 1892. Correspondence with regard to Berlin International Conference, 1891, p. 40.

(2) French Report, 1890, pp. 40, 41. Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. II., pp. 47-51. Vol. III., pp. 21-31. Escartin "La Cuestion Economica," 1890, pp. 131-7.

(1) Comision de las Reformas Sociales, Vol. III., pp. 186-7. Information furnished by Señor Ascarate, Oct. 27th, 1893.

"of its end." Employers have in some cases encouraged the formation of provident funds which pay sick benefits, and sometimes a definite sum on the death of a member. A large number of societies also exist unregulated by any law and independent of employers, but except in Biscaya and Catalonia the workmen's savings are too small to afford much support either to provident funds or savings banks. In 1883 there were only 35 savings banks in all Spain, and about 100,000 depositors. Co-operative societies in Spain are regulated by the law of Oct. 19th, 1869, which authorises their formation and imposes no check upon them, but the duty of publishing their accounts. A Government Order of June 26th, 1870, declares that co-operative societies are "entitled to the utmost solicitude on the part of the Government," and bestows upon them the privilege of having the accounts which they are obliged to publish inserted in the Madrid Gazette free of cost. The Civil Code merely applies to these societies in so far as they undertake

business which does not come under the head of "mutual action," i.e. in so far as they are not co-operative. Advocates of co-operation desire to see a reform in the law in the direction of exempting the property of co-operative societies from taxation. The absence of such legislation has, in their opinion, combined with the apathetic character of the Spanish workman to obstruct the progress of the movement, especially with regard to co-operative agriculture, which might be undertaken with great advantage in a country where land is sub-divided to such an immense extent as in Spain. According to the French Report of 1890 there is not a productive co-operative society of any importance in Spain, and distributive societies have had little success except in Bilbao, where they have been established by the workmen, who administer them themselves. Señor Hurtado in his book on the co-operative movement, published in 1890, gives details with regard to the chief co-operative societies, which are tabulated as follows:—

Name of Society.	Locality.	Nature of Society.	Year of Foundation.	Number of Members.	Capital. Pesetas.
La Obrera Mataronense	San Vicente de Alcantara (Badajoz).	Productive	—	—	—
La Constructora Mataronense	—	Productive (builders)	1877	—	—
Coopers	Villanueva y Geltrú	Productive	—	—	—
El Banco Agrícola	Talavera la Real (Badajoz)	Credit	—	—	—
Caja de Ahorros y Prestamos del Cuerpo de Telegrafos.	Talavera el Real	"	—	—	—
La Proteccion Mutual	Madrid	"	—	—	68,075 (Reserve 8,394).
Maestros Zapateros	Barcelona	Wholesale distributive	1886	—	—
" Encuadernadores	Madrid	"	1886	62	8,271
Union Obrera de Sans	Sans	Retail distributive	1878	1,200	20,000 (or more).
Porvenir de Cornella	Cornella	" "	1871	213	112,565
La Bienhechora	Badalona	" "	1878	670	90,070
La Co-operacion de Tejedores à la Mano de la Villa de Gracia.	Gracia	" "	1876	286	10,048
La Villanovesa	Villanueva y Geltru	" "	1871	350	14,648
La de Albuñol	Granada	" "	1881	81	4,272
La Co-operacion de Consumo	Gijon	" "	1881	320	12,000
La Zamorana	Zamora	" "	1881	—	—
El 15 de Agosto de 1889	Barcelona	" "	1889	—	—
La Fraternidad	"	" "	—	—	—
La Sociedad Co-operativa del Ejercito y Armada en San Fernando.	San Fernando	" "	1882	466	98,239

A small table of the co-operative societies in the province of Valencia is appended to the Report of the Commission on Social Reform, and is here reproduced:—

#### DISTRIBUTIVE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

Locality.	Name of Society.	Year of Foundation.	Contribution. Pesetas.	Number of Members.
Valencia, Ruzafa	La Favorecedora de la Agricultura	1881	0.50 a month	50
" "	La Previsora	"	1.00 a week	150
" "	Amparo de la Agricultura	"	0.25 "	248
" "	La Protectora	1882	1.00 a month	82
" Cullera	La Agrícola	"	0.25 "	150
" "	Sociedad de Socorros	"	1.00 "	100
" "	La Industrial	"	0.25 "	198
Tabernes de Valldigna	La Protectora	1877	0.50 a week	375
Jativa	Círculo de Obreros	"	0.25 "	600
Albcraya	Co-operativa de Consumos	1886	—	—

