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REPORT
OF THE
ROYAL COMMISSION
ON THE
RELATIONS OF LABOR AND CAPITAL
IN
CANADA



OTTAWA
PRINTED FOR THE QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY
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1889

Commission Appointing Hon. James Armstrong, Q.C., C.M.G., et al., Members of a Royal Commission to Enquire into and Report on the Subject of Labor, and for other Purposes. Dated 9th December, 1886. Recorded 20th December, 1886. L. A. Catellier, Deputy Registrar General of Canada.

CANADA.

LANSDOWNE.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland,
QUEEN, Defender of the Faith, &c., &c., &c.

To all to whom these Presents shall come, or whom the same may in any wise concern :

GREETING :

WHEREAS, His Excellency the Governor General of Canada in Council has recommended that a Royal Commission shall be issued for the purpose of enquiring into and reporting upon the subject of Labor, its relation to Capital, the hours of labor, and the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual and moral prosperity, and of improving and developing the productive industries of the Dominion so as to advance and improve the trade and commerce of Canada; also, of enquiring into and reporting on the practical operations of Courts of Arbitration and Conciliation in the settlement of disputes between employers and employés, and on the best mode of settling such disputes; also, of enquiring into and reporting on the expediency of placing all such matters as are to form the subjects of such enquiry under the administration of one of the Ministers of the Crown :

AND WHEREAS we deem it expedient in the interest of and as connected with the good government of Canada to cause such enquiry to be made;

NOW KNOW YE, that We, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council for Canada, do, by these Presents, nominate, constitute and appoint the Honorable James Armstrong, of the City of Ottawa, in the Province of Ontario, Q.C., C.M.G., late Chief Justice of the Island of Saint Lucia; Augustus Toplady Freed, of the City of Hamilton, in the Province of Ontario, Publisher; John Armstrong, of the City of Toronto, in the Province of Ontario, Printer; Samuel R. Heakes, of the said City of Toronto, Boat-builder; Jules Helbronner, of the City of Montreal, in the Province of Quebec, Journalist; Michael Walsh, of the City of Halifax, in the Province of Nova Scotia, Carpenter; James Alfred Clark, of the Town of Carleton, in the Province of New Brunswick, Builder; together with such other gentlemen as may be added by order of His Excellency, our said Governor General in Council, Commissioners to make enquiry into all the facts connected with or having any bearing upon the subjects above indicated.

AND WE DO HEREBY, under the authority of an Act of the Parliament of Canada, passed in the thirty-first year of Our Reign, chaptered thirty-eight, and intituled "An Act Respecting Enquiries Concerning Public Matters," confer upon the said Commissioners the power of summoning before them any party or witnesses, and of

requiring him or them to give evidence on oath, orally or in writing (or on solemn affirmation, if they be parties entitled to affirm in civil matters), and to produce such documents and things as such Commissioners deem requisite to the full investigation of the matters into which they are appointed to examine.

AND WE do order and direct, that the said Commissioners do report to Our said Governor General in Council, from time to time, or in one report, as they may think fit, the result of their enquiries.

AND WE do hereby nominate, constitute and appoint Alfred Hill Blackeby, of the Town of Galt, in the said Province of Ontario, Esquire, to be the Secretary of the said Commission.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, we have caused these Our Letters to be made Patent, and the Great Seal of Canada to be hereunto affixed: Witness our Right, Trusty and Entirely Beloved Cousin, the Most Honorable Sir Henry Charles Keith Petty Fitzmaurice, Marquis of Lansdowne, in the County of Somerset, Earl of Wycombe, of Chipping Wycombe, in the County of Bucks, Viscount Calne and Calnestone, in the County of Wilts, and Lord Wycombe, Baron of Chipping Wycombe, in the County of Bucks, in the Peerage of Great Britain; Earl of Kerry and Earl of Shelburne, Viscount Clanmaurice and Fitzmaurice, Baron of Kerry, Lixnaw and Dunkerron, in the Peerage of Ireland; Knight Grand Cross of Our Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George; Governor General of Canada, and Vice Admiral of the same.

At Our Government House, in Our City of Ottawa, this ninth day of December, in the year of Our Lord one thousand eight hundred and eighty-six, and in the fiftieth year of Our Reign.

By Command,

G. POWELL,

Under Secretary of State.

GEO. W. BURBIDGE,

Deputy of the Minister of Justice, Canada.

At subsequent dates Commissions were issued to William A. Gibson, of Ottawa, Blacksmith; Urias Carson, of Ottawa, Cabinet-maker; Patrick Kerwin, of the City of Quebec, Machinist; Louis Coté, of St. Hyacinthe, Manufacturer; Hugh A. McLean, of London, Ont., Printer; John Kelly, of Portland, New Brunswick, Manufacturer; William Haggarty, of Sydney Mines, Teacher; Guillaume Boivin, of Montreal, Manufacturer.

NOTE.—Hon. James Armstrong who had been appointed Chairman of the Commission, died at Sorel on the 23rd day of November, 1888. Mr. A. T. Freed was subsequently appointed Chairman *vice* Hon. James Armstrong.

The following Circular was issued by the Commission :

ROYAL LABOR COMMISSION,

OTTAWA, 16th November, 1887.

The Royal Commission appointed for the purpose of making enquiries into all subjects connected with labor and its relations to capital will hold meetings from time to time (as may be announced) at various centres of industry.

The Commission will be glad to hear any evidence that may be offered bearing on the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours of labor, the earnings of laboring men and women, methods of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between employers and employés, and generally any means that may be advanced for promoting the material, social, moral and intellectual prosperity of the working classes.

For the purpose of giving a better idea of what subjects are considered pertinent to these enquiries the following general heads are given, viz. :—

Factory laws.

Laws regarding machinery.

Lien law and garnishment of wages.

Proportionate profits of capital and labor.

Cheapening of production by use of machinery.

Has the use of machinery lowered wages?

Profit-sharing.

Iron-clad contracts.

Conspiracy laws and black-lists.

Masters and servants Acts.

Child labor.

Female labor.

Employers' liability.

Truck system.

Foreign contract labor.

Land and other rents.

Weekly payments and pay days.

The apprentice system.

Hours of labor and rates of wages.

Purchasing power of wages.

Wages in Canada as compared with those in Great Britain and the United States.

Arbitration.

Effects arising from organized labor upon the working classes.

Strikes and their results.

Labor combinations.

Difference between manufacturers' prices and cost to consumers; and is this difference greater or less in the case of imported articles as compared with articles of home production?

Trusts.

Workingmen's co-operative benefit societies.

Execution of judgments.

Fining of employés.

Sunday labor.

Industrial schools.

Tenement houses and workingmen's dwellings.

Building societies.

Immigration.

Sanitary arrangements of factories, workshops and workingmen's dwellings.

Co-operation in production and distribution.

Bureaus of labor statistics.

Convict labor.

Savings of the working classes, and their investments.

Although it is believed that these subjects will fairly cover the field of investigation, it must be distinctly understood that evidence may be taken on any other subject, not here enumerated, that may be deemed to come within the scope of these enquiries.

Special enquiry will also be made into the condition of persons employed in the agricultural, mining, lumbering and fishing industries.

A. H. BLACKEBY,

Secretary.

FIRST REPORT OF THE ROYAL LABOR COMMISSION.

To His Excellency the Right Honorable Sir Frederick Arthur Stanley, Baron Stanley of Preston, in the County of Lancaster, in the Peerage of Great Britain, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath, Governor General of Canada, and Vice-Admiral of the same :

Your Commissioners, appointed "for the purpose of enquiring into and reporting on the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours of labor, and the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual and moral prosperity, and of improving and developing the productive industries of the Dominion, so as to advance and improve the trade and commerce of Canada; also of enquiring into and reporting on the practical operation of courts of arbitration and conciliation in the settlement of disputes between employers and employes, and on the best mode of settling such disputes; also of enquiring into and reporting on the expediency of placing such matters as are to form the subject of such inquiry under the administration of one of the Ministers of the Crown," beg leave to submit their report.

WORK OF COMMISSION.

The Commission visited and took testimony in the following places: In Ontario—Toronto, Windsor, Chatham, St. Thomas, London, Petrolia, Hamilton, St. Catharines, Kingston, Cornwall and Ottawa. In Quebec—Montreal, Quebec, Lévis, Sherbrooke, Capelton, St. Hyacinthe and Hull. In New Brunswick—St. John, Moncton, Chatham, Newcastle, Fredericton, Marysville, St. Stephen and St. George. In Nova Scotia—Halifax, Dartmouth, Londonderry, Spring Hill, Amherst, Stellarton, New Glasgow, Sidney Mines, Glace Bay and Bridgeport. About eighteen hundred witnesses were examined, including a considerable number from towns not visited by the Commission, and from agricultural districts. The testimony taken is hereto appended.

FEDERAL AND PROVINCIAL JURISDICTION.

By the British North America Act the Provincial Legislatures are given exclusive power to make laws affecting property and civil rights. Your Commissioners cannot venture to determine where, in legislation affecting labor and capital, the authority of the Dominion Parliament ends and that of the Provincial Legislatures begins. They are conscious that it is neither their duty nor their privilege to make specific recommendations to authorities by whom they were not appointed and to whom they are not answerable. But they have felt that if they should be over-nice in doubtful cases they would pass over some matters of great importance. They have, therefore, felt themselves at liberty to direct attention to all the chief evils which were exposed by the testimony, and to ask for their removal, without presuming to determine what authority is responsible for those evils or possesses the power to correct them.

FEAR OF EMPLOYERS.

It is to be regretted that a number of witnesses refused to permit the publication of their names, fearing dismissal or other mark of disapprobation on the part of their employers. If that fear was well founded it is greatly to the discredit of those exercising such petty tyranny. In most cases, however, employers were quite willing that their hands should testify, and not a few actively interested themselves in the investigation.

WAGES.

A table of wages, as paid in the several Provinces visited by the Commission, has been compiled, and will be found annexed. As some differences exist between the statements of employers and employes, the character of each witness has been indicated.

BETTER CONDITION OF WORKINGMEN.

The testimony taken sustains a belief that wages in Canada are generally higher than at any previous time, while hours of labor have been somewhat reduced. At the same time, the necessaries and ordinary comforts of life are lower in price than ever before, so that the material condition of the working people who exercise reasonable prudence and economy has been greatly bettered, especially during the past ten years. (*See Appendix A.*)

RENTS.

The most marked exception to the rule of lower prices for the necessaries of life is in house rents. These have advanced in all the large cities, and that to such an extent that a serious burden has been added to those borne by people struggling for a living. In one or two places co-operative savings associations have been formed, to enable persons in comparatively humble circumstances to acquire homes. (*See Appendix B.*) It is believed that the principle might be greatly extended, in such a manner that weekly or monthly payments, not materially greater than present payments for rent, would in a few years purchase homes, by means of terminable life insurance policies. This should be a purely business affair, though it is probable that benevolent legislation, in the direction indicated, might materially aid working people, without making them objects of charity. (*See Appendix C.*)

MUNICIPAL TAXATION.

In some cities, if not in all, the houses of the comparatively poor are, in proportion to their value, more highly taxed for municipal purposes than those of wealthy people. This is unjust. The poor man is justified in asking that he be no more highly taxed in proportion to his means than his more fortunate neighbor. The practice—happily not common—of leasing land for others to build upon was subject of complaint in Toronto and Hull, and appears to be productive of no little injustice.

LANDLORDS' PREFERENCE.

It is believed that in the collection of rents landlords should have no preference over other creditors, and that as many articles of household use as are necessary to comfort should be exempt from seizure to satisfy any debt.

SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS.

In many places no effectual means are taken to secure proper sanitary conditions in workingmen's dwellings. Testimony supports a belief that these houses yield to the owners a much larger revenue than houses of a better class, and certainly landlords can afford to make them safely habitable. In any case, the letting as a dwelling of a house in bad sanitary condition should be forbidden by law. Frequent inspection should be made, and some competent authority should order alterations or repairs when necessary to health. If the hours of labor be shortened workingmen will be able to seek homes in the suburbs of towns, where they will have the benefit of lower rents and will secure better sanitary conditions. Means for rapid and cheap transit are now being introduced, which will relieve congested industrial centres of their surplus population, to the great benefit of the working classes

SHORTER HOURS.

The use of machinery and of improved means of transport have enormously facilitated the production and distribution of manufactured goods and natural products. (See Appendix D). The wealthy classes have by these means secured more luxuries, the laboring classes more necessities and comforts, and somewhat shorter hours of labor. Your Commissioners believe the ordinary working day may be still further reduced with advantage to workmen and without injury or injustice to employers. They recommend that the employment in stores and factories of women and children for more than ten hours in one day or more than fifty-four hours in one week be forbidden by law; and that all Government contracts stipulate that the daily hours of labor under them shall not exceed nine. (See Appendix F).

MASTERS AND SERVANTS ACTS.

The man who sells labor should, in selling it, be on an equality with the man who buys it; and each party to a labor contract should be subject to the same penalty for violation of it. No greater or different punishment should be imposed upon the workman, or even upon the apprentice, who quits his employment without notice than upon the employer who summarily dismisses an employé. Your Commissioners believe some existing provisions of Masters and Servants Acts not to be in accord with the liberal spirit of the present age; and they believe that justice would be secured by the abolition of such Acts, leaving only civil remedies to be sought for the breach of civil contracts. (See Appendix H).

MORALS.

The testimony does not sustain a belief that serious immorality exists in Canadian factories in which operatives of both sexes are employed. The proper enforcement of existing Factory Acts will remove the chief existing causes of complaint.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Labor organizations are necessary to enable workingmen to deal on equal terms with their employers. They encourage their members to study and discuss matters affecting their interests and to devise means for the betterment of their class. It is gratifying to be assured by many competent witnesses that labor bodies discourage strikes and other disturbances of industry, favor conciliation and arbitration for the settlement of disputes, and adopt conservative and legitimate methods for promoting the welfare of the producing members of society. It is in evidence that most labor bodies strive effectively to promote temperance throughout the country, and especially among their members.

CO-OPERATION.

Little evidence was found of co-operation in industry or trade, and none at all of participation in profits by workingmen, though both systems exist in other countries and have been attended with satisfactory results. It is recommended that the Labor Bureau, if established, publish from time to time such information respecting co-operation and profit sharing as may be obtainable.

SAILING VESSELS ON THE LAKES.