PRODUCTIVE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

Locality.	Name and Industry.	Year of Foundation.	Number of Members.	Nature of Contributions.	Capital. Pesetas.
Valencia	La Proletaria (Silk)	1866	10	None paid now	—
"	Escardino y Compañia (Painters)	1870	12	"	—
"	La Artesana (Silk)	1876	10	Once a week	—
"	Rosella y Compañia (Silk)	1878	8	Voluntary	5,000
"	Obreros Carpenteros (Carpenters)	1880	6	"	7,360
"	Leallad (Silk)	1881	13	Once a week	—
"	Horneros (Bakers)	1881	450	"	—
"	Leallad, Garcia y Compañia (Silk)	1882	18	Voluntary	9,000
"	Carpinteros con taller (Builders)	1882	50	Once a week, minimum	52,500
"	Industrial Obrera (Builders)	1882	25	Once a week	7,500
"	Sederia Valenciana (Silk)	1883	13	"	—
"	Carboneros (Coal dealers)	1883	95	"	—
"	Obrera Valenciana (Silk)	1884	82	Voluntary	—
"	El Porvenir (Cabinet-makers)	1884	—	"	—
"	Carriage Builders	1885	—	"	—
Grao	Coopers	1885	19	None paid	—
Pueblo Nuevo del Mar	"	1885	15	"	—
Aldaya	Fan-makers	1882	13	Once a week	—

In Portugal co-operative societies are regulated by the law of July 2nd, 1867, and may be organised on the principle of limited or unlimited liability. They must publish their accounts and submit their rules to Government inspection. Most of them are situated

in Lisbon or Oporto, but in the north there are a number of co-operative weavers' associations, as well as associations of fishermen which date back to the 16th century. The most important societies may be tabulated as follows:—

Locality.	Name of Society.	Year of Foundation.	Capital in Francos.	Number of Members.	Remarks.
—	Fraternal Association of Weavers	1848	55,000	137	Pays 5 to 7 per cent. to members.
Lisbon	Industrial and Social Co-operative Society.	1872	44,000	—	Pays an average wage of 4.45 a day.
Oporto	Co-operative Weavers' Society - Southern and South - Eastern Railway Provident Fund.	—	—	—	—
Oporto	Co-operative Society of Domestic Economy.	1875	—	—	Pays dividends to purchasers at stores, and benefits to sick and injured.
Lisbon	Economic Workmen's Society	1876	50,000	810	50 per cent. forms reserve fund, the rest goes to pay off the sums deposited by share holders.
Lisbon	Society for building Workmen's Dwellings.	1890	—	—	Has reserve fund of 6,000 pesetas.

There exist also a large number of provident societies connected with religious foundations, though gradually forsaking their original character. Like the co-operative societies, they possess the right of legal personality, and must submit their rules to Government inspection. The Government does not, however, go beyond the examination of accounts, and there is a strong feeling that the financial basis of many of these societies is in need of reform. In 1890 a Commission was appointed to look into the matter and to draft a law for the proper regulation of the funds.<sup>(1)</sup>

than an actual provision. Trade unions are in process of formation, but the movement has not as yet proceeded very far.<sup>(1)</sup>

2. Conciliation, Arbitration, and Mediation.

Some account has already been given (*see* p. 55) of the Joint Committee in the Barcelona cotton printing industry which drew up a tariff of wages and thus averted wage disputes in the industry for a period of five years. Mention is also made in the account of the Valencia industries, drawn up by the Commission on Social Reform, of other joint committees in a few industries, more especially that of the carpenters, where such an institution is said to have worked satisfactorily from 1873 to 1879. At Alcoy, in Alicante, various short-lived institutions of the kind have existed from time to time, and one is mentioned at Cadiz in 1873. Legislation on the subject has been proposed both in Spain and in Portugal, and in the latter country a law authorising the establishment of courts of arbitration and conciliation was passed by the Cortes in August 1889. These courts are also to collect information on industrial questions and to give their advice to the Government. The carrying out of laws regulating the conditions of labour will also be entrusted to them.<sup>(2)</sup>

(a.) Joint committees.

(1) Trade unions and strike funds.

Associations of workmen answering more nearly to the English trade unions are as yet rare in Spain, but they are in process of formation and already exist to a considerable extent in Catalonia, especially in the neighbourhood of Barcelona. The Spanish Government has granted the most complete freedom of association, and it frequently happens that societies which are avowedly only co-operative or provident societies, are in reality used for political propaganda. The result is a general distrust on the part of employers of all associations, which might perhaps be removed by some system of legal recognition. The strongest workmen's association in Catalonia is the "Federation of the three kinds of steam power," with 12,000 members. It concerns itself with the conditions of labour both for its members and for others, and issues a paper known as the "Workman" (*el Obrero*). In Valencia several of the workmen's associations possess strike funds (*Cajas de resistencia*). The first was formed in the silk industry and was shortly copied by the house-painters, the printers, and lithographers.