It is in evidence that sailing vessels navigating inland waters frequently undertake voyages under circumstances which imperil the lives of the crews. It is earnestly recommended that the State provide by legislation for proper inspection of all vessels on the lakes and rivers of Canada; and further, that such vessels be not permitted to leave port unless found seaworthy, sufficiently manned with competent sailors, provided with life-saving appliances, furnished with suitable accommodation and necessary supplies for all on board, and not overloaded.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

Serious complaints have been made respecting the dangers to which railway hands are exposed. Your Commissioners are of opinion that the attention of Legislators should be given to this matter, especially with a view to enquiry whether running-boards on freight cars should not be widened, whether rails or guards may not be placed upon such cars, whether improved couplers may not be introduced, whether the air-brake may not be attached to all freight cars, and whether the buffers or dead-woods now used on some cars may not be made less dangerous. It is believed, also, that if railway employées were paid more frequently than once in each month, the advantage to the men would greatly outweigh the expense to the companies.

FISHERIES.

Our fisheries are among the most important of Canadian industries. Benevolent governmental and legislative care and the judicious distribution of bounties have greatly fostered them. Testimony supports a belief that in several places the fisheries are injured by improper methods. (*See Appendix M*).

MINING IN NOVA SCOTIA.

Much interesting and valuable testimony was taken in the mining regions of Nova Scotia. The chief complaints made by miners were that wages were not paid with sufficient frequency, that deductions from their wages for the support of schools were too high, that in some places they felt themselves compelled to deal at company stores, and (in Cape Breton) that the enforced stoppage of work in winter, owing to the closing of ports by ice, very seriously reduced their earnings. It was believed by some witnesses that if the railway to Louisbourg were restored sale would be found for coal during the winter months, and that mines could be operated throughout the year.

CERTIFICATED ENGINEERS.

There is serious danger in permitting unskilled men to control large steam engines and boilers. It is recommended that strict examination be made and certificates be issued to properly qualified persons, and that none who do not hold such certificates be permitted to remain in charge of engines exceeding a certain power, to be fixed by law, or of boilers used for heating factories or other large buildings. It is also recommended that frequent inspection of boilers be made by competent officials.

EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.

In some parts of the Dominion the employment of children of very tender years is still permitted. This injures the health, stunts the growth and prevents the proper education of such children, so that they cannot become healthy men and women or intelligent citizens. It is believed that the regular employment in mills, factories and mines of children less than fourteen years of age should be strictly forbidden. Further, your Commissioners think that young persons should not be required to work during the night at any time, nor before seven o'clock in the morning during the months of December, January, February and March. (*See Appendix E*).

CHILD-BEATING.

The darkest pages in the testimony which follows are those recording the beating and imprisonment of children employed in factories. Your Commissioners earnestly hope that these barbarous practices may be removed, and such treatment made a penal offence, so that Canadians may no longer rest under the reproach that the lash and the dungeon are accompaniments of manufacturing industry in the Dominion.

FINING.

The system of fining employ es, which prevails in some factories, is unjust, and is sometimes made an instrument of petty tyranny by foremen. The laws should secure to every operative the full sum his employer has agreed to pay him. The proprietor has at command ample means to enforce discipline and secure good workmanship without depriving his hands of any part of the wages lawfully due. (*See Appendix O.*)

INSPECTION OF FACTORIES.

Frequent and thorough inspection of factories should be made, and stringent laws should imperatively require safety and proper sanitary conditions in the buildings, protection of the machinery against accidents, and ample means for escape in case of fire. Female inspectors should visit factories in which females are employed, in order that enquiries may be made which men cannot properly make of women. Where considerable numbers of women and children are employed their immediate supervision should, where it is possible, be entrusted to women. Both employers and employ es desire that the main provisions of Factory Acts be similar in all the Provinces. That this agreement is quite feasible is evident from the fact that at the time the Commission visited Ontario and Quebec the laws on the Statute Books of those Provinces were almost identical. Inspectors should not be entrusted with the enforcement of the Acts, but should report frequently—say weekly—to their official superiors, who should take action when necessary. Reports of inspectors should be promptly published. There will be no injustice in this, since the man who violates the law must not complain if the fact be made known; and fear of publicity will generally secure compliance with proper legal requirements. In some foreign countries workingmen have been greatly benefited by provisions in Factory Acts requiring the regular inspection of temporary structures and appliances, such as scaffolds and derricks, and also of chains, tackle and other gear used in loading and unloading vessels. Your Commissioners recommend the adoption of such requirements in Canadian Acts. Many employers, as well as employ es, asked that the Factory Acts be applied to stores and to small shops in which less than twenty persons are employed. Your Commissioners believe that if these requests be granted the sanitary conditions of these places will be improved, and the evils of the sweating process will be diminished, if not wholly removed.

SUMMARY SUITS FOR WAGES.

Testimony received leads your Commissioners to think that artisans, laborers, domestic servants, and others, should have power to obtain from magistrates or county courts summary judgment for wages due. If courts corresponding to the *Conseils des Prud'hommes*, of France, be established, they might be given jurisdiction in such cases. In cases of bankruptcy wages should have preference over all other claims, and, where practicable, workingmen's wages should constitute a lien upon the products of their labor. This could not be done in cases of articles of ordinary merchandise, since sales could not be effected if any legal claim were to follow the goods; but it should apply to public works, to buildings, and even to saw-logs and timber. (*See Appendix L.*)

COURTS OF ARBITRATION.

Strikes and lock-outs are the most expensive and the most irritating means for settling disputes between employers and employed. Courts of arbitration, conciliation and the settlement of minor differences, have proved successful in other countries, and it cannot be doubted that they would be of great advantage to workingmen and to employers of labor in Canada. (*See Appendix I.*)

LABOR DAY

Your Commissioners recommend that one day in each year be set apart by proclamation, to be observed throughout the Dominion as a statutory holiday, and that it be known as Labor Day.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Admirable systems of primary and of advanced instruction have been established in the several Provinces, by means of which the youth of Canada have educational advantages not surpassed in the world. Your Commissioners believe that these systems would be improved, and that great benefit would result, if technical knowledge were imparted in the common schools, in special schools or classes, or in colleges of technology.

APPRENTICE SYSTEM.

The apprentice system is almost a thing of the past. The factory system, the introduction of machinery and the division of labor have nearly put an end to it. In some trades apprentices are still taken. Instruction in technical schools is calculated to replace the old system to some extent. The Government might, as prizes for proficiency in technical schools, send a limited number of young men to foreign schools, where they would acquire knowledge of value to Canadian manufacturers, and would fit themselves to be teachers in like schools at home.

PATENT LAWS.

Your Commissioners believe the patent laws of the Dominion and the practice in the Patent Bureau to be susceptible of material improvement. (*See Appendix K*).

IMMIGRATION.

While the immigration of farmers and farm laborers will greatly benefit the country, it is believed that in the future money assistance to immigrants of every class may be properly withheld. Further, the sending to Canada of inmates of poor-houses and reformatories should be prohibited. Strict medical examination should be made at ports of landing and persons likely to become objects of charity and those having incurable diseases should be forbidden to land, and that importations of foreign workmen under contract be not permitted. (*See Appendix K*).

EXTENSION OF TRADE RELATIONS.

Your Commissioners think the Government may, with advantage, cause enquiries to be made, with a view to learn in what countries it is possible to sell Canadian products; also, that some system may be devised of accrediting Canadian commercial agents in foreign countries, yet so as not to involve governmental responsibility. Further, they suggest that enquiry be made whether encouragement may not be extended to the home production of some manufactured goods as well as raw materials now imported. (*See Appendix K*).

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

Within certain limits employers are now required to compensate workmen injured while in the discharge of their duties, or their heirs in case of death. Your Commissioners think the compensation should be recoverable even in cases where negligence on the part of the employer or his agents, or defect in machinery, has not caused the accident. The owners of machinery benefit by its use and should be primarily responsible for accidents caused by it. If all be placed on an equal footing no injustice will be done to manufacturers, since they will add to the price of their wares a sum sufficient to insure employes; and this extra charge for insurance should be considered when fixing the protection against foreign competition which manufacturers ought to enjoy. (*See Appendix G*).

INSURANCE AGAINST ACCIDENT.

It is possible still further to assure workmen by means of a governmental system of payment to the heirs of persons killed by accident, and your Commissioners recommend the establishment of such a system. They further suggest that the Government invite tenders from insurance companies, now existing or to be established, for securing payments during disability to persons sustaining accidental injuries. (See Appendix C).

ANNUITY SYSTEM.

Encouragement to working people to deposit their surplus earnings in the Post Office and Government Savings Banks has been productive of incalculable good. It is believed that still greater good would be accomplished were Parliament to create an annuity system, under which working people and others might make provision for old age by periodical or occasional payments of small sums. Such system has been found practicable in France; there is no reasonable doubt that it would be quite as practicable here. It would remove from many the fear of dependence upon relatives or upon charity in their declining years, and it could be managed without expense to the Government. (See Appendix C).

PROMPT AND FREQUENT PAYMENTS OF WAGES.

Justice demands that the workingman be paid for his labor at frequent intervals, in cash and in full. He should not be required at any time or under any circumstances to accept pay in goods, and it is believed that if he were paid frequently and promptly he would seldom be compelled to seek advances or ask credit. The truck system of payment, which happily has but little foothold in Canada, should be prohibited. (See Appendix L).

CURRENCY OF EMPLOYERS OBJECTED TO.

Believing that only the Government and the chartered banks should be permitted to create money, your Commissioners recommend that the issue by any other persons or bodies of scrip, notes, tokens, or other promises to pay, or evidences of indebtedness intended to be used as currency, be forbidden by law. (See Appendix L).

COLLECTING SMALL DEBTS.

The charges for collecting small debts sometimes press heavily upon workmen. One witness testified that in Montreal it would be possible to seize every week for a small debt half the wages of a man earning \$7, and that the costs would exceed the sum realized, so that the debt would actually be increased instead of being gradually extinguished. Though there is no evidence that this possibility has ever been converted into a fact, more than one witness has testified to a very small debt growing to a formidable sum by the addition of costs. One witness owed \$22.50 for three months' rent. Furniture for which he had paid \$165 was seized and sold, and after the sale the debt was greater, by reason of costs, than the original sum. Six years later this man's wages were seized, and he paid 50 cents a week for two years before he was wholly relieved from the obligation. Still another witness told the pitiful story of an unfortunate who owed a grocer \$4, which, by the addition of costs, grew to \$15. His wages were seized while his wife lay ill, and in his despair the poor man took his own life. Your Commissioners believe that law costs for the collection of small debts should be reduced to the lowest possible sum, and that the garnishment of wages should be forbidden.

CONVICT LABOR.

Witnesses examined respecting the treatment of convicts are of opinion that these unfortunate persons should be regularly and steadily employed at productive industry. There is serious complaint that goods made in prisons are sold in compe-

tition with the products of free labor, at less prices, and that in consequence wages are lowered, mechanics deprived of employment, and industry disturbed. The system of letting the services of prisoners to contractors appears to be vicious in itself, and unprofitable to the State, while it interferes with the reformation of the criminal. It is recommended that prisoners be employed in making articles for Government use; and that if any goods be manufactured for sale they be such as are not produced by other workmen in Canada, or that they be wholly sold in foreign markets. (See Appendix N).

DRINKING HABITS.

Many witnesses complained of the temptations to use intoxicating liquors to which workmen are exposed. In Cape Breton miners and managers of mines joined in recommending that the sale of liquor within three or five miles of any mine should be prohibited, and some favored total prohibition. A witness in Montreal deplored the fact that so many drinking-houses exist on the routes followed by workmen in going to and from their work. In other Provinces similar testimony was given. The interests of temperance would be served if, in all the Provinces, bar-rooms were required to be closed during the whole of every election day. It is also possible to greatly reduce the number of drinking places by requiring a certain distance to exist between any two, and that the number of licenses be based upon population.

ELECTION DAY.

Since the great majority of workmen are voters, it is important that they be not deprived of opportunity to exercise their electoral privileges. The law of Ontario provides that they may, on election days, have a lengthened intermission at noon in which to cast their ballots. Your Commissioners believe such provision should be made in the other Provinces.

CREDIT SYSTEM.

The credit system is almost always detrimental to the workman, and any legislation which restricts it will do good. Testimony shows that articles paid for by instalments are sold at extortionate prices, and that frequently, when a purchaser fails to meet a payment, the articles are taken back and all payments upon them are lost. It is recommended that after a certain percentage of the purchase money is paid the law shall hold the sale to be completed; and that if suit be brought to recover the balance judgment shall be given only for the sum required to make up the fair merchantable value of the goods when delivered.

LABOR BUREAU RECOMMENDED.

Your Commissioners are firmly persuaded that the interests of working people will be promoted if all matters relating to labor and capital be placed under the administration of one of the Ministers of the Crown, so that a Labor Bureau may be established, statistics collected, information disseminated, and working people find readier means of making their needs and their desires known to the Government.

The signed papers hereto annexed are, for the most part, based upon testimony taken by the Commission, but in less part on information otherwise acquired. They have been carefully considered, and their main conclusions are approved by all the subscribers hereto.

BRITISH COLUMBIA WORKMEN.

A series of resolutions adopted at a meeting of workmen at Victoria, British Columbia, is printed as an appendix hereto.

DISPUTES BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

Your Commissioners have not felt themselves at liberty to refer, in this report, to the many cases of dispute between employers and employed which were brought to their notice. In most instances these were of a private rather than of a public nature, and the great majority of them have now been adjusted. For example, the long standing differences between the merchants and the ship-laborers of Quebec have been amicably arranged by concessions honorable to both parties.

DISTRIBUTING THE REPORT.

It is recommended that a copy of this report be sent to each of the chief labor organizations in Canada.

DEATH OF JUDGE ARMSTRONG.

In closing their report your Commissioners have the sad duty of expressing their profound sorrow at the sudden death of their former Chairman, the Honorable James Armstrong, C.M.G., which took place at Sorel, on the 23rd of November last. A sincere christian, an earnest patriot, an able jurist, an upright and honorable man, faithful to his convictions and punctilious in his devotion to duty, his death is lamented as an irreparable loss to the Commission and a personal grief to its members. All of which is respectfully submitted.

(Signed,)

A. T. FREED,

Chairman.

JULES HELBRONNER,

J. ALFRED CLARK,

MICHAEL WALSH,

G. BOIVIN.

Ottawa, 23rd February, 1889.

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APPENDIX A.

COMPARATIVE COST OF LIVING.