In Portugal the right of association is rather an inference from the silence of the law on the subject

On the whole the most usual method of settling trade disputes in Spain appears to be by the intervention of the civil authorities. The Governors of the provinces frequently interfere, and in one instance, the mining strike at Bilbao in 1890, the general in command of the forces sent to restore order, put an end to the dispute.<sup>(3)</sup>

(b.) Intervention of the civil authorities.

(1) French Report, 1890, pp. 30-44, 71-78. *Comision de las Reformas Sociales*, Vol. I., p. 211; Vol. III., pp. 46-53; Appendices 16 and 17. Hurtado "El Movimiento Co-operativo," 1890, pp. 108-100, 233-259. "Socialismo y Anarquismo," Padre Antonio Vicent, 1893, pp. 251 *et seq.*

(2) French Report, 1890, pp. 18, 10, 35, 60. *Comision de las Reformas Sociales*, Vol. III., pp. 38, 39.  
(3) *Comision de las Reformas Sociales*, Vol. II., pp. 52-62; Vol. III., pp. 35, 41-45. *Los Jurados Mixtos* (Report and Draft Bill). French Report, 1890, pp. 22, 23, 24, 35, 53.  
(4) French Report, 1890, pp. 34, 35.



## APPENDIX A.

## LIST OF BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS CONSULTED IN THE PREPARATION OF THE REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

I. *Publications of the Commission on Social Reform.*

1. Comision de Reformas Sociales. (Commission on Social Reform). Vol. I., Informacion Oral. (Oral Evidence) Madrid. Vol. II., Informacion Escrita. (Written Evidence.) Vol. III., Informacion Escrita y Oral. (Written and Oral Evidence.) Valencia.
2. Contestaciones al interrogatorio formulado por la Comision de Reformas Sociales sobre la limitacion de las Horas de Trabajo. (Answers to the Schedule of Questions drawn up by the Commission on Social Reform on the limitation of the Hours of Labour.) 1891.
3. Bases para un Proyecto de Ley estableciendo los Jurados Mixtos en España. (Materials for a Bill to establish Joint Committees in Spain.)
4. Trabajo de los Niños. Resumen de la informacion llevada a cabo el Año, 1884. (Child Labour. Summary of the Evidence taken in 1884.)
5. Trabajo de las Mujeres. Resumen de la informacion llevada a cabo el Año, 1884. (Women's Labour. Summary of the Evidence taken in 1884.)
6. Proyecto de ley sobre el Trabajo de la Mujer. (Draft Bill on Women's Labour.)
7. Dictamen preparando un Proyecto de Ley sobre el Descanso en Domingo. (Report embodying a Draft Bill on Sunday rest.)
8. Bases para un Proyecto de Ley sobre Industrias Peligrosas e Insalubres. (Materials for a Draft Bill on Dangerous and Unhealthy Industries.)
8. Alegre. Casas para Obreros. (Workmen's Dwellings.) 1890.
9. Castelar. Cuestiones Politicas y Sociales. (Political and Social Questions.) (3 vols.) 1870.
10. De Toca. La Crisis Agraria Europea y sus Remedios en España. (The Agrarian Crisis in Europe and its remedies in Spain.) 1887.
11. Hurtado. El Movimiento Co-operativo. (The Co-operative Movement.) 1890.
12. De Azcarate. Discursos leidos en el Ateneo Cientifico y Literario de Madrid. (Addresses delivered before the Madrid Scientific and Literary Academy.) 1891, 1892, 1893.
13. De Azcarate. Estudios Economicos y Sociales. (Social and Economic Studies.) 1876.
14. De Azcarate. El Regimen Parlamentario en la Practica. (The Working of Parliamentary Government.) 1885.
15. De Azcarate. Resumen de un Debate sobre el Problema Social. (Summary of a Debate on the Social Problem.) 1881.
16. Navarro. La Casa de Mil Pesetas. (A House for a thousand Pesetas.) 1891.
17. Padre Antonio Vicent. Socialismo y Anarquismo. (Socialism and Anarchism.) 1893.
18. Pedregal y Canedo. Sociedades Cooperativas. (Cooperative Societies.) 1886.

II. *General Spanish Literature.*

1. Escartin. La Cuestion Economica. (The Economic Question.) 1890.
2. Escartin. El Estado y la Reforma Social. (The State and Social Reform.) 1893.
3. Rios. El Credito Agricola. (Agricultural Credit.) 1887.
4. Santamaría de Paredes. El Movimiento Obrero Contemporaneo. (The Labour Movement of To-day.) 1893.
5. De Rabago. El Destajo. (Piece-work.) 1891.
6. De Rabago. El Credito Agricola. (Agricultural Credit.) 1883.
7. Moret y Prendergast. Las Habitaciones para Obreros. (Workmen's Dwellings.) 1891.