The Commission has made many enquiries as to the cost of living compared with that in Great Britain, in the United States, and with that in Canada in former years. On the first and second points the testimony is not so full as could be desired, resting for the most part on opinion; but it may be said that the cost of most articles essential to well being and comfort is higher in Canada than in Great Britain and lower than in the United States. Not a few were found who expressed an opinion that the cost of living is greater in Canada at present than in former years. A machinist in Toronto thinks the purchasing power of money not so great as it was ten years ago. Another Toronto witness thinks the prices of commodities higher than in former years. One in Hamilton thinks the cost of living has increased of late years. One in London thinks the purchasing power of a dollar not half so great as it was eight years ago. And so on throughout the four Provinces. When these witnesses were pressed to go into particulars they were, almost without exception, unable to do so, or showed by their answers that they had not familiarized themselves with prices; and it is not unfair to think that they had increased their expenditures by purchases of supplies in greater quantity or of better quality than they could formerly afford, and that this fact had led them to think the prices of commodities had risen. On the other hand, a witness in Toronto (a mechanic) thought that working people live in better style than formerly; another in the same city that provisions are no dearer than in former years, while clothing is cheaper; and many others throughout the several Provinces were of the same opinion. But there is reason to fear that the most of this testimony is mere matter of belief. It is much more satisfactory to turn to the actual prices paid or received by a number of witnesses, or the market reports taken from the books of merchants or the columns of journals, whose publishers must have taken pains to procure correct figures, and who could have had no reason to misrepresent the facts. The comparative table of market prices in Toronto, supplied from the columns of the *Toronto Globe* by Mr. Thomas Galbraith, market reporter for that journal, will be found at pages 191 and 192 of the Ontario testimony, and it shows that the larger number of articles of household use have fallen in price, while a few have advanced. The testimony of a grocer, of Hamilton, will be found at page 764 of the Ontario volume, and is worthy of careful study. It is summed up in his statement that taking the whole quantity of groceries an ordinary family requires, a man can supply himself more cheaply at present than would have been possible ten, or fifteen, or twenty years ago. A Hamilton miller testified that flour which sold ten years ago for \$5.50 now sells for \$3.70, and is a better article. The testimony on page 1105 of the Ontario volume shows that beans and pork are somewhat dearer than in 1877, while flour, tea, sugar and syrup are cheaper. The testimony on page 216 of the Nova Scotia evidence shows tea, coffee, flour, oatmeal, cornmeal and oil to be cheaper than in former years, and tobacco dearer. The testimony on page 91 of the New Brunswick volume supplies a great deal of valuable information, and is summed up by the remark: "I can scarcely think of anything that is not cheaper now." That has reference only to provisions. A comparative table of prices was put in at Chatham, N.B., which will be found at page 369, New Brunswick volume, and shows a general lowering of prices. The testimony at page 372 of the same volume shows lower prices for flour, beef, sugar and tea, and higher prices for pork. A memorandum put in at Newcastle (page 415 of the New Brunswick volume) shows a general lowering of prices, but it carries the comparison back only to 1882.

A wholesale grocer (Montreal volume, page 710) testifies that such articles as working people are in the habit of using are cheaper to-day than they were five or six years ago. A retail dry goods merchant of Montreal (page 711) testifies that dry goods of the descriptions used by workingmen are cheaper than they were ten years ago, or more. A provision merchant (page 712) testifies that flour has fallen in price. A retail shoe dealer at Montreal (page 714) testifies that boots and shoes are cheaper than they were seven years ago. A hardware merchant (same page) gives similar testimony as to hardware used by the working classes. A butcher (page 716) testifies that in ten years there has been no material change in prices of butchers' meat. A provision dealer (page 719) testifies that prices of butter, eggs and cheese have changed but little in seven years. A wholesale clothier (page 725) testifies that clothing of the descriptions used by workingmen is from 16 to 25 per cent. cheaper than it was ten or fifteen years ago. A furniture dealer (page 726) testifies that furniture is from 25 to 50 per cent. cheaper than it was fifteen years ago. Fortifying all this testimony is that of many manufacturers in all the Provinces, the great majority of whom testify that the prices of their goods have materially fallen during the past ten years. In all the large cities rents have risen very materially; and that is a highly important matter in a country where rent takes so considerable a part of the average earnings of a workingman as in Canada.

A. T. FREED.

A P P E N D I X B.

CO-OPERATIVE BUILDING SOCIETIES.

Associations have, for many years and in many countries, been in existence to secure co-operation among workmen in building houses and securing homes for themselves. Your Commissioners have found only two such societies in the course of their investigations—the one in Hamilton, the other in Halifax. The Hamilton Homestead and Loan Association is formed on what is known as the Philadelphia Plan. Only stockholders are permitted to borrow, and they pay 6 per cent. interest on the face of their loans. The society has been in existence but a few years. Fresh issues of stock are made at the end of each six months, and payments are made at the rate of \$1 per share each month, until the stock matures, which will be in about eight years. Stockholders who do not borrow receive \$200 for each share at maturity. Of the first series of stock, 649½ shares were taken by mechanics and laboring men, 233 shares by clerks, 130½ shares by sewing women and female servants, and 33 shares by professional men. At the time the Commission visited Hamilton 128 houses had been built by means of loans from the association, and 123 of these were owned by mechanics. There is reason to believe the system to be admirable, but stockholders who do not borrow receive very high interest for their money. The Halifax Association is a co-operative savings and loan association. It lends money to stockholders only, on real estate security, for any purpose. Borrowers receive about \$234 for each share, the face value of which is \$240, and monthly payments of \$2.40 for each share pay the interest and extinguish the principal in eleven years and seven months. These associations may be formed under Dominion or Provincial authority. Their chief value is the encouragement they give working people to acquire homes, by making small monthly payments, not materially greater than the sums they would pay for rent for like houses.

A. T. FREED.

(Translation.)

APPENDIX C.

SAVINGS OF THE WORKING CLASSES, AND THEIR INVESTMENT.

INSURANCE AGAINST ACCIDENTS.

It is perfectly useless to discourse at much length on the benefits of life insurance. This financial combination is to-day perfectly understood and appreciated, as the constant increase of the number of policyholders proves.

Life insurance is divided into two classes quite distinct: 1st, that whose manifold combinations are based on probable mortality caused by sickness or accident; and, 2nd, that which pays the amount assured only in case of death by accident, and a weekly indemnity in cases of disability resulting from accident.

If the working class has hitherto profited little by the different systems of life insurance that is due to two causes: 1st, to the high insurance premiums; and, 2nd, to the conditions of payment.

Certain employers or companies have thought, in view of the numerous accidents which have happened or can happen in their workshops or on their docks, that they ought to impose life insurance on their workmen, and to oblige them either to form among themselves a mutual insurance company or to consent to deductions from their wages for policies of life insurance.

Workingmen so assured who have testified before the Commission have almost all condemned this forced insurance, and the study of the systems of obligatory insurance exposed in the course of the enquiry justifies the assertions of the witnesses.

Two companies have furnished the Commission with all the documents concerning insurance in cases of accident of their workmen: these are, the Allan Line and the Grand Trunk Railway.

ALLAN LINE.

The Allan Line retains 1 per cent. of the wages of its employés, and with this amount so retained insures them in the Citizens Insurance Company, which in case of death, pays \$500 to the heirs of the victim, or \$5 a week in case of inability to work resulting from an accident. (Pages 334 and 335, Que.)

No policy has been produced before the Commission, but there is proof that this insurance protects laboring men only while they are working for the Allan Line. The heirs of a man killed on the quay or elsewhere outside his work would have no right to any indemnity.

Taking as a basis the mean earnings of 25 cents an hour, a sum below the average, we find that the longshoremen of the Allan Line pay a premium of \$0.0025 an hour of work, equivalent to an annual premium of \$9.12 for a protection of ten hours a day during 365 days.