III. *English, French, and German Literature.*

1. Les Conditions du Travail en Espagne et en Portugal. (The Conditions of Labour in Spain and Portugal. Report of the French Representative.) 1890.
2. Die Neue Zeit. (The New Era.) Vol. I., Nos. 12, 13, 20. 1889-90.
3. Torres Campos. Das Staatsrecht des Königreichs Spanien. (The Law of the Kingdom of Spain.)
4. Tavares de Medeiros. Das Staatsrecht des Königreichs Portugal. (The Law of the Kingdom of Portugal.)
5. Chambre des Députés, Paris. Rapport sur l'Assurance Obligatoire. (Report on Compulsory Insurance.) 1892.
6. Crawford. Round the Calendar in Portugal. 1890.
7. Correspondence relating to the Berlin Labour Conference of 1890.

## APPENDIX B.

## STATISTICAL INFORMATION SUPPLIED BY SEÑOR DON GUMERSINDO DE AZCARATE, MARCH 10TH, 1894.

1. *Classification of the Population by Occupations.*

Occupations.	Absolute Number.	Percentage of Total.
1. Agriculture, stock-breeding, and kindred industries: landed proprietors.	4,854,742	27.55
2. Manufacturing and mining industries.	243,867	1.38
3. Commerce - - -	194,755	1.11
4. Transport industries - -	115,763	0.66
5. Liberal professions - -	370,551	2.41
6. Trades and handicrafts -	823,810	4.67
7. Engaged in studies - -	1,719,995	9.76
8. Inmates of institutions and paupers.	91,926	0.11
9. Different occupations - -	423,999	2.41
10. Unclassified and without occupation (including children and a large proportion of the female population).	8,728,519	49.58

2. *Average Wages in certain Industries.*

Industries.	Daily Wages.
1. Mining:	
Labourers above-ground - -	Pesetas. 1.75- 2.25
" employed in washing - -	2.50- 3.00
Boy - - - - -	0.85- 1.25
Women - - - - -	1.00- 1.25
Composteros - - - - -	2.50- 2.75
Mule drivers - - - - -	2.25- 2.50
Stable men - - - - -	2.00- 2.25
Guards - - - - -	2.00- 2.25
Blacksmiths - - - - -	3.00- 3.25
Engineer - - - - -	3.00- 3.25
Miner - - - - -	2.75
Miner on contract system - -	3.00
Workers in gangs - - - - -	3.00- 3.75
Foreman - - - - -	4.00
Timbermen - - - - -	3.00
Builders - - - - -	3.50- 4.00
Boy porters employed underground	1.25- 1.50
Well diggers - - - - -	4.00- 6.00
Caretakers of houses - - -	2.00- 2.75
Parveyors of provisions - -	2.50- 3.00

Industries.	Daily Wages.	Industries.	Daily Wages.
	Pesetas.		Pesetas.
1.—Mining—continued.		18. Making of wax tapers :	
Watchmen - - - - -	3.00- 4.00	Men - - - - -	1.75- 3.50
Surveyors - - - - -	4.50- 6.00	Women - - - - -	0.50- 1.25
Keeper of stores - - - - -	4.00- 7.00	Children - - - - -	0.25- 1.25
Mining officials - - - - -	6.00-10.00	14. Leather manufacture :	
Clerk - - - - -	2.00- 3.00	Workmen, 1st class - - - - -	3.25
Master smelter - - - - -	4.00- 6.00	" 2nd class - - - - -	2.50
Strikers employed at the forges - - - - -	2.50- 3.50	Labourers - - - - -	2.25
2. Arsenals and dockyards :		Apprentices - - - - -	1.25- 2.00
Ships' carpenters - - - - -	0.60- 3.20	15. Paper making :	
Caulkers - - - - -	0.60- 3.20	Rag pickers - - - - -	2.00
Sawyers - - - - -	0.60- 3.20	Fullers - - - - -	1.60
Masons - - - - -	0.60- 3.00	Cylinder makers - - - - -	1.60
Painters - - - - -	0.60- 3.00	Extractors - - - - -	3.25
Engineers - - - - -	0.60- 4.60	Handers of sheets - - - - -	3.25
Smiths - - - - -	0.60- 4.60	Couchers - - - - -	2.00- 3.00
Smelters - - - - -	0.60- 4.60	Placing and removing the paper - - - - -	0.15- 0.50
Coppersmiths - - - - -	0.60- 4.60	Apprentices - - - - -	0.50- 1.75
Moulders - - - - -	0.60- 4.60	Boys and girls between 9 and 10 - - - - -	0.50
Makers of bombs - - - - -	0.60- 4.20	16. Locksmiths :	
Smiths engaged on riverside work - - - - -	0.60- 4.20	Foreman - - - - -	5.00
Iron workers - - - - -	0.60- 4.20	Workmen, 1st class - - - - -	4.00
Copper workers - - - - -	0.60- 4.20	" 2nd class - - - - -	3.50
Labourers - - - - -	0.50- 1.75	" 3rd class - - - - -	3.00
3. Iron smelting :		17. Tobacco workers :	
Regulators - - - - -	1.75- 5.00	Women employed in cigar making - - - - -	0.50- 1.75
Men engaged at ovens - - - - -	2.00- 4.50	" stripping - - - - -	0.50- 1.00
Workers at machines - - - - -	2.00- 4.50	" cigarette making. - - - - -	0.75- 1.75
Beaters - - - - -	2.00- 5.00	" rounding ends - - - - -	0.30- 1.25
Labourers of all classes - - - - -	1.75	" mould making - - - - -	0.80- 1.25
4. Glass making :		Packers - - - - -	0.50- 1.75
Melters - - - - -	2.00- 3.50	18. Artisans :	
Ovenmen - - - - -	2.00- 3.50	(i.) Printers :	
Blowers - - - - -	3.00- 5.50	Pressmen - - - - -	4.00- 5.50
Flatteners - - - - -	1.75- 2.00	Compositors - - - - -	1.00- 3.50
Moulders - - - - -	2.00- 5.00	Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.75
Labourers - - - - -	0.75- 1.75	(ii.) Carpenters :	
5. Pottery :		Foremen - - - - -	2.25- 4.00
Skilled workmen, 1st class - - - - -	3.25	Workmen - - - - -	1.50- 3.00
" 2nd class - - - - -	2.75	Cabinet-makers - - - - -	2.50- 3.75
Labourers - - - - -	2.00	Carvers - - - - -	2.50- 5.00
Women - - - - -	1.00- 2.00	(iii.) Iron workers :	
Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.50	Blacksmiths - - - - -	3.25- 3.50
6. Mosaic work :		Locksmiths - - - - -	2.75
Ovenmen, 1st class - - - - -	6.00	Repoussé work - - - - -	3.00- 5.00
" 2nd class - - - - -	4.00	(iv.) Shoemakers :	
Workmen, 1st class - - - - -	2.75	Foremen - - - - -	2.00- 3.50
" 2nd class - - - - -	2.50	Workmen - - - - -	1.50- 2.50
Women - - - - -	1.50	(v.) Stone cutters :	
Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.50	Mason ( <i>cantero</i> ) - - - - -	3.50- 4.00
7. Tile making :		Stone-cutters ( <i>picapedrero</i> ) - - - - -	2.25- 3.00
Workmen, 1st class - - - - -	3.00	(vi.) Painters :	
" 2nd class - - - - -	2.50	Foremen - - - - -	2.50- 5.00
Labourers - - - - -	1.75- 2.00	Workmen - - - - -	1.50- 2.50
8. Brick-making :		(vii.) Builders :	
Brick-makers - - - - -	5.50	Foremen - - - - -	3.50- 5.00
Tile-makers - - - - -	4.50	Workmen - - - - -	1.75- 3.00
Boys of from 13 to 15 - - - - -	2.00	Labourers - - - - -	1.50- 2.00
Preparation of clay - - - - -	1.50	(viii.) Other trades :	
Persons engaged in carrying and baking the clay. - - - - -	4.00- 4.50	Tailors - - - - -	1.50- 3.50
Unloading - - - - -	1.50	Plate-workers - - - - -	1.50- 3.50
Women - - - - -	1.00- 1.50	Chocolate makers - - - - -	3.50- 4.00
Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.50	Lace makers - - - - -	0.75- 1.75
9. Textile trades :		Coach makers - - - - -	2.75- 3.75
Spinners - - - - -	2.00- 3.50	Coopers - - - - -	5.50- 6.50
Weavers - - - - -	2.25- 3.25	Marble workers - - - - -	2.50- 4.50
Women - - - - -	1.25	19. Agriculture :	
Children - - - - -	1.25	Labourer - - - - -	2.00- 5.00
10. Silk manufacture :		Day labourer - - - - -	1.50- 2.50
Brocade weaving - - - - -	3.50	Harvest labourers :	
Damask weaving - - - - -	2.75	Men - - - - -	1.50- 2.00
Velvet weaving - - - - -	2.50	Women - - - - -	0.75- 1.25
Handkerchiefs - - - - -	2.25	Children - - - - -	0.50- 0.75
Plain silk - - - - -	2.25	Labourers employed for vintage :	
11. Woollen manufacture :		Men - - - - -	1.00- 1.50
Master weavers - - - - -	2.50	Women - - - - -	0.75
Workmen - - - - -	1.80	Children - - - - -	0.25- 0.75
Winders - - - - -	0.75		
Women - - - - -	1.00- 2.50		
Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.00		
12. Candle factories :			
Men - - - - -	3.00- 5.00		
Women - - - - -	1.25- 1.75		
Children - - - - -	0.50- 1.00		