An accident insurance company of Montreal * would give the same indemnity—whether \$5 a week in case of inability to work, or \$500 in case of death,

* It is true that the premium policy for daily or occasional insurance is necessarily higher than for yearly insurance of a like class; but longshoremen working regularly under contract for the Allan Line can be insured by the month or the season for less money than the sums now retained from their pay, or at least for the same premium, but for a period covering the twenty-four hours of the day, instead of ten hours, as per the system adopted by the Allan Line.

upon a payment of an annual premium of \$8.75, payable per quarter, and the policy which it would give covers not only accidents happening during ten hours of work, but all the accidents that could happen during the twenty-four hours of the day.

The insurance system put in force by the Allan Line is, then, onerous for the insured workmen; moreover, it has the double defect of being compulsory, and of being completely beyond the control of those interested, who are not in possession of any document establishing their claim.

GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY INSURANCE.

The Grand Trunk Railway proceeds otherwise, and has obliged its workmen to form themselves into a provident and assurance society.

For the provident society the employés are obliged to pay according to their occupations a monthly sum of 40 or 50 cents. The Grand Trunk Company contributes yearly to this fund a sum of \$10,000 (page 522, Ont.) The assured, in case of inability to work caused by sickness or by accident, receive an indemnity of \$3 a week for twenty-six weeks, and if the malady continues longer, and on declaration of a physician that the sick man is incapable of working, the latter receives a sum of \$100. If the incapacity to work is total the assured man can receive half or some part of his insurance (page 123, Que.) The first section of the sixth chapter of the rules of the society says that the member who shall have received one of these last compensations will have no more right to any indemnity for sickness.

The assurance in case of death is based upon the assessment principle, and is explained at page 121, Que.

This Grand Trunk Provident Society is entirely governed by the Grand Trunk directors (chap. 9 and 11 of the Rules), and the employés have absolutely no control over the management of the funds which they contribute. In fact, the Grand Trunk directorate has reserved to itself entire control of this assurance, although the company contributes only 20 per cent. of the total receipts of the funds for the sick.

Almost all the Grand Trunk employés who appeared before the Commission protested against this compulsory provident society. For the rest, this society is established outside every economic theory.

Out of the number of causes specified in the fourth report of the "Commission of enquiry into provident societies" in England, 1874, as having brought these societies to failure, we find:—

2 The mistaken system, still followed by many societies, of imposing uniform contributions, without regard of the age of the person joining.

That is the system followed by the Grand Trunk. The workmen are not opposed to the provident principle, but they wish a scheme based on something solid, and of which they may have control.

The Grand Trunk Provident Society can live only by the company's subscription. It is neither the work nor the affair of the employés, and it lacks completely that cohesion which we find in societies solidly constituted.

The insurance system followed by the Grand Trunk is very simple, but it is wrong in not being established in such a way as to permit the establishment of a class only when the lower class is complete. Thus, according to the testimony of the secretary of this insurance society (page 121, Que.), the two highest classes—A, \$2,000, and B, \$1,500, do not contain enough of members, so that the sums assured attain a maximum. In the interest of the employés one class ought to issue completely formed from the class immediately below.

The Grand Trunk Company, in consideration of its subscription to the funds for the sick, a subscription purely voluntary, which can vary from 1 cent to infinity, has reserved to itself the absolute control of the funds, and moreover obliges its employés to accept the following clause of the administrative rules of the society:—

11. In consideration of a subscription of the Grand Trunk Railway Company to the funds of the society, no member thereof, or his representatives, shall have any claim against the company for compensation on account of injury or death by accident.

This engagement had force of law in Ontario, and, by inscription in the statutes of that Province, had freed the Grand Trunk from all responsibility in case of death by accident of its employés, without any compensation on the part of the company.

Whether a man is killed by the fault of the company or not his insurance is paid by the employés; the company contributes not one cent to the payment of the insurance, and it is free from all responsibility and from all indemnity, without any compensation. The man killed costs the Grand Trunk less than the man wounded.

The law of Ontario not only sanctioned this iniquity, but declared that it would permit any company or any employer to perpetrate it, who should establish among employés an insurance like that imposed on employés by the Grand Trunk. If the system put in force by the Grand Trunk were universally adopted, companies and employers would be freed from all pecuniary responsibility, without incurring any charge, and men above forty-five years old, who might lose their situations, could not find others, for the simple reason that their age would exclude them from all such assurance societies.

All these systems are unjust, despotic and burdensome to the employés.* Accident insurance is a necessity for workmen. but insurance companies cannot reach them without enormous expenses of commission and collection, increasing considerably the premium; and every practical solution seems impossible without the intervention of the State, and without the creation of

ACCIDENT INSURANCE BY THE GOVERNMENT.

The adversaries of State insurance oppose every project of this nature, alleging that the State should not, under any form whatsoever, enter into competition with private enterprise; and that moreover, the State is always a poor administrator. These reasons are not wanting in force.

But there is an interest which surpasses all others: it is the public interest, and assurance being only an advanced form of saving, the State is as much justified in assuming the direction of it as it is in receiving the savings of the citizens in the Post Office Savings Bank.

Besides, if the State is a poor administrator, it is an excellent controller, and all its part, in the assurance project which we have in view, will be restricted to a simple control.

Accident assurance premiums, quite like life insurance premiums, are increased by the expenses of commission and of direction, which considerably augment their rates.

The movement of premiums and losses for accident insurance, death and indemnity, during the years 1885-86-87, has been:

	Premiums Received.	Losses Paid.
1885.....	\$145,202	\$59,358
1886.....	165,384	80,431
1887.....	194,610	83,318
	<u>\$505,196</u>	<u>\$223,107</u>

or, for three years, the sum of \$282,089 in excess of losses undergone and absorbed by commissions, expenses of management and dividends to shareholders. In fact, the figures of these three last years prove that 45 per cent. of the premiums paid were enough to cover the losses sustained.

It is to render accident insurance easy for all that the State ought to assume the direction of an insurance of this kind, and to suppress the 55 per cent. of excess of premium by taking in its own charge all the expenses of management.

What will be the effect on premiums of Government intervention?

In the absence of all industrial statistics, we will take as a basis the statistics of the census of 1881.

* See also Appendices G and H.

According to these statistics our working population is divided as follows:—

Farming class.....	662,630	
Servant do	74,830	
Learned professions.....	52,974	790,434
		<hr/>
Commercial class.....	107,646	
Industrial class.....	287,296	
*Not classified	205,228	600,170
		<hr/>
		1,390,604
		<hr/>

On the other hand, the total number of deaths by accident has been 1,752.

The number of persons between the ages of eleven and sixty-one years killed by accident in 1881 was 1,019. Accordingly, we will be certainly above the possible maximum of the premium, if we attribute the total of these deaths to the three last classes—that is to say, if we place the total losses upon 44 per cent. of the total number of workmen. In these conditions to pay to the heirs of each of the 1,019 victims a sum of \$1,000 it would have sufficed to levy previously on each workman a premium of less than \$1.70 per year.

In calculating insurance, what is true for a thousand persons is true for the mass, and *vice versa*. We can then say that in 1881 the State could have insured citizens against death by accident at a mean annual premium of \$1.70.

The realization of the project of insurance against death by accident is most easy.

The limit of assurance which a citizen may contract for will be fixed at \$1,000.