## 3. Strikes recorded in the Evidence taken in 1884.

Year.	Department.	Industry.	Extension.	Cause.	Due to External Agitation.	Funds at Strikers' Disposal.	Accompanied with Violence.	Side giving way.	Authorities favourable to Workmen.	Intervention of Authorities to reconcile Disputants.
1845	Alicante	Woolen	Partial	Wages and hours.	No	Their own	No	Workmen	No	No.
1856	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1864	"	Paper	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1866	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	"
1868	Toledo	Day labourers	"	"	"	"	"	"	No	Yes.
1869	Almeria	"	"	Indefinite	"	"	Yes	Mutual concessions.	"	"
1869	Granada	Makers of sandals.	"	Wages	"	"	Uncertain	Uncertain	"	Uncertain.
1869	Malaga	Porters	"	Wages and hours.	"	"	No	Workmen	"	Yes.
1870	Cadix	Bakers	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1871	"	Artizans	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1871	Valencia	Bakers	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	"	No.
1873	Alicante	Locksmiths	"	Wages	"	"	"	Mutual concessions.	Uncertain	Uncertain.
1873	Cadix	Shoemakers	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	No	"
1873	"	Wool packers	"	Indefinite	"	"	"	Mutual concessions.	"	"
1873	"	Printers	"	Wages	"	"	"	Workmen	"	"
1873	"	Bakers	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	No.
1873	Granada	Makers of sandals.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1873	"	Mat makers	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	"	"
1873	"	Shoemakers	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain.
1873	"	Confectioners	"	Not stated	"	"	"	Workmen	"	No.
1873	Hueloa	Miners	General	Wages and hours.	Yes	Received from other sources.	Yes	"	"	"
1873	Valencia	Tailors	Partial	"	No	"	"	"	"	Uncertain.
1873	"	Woolen	"	"	"	Their own	No	"	Uncertain	"
1873	"	Paper	"	"	"	"	"	"	No	No.
1873	"	Silk	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1873	"	Leather	"	"	"	"	Yes	"	"	"
1873	"	Woolen	General	Wages	"	"	No	Mutual concessions.	"	"
1873	Zaragoza	Weavers	Partial	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1873	Granada	Mat makers	"	"	"	"	"	Employers	"	"
1873	Biscaya	Iron workers	"	Wages and hours.	Probably	"	"	Workmen	"	"
1873	Palencia	Printers	"	"	No	"	Yes	"	"	"
1874	Valencia	Silk	"	"	"	"	No	"	"	"
1874	Alicante	Woolen	General	"	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain.
1875	Zaragoza	Blacksmiths	Partial	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	"
1876	Granada	Mat makers	"	"	"	"	"	"	No	"
1876	Baleares	Shoemakers	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1878	Valencia	Silk	"	Hours	"	Their own and others sent from elsewhere.	Yes	"	"	"
1878	"	Bakers	"	Wages	"	Their own	No	Mutual concessions.	"	"
1879	"	Mat makers	"	"	"	"	"	Workmen	"	"
1880	Granada	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1881	Toledo	Carpenters	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1881	Valencia	Silk	"	"	Yes	"	"	Uncertain	"	"
1881	"	Bakers	"	"	No	"	"	Workmen	"	"
1881	"	Printers	"	"	Yes	"	"	"	"	"
1882	Cadix	Bakers	"	"	No	"	"	"	Yes	Yes.
1882	Palencia	Woolen	"	"	"	"	"	"	No	No.
1882	Valencia	Silk	"	"	Yes	"	"	"	"	"
1882	"	Builders	"	"	No	"	"	Mutual concessions.	"	"
1882	"	Leather	"	"	Yes	"	"	Workmen	"	"

Year.	Department.	Industry.	Extension.	Cause.	Due to External Agitation.	Funds at Strikers' disposal.	Accompanied with Violence.	Side giving way.	Authorities favourable to Workmen.	Intervention of Authorities to reconcile Disputants.	
1882	Valencia	Stonecutters	Partial	Against discharge of Socialist workmen.	No	Funds of International.	Yes	Workmen	No	No.	
1882	"	Weavers	"	"	"	Their own	No	"	"	"	
1882	"	Marble workers.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
1883	Granada	Hat makers	"	Wages and hours.	"	From outside	Yes	Uncertain	"	"	
1883	Huelva	Iron workers	"	"	"	Their own	No	Workmen	"	"	
1883	Oviedo	Metal casting	"	Wages	Uncertain	"	"	"	"	"	
1883	Valencia	Carpenters	"	"	No	"	Uncertain	Mutual concessions.	"	"	
1883	"	Builders	"	"	"	"	No	"	"	"	
1883	"	Woollen	"	"	"	Uncertain	"	Employers	"	"	
1884	"	Bakers	"	Hours	"	"	"	Mutual concessions.	Yes	Yes.	
1884	Biscaya	"	"	Wages	Yes	"	"	Uncertain	"	"	
Date not stated.	Albacete	Carpenters	"	Hours	No	Their own	"	"	No	No.	
	"	Shoemakers	"	Wages	"	"	"	Workmen	"	"	
	Avila	Harvest workers.	"	Uncertain	"	"	"	Employers	"	"	
	Barcelona	Labourers	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
	"	Builders	"	"	Uncertain	"	Uncertain	"	"	"	
	"	Locksmiths	"	"	"	"	No	"	"	"	
	"	Weavers	"	Hours	Yes	"	Uncertain	Workmen	"	Uncertain.	
	"	Spinners	"	Wages	Uncertain	"	"	Mutual concessions.	"	No.	
	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
	"	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	"	"	"	Uncertain.	
	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	
	"	"	"	"	"	"	Their own	"	Workmen	"	"
	Cuenca	Workmen	"	"	No	"	No	Mutual concessions.	Yes	Yes.	
Jaen	Metal casting	"	"	"	"	Uncertain	Workmen	No	No.		
"	"	"	Uncertain	"	"	"	Employers	"	"		
Lugo	Shoemakers	"	Wages	"	"	"	"	"	"		
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Workmen	"	"		
Malaga	Cotton dealers.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		
Oviedo	Miners	"	Uncertain	Yes	Funds of International.	Yes	"	"	"		
Santander	Workmen	"	"	No	Uncertain	Uncertain	"	Yes	Yes.		
"	"	"	Hours	"	"	"	"	No	No.		
Teruel	Builders	"	Uncertain	"	"	"	"	"	"		