Assurance could be either \$500 or \$1,000.

Pass-books, like savings bank books, will be delivered by post offices, and the premiums contributed will be there inscribed, with the date of their payment. They could be made by means of stamps issued by the State, and of which the mode of obliteration will be indicated by the administration.

The State ought to issue two kinds of stamps—one of a fixed value, representing a month's assurance; the other representing the value of an insurance of one, two three, four, five or six working days.†

Those are the conditions, as we understand it, of the assurance management:

A workman would insure for one year for \$500 to pay his heirs in case of death by accident, and for that it would suffice him to make one payment of 85 cents (if we take for basis the calculation above), or to pay either directly to the post office or by the aid of insurance stamps a premium of 8 cents per month.

The employer would have power to assure his workmen for another sum of \$500, and for that it would suffice him to paste in his workman's insurance book one of the stamps representing the insurance premiums of a certain number of days. The pasting and obliteration of this day assurance stamp, are only questions of detail useless to consider at this moment.

In this way the workman will be insured for a fixed sum of \$1,000.

It will be permissible to him to complete his \$1,000 of insurance by stamps, whenever his employer may not be willing to insure him, or whenever he shall be without work.

* Apprentices and laborers are included in those not classified.

† For the clearness of our statement we speak only of one premium, although in practice it will be necessary to establish classes of risks, as in ordinary insurance.

As to employers, it is only just to give them some compensation for the sacrifices they will make, and we are of opinion that every master assuring his workmen ought to be freed from all liability in case of death by accident happening from uncontrollable causes; his liability remaining, meanwhile, complete when the accident is attributable to negligence or to the bad condition of his buildings or machinery.

In this case even the premium of \$500 which would be paid by insurance would be deducted from the amount of damages incurred by the culpable master.

This assurance would not only have for effect to put the family of the victims beyond the reach of want, but also to solve this industrial question, namely: if salaries include or not an insurance premium on professional risks.

The insurance project which we have just set forth covers only the payment, in case of death or of permanent disability, of a certain sum, and does not in any way provide for the payment of a weekly sum in case of temporary

INABILITY TO WORK CAUSED BY ACCIDENT.

The roll of the State in the project which we have just explained is limited to the laying up and payment of fixed sums, established according to absolutely mathematical conclusions. In our opinion the State cannot interfere in the question of paying a weekly indemnity to persons disabled by result of accident.

There is there quite a series of possible frauds which could be prevented only by a costly supervision, entirely outside the ordinary functions of a Government. But the State can still intervene there as a collector. It could every year, for example, ask for tenders from insurance companies for the payment to its policy-holders of an indemnity of so much a week in case of illness resulting from accident. The State would collect always, with the aid of stamps, the premiums, and remit them to the company which would have taken the contract, and the assured, for this part of their assurance, would be submitted to all the conditions and all the varieties of control which companies impose and exercise to-day.*

As to the expenses which the State will have to bear to put this assurance in working order, they would be insignificant compared with the results to be obtained.

They enter, besides, into expenses made under the name of public interest, and their benefits will be open to every citizen. They will be, certainly, smaller and as legitimate as those occasioned by the gratuitous transport by post of 55,000,000 of newspapers.

ANNUITIES FOR OLD AGE.

Is it possible to obtain in the same proportions the concurrence of the State for assurance on ordinary life? We think not. Life assurance is based on the state of health of the person assured; and the State, no more than in the case of insurance against sickness, can exercise, even at great expense, an effectual control against fraud.

It is with regret that we have arrived at this conclusion, for life insurance companies have established their premiums upon such bases that workmen are almost excluded from the benefits which these institutions distribute.

We find the proof of excessive tariff of premiums in the official reports published in the Blue Books. Thus, in 1887, Canadian companies, which take only 60 per cent. of the policies held in Canada, acknowledged a surplus of \$1,621,298 above all liabilities, the sinking fund included. That is to say, since the beginning of their operations the Canadian companies, with a paid-up capital of \$682,002, have realized

* In cases of workmen who belong to benefit societies, the Government may deal with those societies, instead of dealing with insurance companies.

a net profit of \$970,000 in excess of annual dividends, profits absolutely gained by the shareholders, since the sinking fund is sufficient to cover all risks in force.

And since the tariffs of Canadian companies are more advantageous than those of foreign countries, one can imagine the profits realized by these latter. What proves still more the uselessness of raising the tariff of premiums is the distribution made at certain times to the policyholders, under one form or another, in money or in reduction from the premium, of profits realized upon the premiums, and finally the monetary combinations offered during these latter years by some companies, combinations which seem marvellous to those who are not initiated in the mysteries of insurance calculation, and which are justly possible only by the exaggerated rates of the annual premiums. Finally, the expenses of management, and of collection and commissions, amount up to 25 per cent. of the premiums received.

The inflation of the tariffs of premiums is with difficulty borne even by the fortunate assured, since every year we find that a certain number of them have abandoned their payments. These payments, which persons of the better classes meet with difficulty, are, as we understand it, impossible to the working classes.

The State, though not able to interfere in a manner direct and absolute in the solution of this question, can, however, play an important part in it, which we shall indicate when we take up the question of mutual benefit societies.

There is a form of life assurance which the State can control and direct without any risk, and it is that assuring an annuity to the workman and his widow in their old age.

The providing of life annuities by the State for old age is not a new idea. The Government, in this instance, will have no project to study and to formulate. The institution has been in operation in France for thirty-eight years.

During the first years, workmen not having understood the advantages of this retiring allowance profited little by it. But, thanks to the devotion and to the energy of some philanthropists, this annuity system has received numerous adherents during the last twenty-five years, and the number of accounts opened up to the 1st January, 1888, was 10,308,079, having deposited \$118,477,303.†

The annuities paid have been \$48,242,108, and the deposits reimbursed at the death of depositors \$13,803,276.

The idea of the Legislator was to offer to the hard working laborer of the towns and country districts a means of insuring himself, by a light payment from his daily salary, a pension for his old age.

The Government receives and centralizes, with this aim, the smallest savings, and makes them fructify by the accumulation of interest, and the chances of mortality.

No retention or deduction is made for the expenses of management. This institution offers, then, to every man who lives by his wages, the possibility of preparing, under conditions of absolute security and with the greatest possible advantage, rest and independence in his old age. He will thus be certain not to be a burden to his own children, and he will be able, even, if he desires it, by reserving capital for their profit, to join to a legitimate forethought towards himself the satisfaction of leaving them a little sum at his decease.

Besides, if before the time fixed for his enjoyment of it, the depositor finds himself absolutely incapacitated for work, by reason of grave wounds or premature infirmities, regularly proven, he is put in immediate possession, even before fifty years, of a pension proportionate to his age and his payments.

These are the benefits which this institution procures.

Its operation is of the simplest kind. The depositor, after having complied with the necessary formalities, receives a pass-book, in which are entered the sums contributed, as well as a statement showing the amount of the annuity secured at fifty years by each payment.

† From 1860 to 1870, the deposits were on a yearly average \$1,400,000; in 1879, there were \$7,800,000; in 1880, \$11,800,000; and in 1881, \$13,600,000.

These pensions are established on two principles—on a capital alienated, or on a capital reserved. In the former case the annuity is higher, but the capital is lost. In the second the annuity is smaller, but the capital paid returns to the heirs of the depositor at his decease.