**Record Office Publications:—**

- I. CALENDARS OF STATE PAPERS.**—Imperial 8vo. Cloth. Price 15s. per vol. :—  
**PATENT ROLLS.** Edward III. Vol. II. A.D. 1330–1334. 756 pp.  
**COLONIAL SERIES.** Vol. IX. America and West Indies, 1675–1676; also Addenda, 1574–1674. Edited by W. Noel Sainsbury. 657 pp.  
**ENGLISH AFFAIRS.** Calendar of Letters and Papers preserved in the Archives of Simancas. Edited by Martin S. Hume. Vol. II. Elizabeth, 1568–1579. 794 pp.
- 
- STATE PAPERS RELATING TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND AND THE CHANNEL ISLANDS,** preserved in the Public Record Office. Part I. List of. Price 6s. 6d.
- 
- PRIVY COUNCIL OF ENGLAND: ACTS OF THE.** New series. Edited by J. R. Dassent, M.A. Vol. 7. A.D. 1558–1570. Cloth. Price 10s.
- 
- II. CHRONICLES OF ENGLAND.**—Royal 8vo. Half bound. Price 10s. per vol. :—  
**PARLIAMENT** holden at Westminster on the Twenty-eighth day of February, in the thirty-third year of the reign of King Edward the First (A.D. 1305), Records of the. Edited by F. W. Maitland. 496 pp.  
**SCOTTISH :—**  
**THE HAMILTON PAPERS.** Letters and Papers illustrating the Political Relations of England and Scotland in the XVIIth Century. Edited by Joseph Bain. Vol. II. A.D. 1543–1590. 904 pp. Price 15s.  
**IRISH :—**  
**ULSTER.** Annals of. Vol. II. A.D. 1057–1131; 1155–1378. 566 pp. Price 10s.
- Europe by Treaty.** The map of. By Sir Edward Hertslet, K.C.B. Vol. IV. Nos. 452–625. 1875–1891. Price 11. 11s. 6d.
- Military :—**  
**AFRICA. BRITISH EAST.** Handbook of. 1893. Price 3s.  
**ARMY BOOK** for the British Empire. 1893. Price 5s.  
**ARMY REGULATIONS AND INSTRUCTIONS.** List of, and General Index to the. 1894. Price 1s.  
**ENGINEERING. MILITARY.** Manual of. Price 1s.  
**INFANTRY DRILL,** as revised by Her Majesty's Command. 1893. Price 1s.  
**MILITIA.** Regulations for. 1894. Price 1s.  
**ORDNANCE SERVICE.** Treatise on. 4th edition. 1893. Price 10s.  
**STORES.** Priced Vocabulary of. Part I. Price 4s.
- Naval :—**  
**ARCHITECTURE. NAVAL.** Textbook of. Third edition. 1894. Price 4s.  
**GUNNERY DRILL BOOK.** For Her Majesty's Fleet. 1893. Price 1s.  
**MAGAZINE RIFLE EXERCISES.** For Her Majesty's Fleet. 1893. Price 2d.  
**UNIFORM REGULATIONS FOR PETTY OFFICERS, MEN, AND BOYS OF THE FLEET.** Revised 1892. Price 2s.
- Local Government Act, 1894 :—**Circulars issued by the Local Government Board, March 1894 :—  
**Metropolitan Vestries and District Boards and the Local Board of Woolwich.** Price 1d.  
**County Councils, except the London County Council.** Price 2d.
- Infectious Diseases.** Hospitals for. Supplement to Tenth Annual Report of the Local Government Board, 1880–81. Reprinted, with slight amendments, from Command Paper (C. 3290). Price 5s
- Electric Lighting Acts, 1882 to 1890 :—**  
**REGULATIONS FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE PUBLIC SAFETY** and of the Electric Lines and Works of the Postmaster-General, and of other Electric Lines and Works prescribed by the Board of Trade under the provisions of the Electric Lighting Act, 1889. Posp. 4 pp. Price 1d.  
**RULES WITH RESPECT TO APPLICATIONS FOR LICENCES AND PROVISIONAL ORDERS, &c., August, 1890.** Price 1d.
- Land Registry.** Land Transfer Act, 1875. General Instructions as to the Registration and Transfer of Land under; with the Act, Rules, and Orders, Fees and General Index. Price 1s.  
**EXAMPLES OF MONES OF REGISTRATION.** Certificates, Registers, &c., in use in Land Registry. Price 2s. 6d.  
**Friendly Societies Office.** Guide Book of the. 1893. Price 6d.
- Geological :—**  
**THE JURASSIC ROCKS OF BRITAIN.** Vol. I., price 8s. 6d. Vol. II., price 12s. Vol. III., price 7s. 6d.  
**PLEISTOCENE DEPOSITS OF BRITAIN.** The Vertebrata of. By E. T. Newton, F.G.S., F.Z.S. Price 4s.  
**SOUTH-WESTERN NORFOLK AND NORTHERN CAMBRIDGESHIRE.** The Geology of. Price 3s.
- Agriculture, Board of.** Leaflets issued in 1893. Price 6d.
- Publications of the Emigrants' Information Office, 81, Broadway, Westminster, S.W., viz. :—**  
**Colonies, Handbooks for.** 8vo. Wrapper.  
 No. 1. Canada. 2. New South Wales. 3. Victoria. 4. South Australia. 5. Queensland. 6. Western Australia. 7. Tasmania. 8. New Zealand. 9. Cape Colony. 10. Natal. Price 1d. each.  
 No. 11. Professional Handbook dealing with Professions in the Colonies. 12. Emigration Statutes and General Handbook. Price 3d. each.  
 No. 13 (viz., Nos. 1 to 12 in cloth). Price 2s.  
**Summary of Consular Reports.** America, North and South. December 1893. Price 2d.  
**West Indies.** Information for Intending Emigrants. Price 1d.  
**South African Republic.** General Information for Intending Emigrants. Price 2s.  
**Board of Trade Journal,** of Tariff and Trade Notices and Miscellaneous Commercial Information. Published on the 15th of each Month. Price 6d. Index to Vols. 1 to 14. July 1886 to June 1893. Price 2s.  
**Kew: Royal Botanic Gardens.** Bulletins of Miscellaneous Information. Volume for 1893. 8vo. Boards. Price 3s. Monthly parts, 1894, price 4d.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

---

FOREIGN REPORTS.

---

Volume IX.

---

DENMARK, SWEDEN AND NORWAY, AND SPAIN  
AND PORTUGAL.

---

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.  
*June 1893.*

---



LONDON:

PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,  
BY EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE,  
PRINTERS TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

And to be purchased, either directly or through any Bookseller, from  
EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C., and  
32, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or  
JOHN MENZIES & Co., 12, HANOVER STREET, EDINBURGH, and  
90, WEST NILE STREET, GLASGOW; or  
HODGES, FIGGIS, & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1894.