It would be easier and, at the same time, more advantageous to accept, up to fifty years, only deposits on a capital reserved. The depositor, except in cases of grave wounds, cannot draw his pension before the age of fifty years. He is then up to that age indifferent about getting his pension increased. On the other hand, he may die before fifty years, and his family would then inherit the sums paid.

On the other hand, the depositor will, at fifty years (when it is more than probable that his children are either grown up, or sufficiently grown to provide for their own needs), have the right of alienating his capital and receiving the highest annuity possible.

The depositor is not forced to take his pension at fifty years. On the contrary, it is to his interest to draw it as late as possible, the increase being much greater after fifty years than before; and if his strength still allows him to work he defers the date of his drawing from year to year. He is, however, obliged to take his pension at sixty-five years.

Payments made during marriage are, except in cases provided for by law, payable half to the husband and half to the wife, who can then pay up to the time when the figure of their pension attains the maximum. Half the annuity ends with the death of one of the parties.

The following figures will give an idea of the advantages which employés in Canada would derive from a similar institution. A young man of twenty years, paying 10 cents a week, would have a right to different annual pensions as follows:

	At 50 yrs.	At 60 yrs.	At 65 yrs.
Reserved capital	\$ 19 25	\$ 47 75	\$ 82 40
Alienated capital	27 65	69 05	123 25
He would have paid	156 00	208 00	234 00

Taking as example one of the most frequent cases which are found—that of a child in whom has been inculcated notions of economy, and who would put in the bank every week 5 cents from fourteen years to twenty years, 10 cents from twenty years to twenty-five years, 25 cents from twenty-five to the age of his retiring,—his pension would be payable as follows:—

	At 50 yrs.	At 60 yrs.	At 65 yrs.
Capital reserved.....	\$ 51 12	\$ 110 62	\$ 190 16
Capital alienated.....	63 27	164 85	287 19
He would have paid.....	366 60	496 60	561 60

But it may happen that at fifty years a man quite capable of earning his bread could not, however, earn enough to continue his payments. In that case it is permissible to him to cease his payments, keeping back, at the same time, the day when he will receive his allowance, which will naturally be a little lower than the figures above.

But if the assured dies, what, it will be said, will become of his widow?

Let us take, for example, the last case of assurance, and suppose that the man assured, having married at twenty-five years, dies at forty. He will have paid to that time \$236.60, and as the investments will have been made on capital reserved, the widow will receive \$236.60, or if she prefers it she can take the part belonging to her husband, say \$139.10, and keep for herself an investment for retiring of \$97.50.

The results obtained by accumulation of capitals placed at compound interest and increased by the chances of mortality are remarkable. We will give some examples drawn from tables of the French Caisse de Retraite, calculated at a rate of 4 per cent., and according to the mortality table of Deparcieux:—

ANNUAL Pensions Produced by Saving Commenced at Eighteen Years.

	Capital Alienated.		Capital Reserved.	
	At 60 yrs.	At 65 yrs.	At 60 yrs.	At 65 yrs.
Paying 1 cent a day, \$3.65 a year, one would have a pension of....	\$81 76	\$148 00	\$60 00	\$106 55
Paying 2 cents a day, say \$7.30 a year, one would have a pension of.	163 50	296 00	120 00	213 00

In a household, if one wished to make the pension be drawn at the same time, that is to say, at sixty-five years for the husband and sixty years for the wife, keeping an account of the probable difference of age, one would have: for payments of 2 cents a day, 1 cent for the husband and 1 cent for the wife, a retiring allowance of alienated capital, \$229.60, and reserved capital, \$167.80. For payments of 4 cents, 2 cents for the husband and 2 cents for the wife, a pension of capital alienated, \$459.40, and capital reserved, \$331.60.

Payments of 2 cents per day from eighteen years, continued up to the pension, would give the following results:—

	Sums paid.	Capital Reserved.	Capital Alienated.
At 60 years.....	\$306 60	\$127 40	\$163 40
61 do	313 90	142 20	182 80
62 do	321 20	159 20	205 00
63 do	328 50	178 80	230 80
64 do	335 80	201 80	261 08
65 do	343 10	228 60	295 80

Pensions will be

It will be said, perhaps, that a workingman cannot always economize 2 cents per day. That is unfortunately possible; but what is equally possible is to live as well with 98 cents a day as with \$1.

The workman whose average salary is \$1 a day can, with a little energy, assure himself in old age a retiring allowance almost equal to his salary, and leave his heirs—widow, children or grandchildren—a sum exceeding a year of his salary.

People will advance, also, that the depositor who dies before receiving his pension loses the compound interest of his payments. That is true; but how many working men permit their deposits to accumulate? How many workmen, having put every year \$7.30 in bank—and they are numerous—have to-day from \$127 to \$228 annual revenue and a paid up life insurance of \$306 to \$343?

This annuity system thus constituted is susceptible of numerous combinations.

To gather up all those little sums which go in smoke, and which, put together, would form fortunes—the 25 or 50 cents which are given so liberally to children on New Year's Day; the prizes which are given to pupils; the presents which we make to children and to apprentices; the gratuities which we give to workmen for extra time or on holidays.

Thus, last year there were given in prizes in the Schools of Paris, whether by the city or by private individuals, 2,000 certificates of \$5, representing together \$12,000 annual pensions, and constituting an annuity of nearly \$10 for a child of ten years and one of \$5.20 for a young man of twenty years. (Night Schools.)

A child of six years, who, up to the age of twelve years, would have every year gained a certificate of \$2, would leave school having \$20 assured of pension at fifty-five years or \$29 at sixty years.

Gifts of \$2 at New Year to apprentices of twelve to sixteen years assured them a pension of nearly \$16, or a retiring allowance of about \$45 for a child who had received \$2 a year from six to sixteen years.

Finally, as Mr. Paul Matrat, a most distinguished economist, writes:—

“In order to make all the power of time felt in saving for a retiring allowance, I will state that a single sum of \$20 placed upon the head of a child of three years, earliest age at which payments can be made, assures him for fifty, fifty-five, sixty or sixty-five years an annual pension of \$29.80, \$46.60 and

\$76.60, and even of \$136, or resources corresponding to an actual normal revenue of from \$2,000 to \$3,000." "*La caisse de retraite de l'Etat et les sociétés de secours mutuels.*"—Paul Matrat—Page 15.

And all these sums given can constitute pensions in perpetuity; for, placed on reserved capital, they will return to the donees at the death of the beneficiary. Thus the certificates given at schools would be the property of the school, and would return to the school, to be distributed anew at the death of the titular, were it even in seventy years.

Many good actions can be accomplished without great sacrifices by this annuity system. A workman, becoming wealthy, can abandon his pension during his life to a companion or to a relation in need, reserving to his heirs the return of the capital.

An employer wishing to recompense an old servant places in his name a sum which will return to his heirs, but of which the accumulated annuities will be used by his servant.

Numerous employers have availed of this institution to ameliorate the lot of their workmen and to assure them an old age beyond want. The mining company of Anzin, for example, to encourage saving among its workmen, engaged to pay and does pay on deposit of its workmen a sum equal to that paid by them up to the amount of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on salaries. In a word, a workman who places in the "Caisse de Retraite" $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of his salary receives from the company an equal contribution—say, a saving placed out of 3 per cent. of his salary.

The moral influence of this institution is considerable. Children who have made deposits have only one aim, one desire—to augment their deposit. Many cents and five cents have been deposited which would have taken another road without the certificates of the "Caisse de Retraite," and many children have acquired habits of economy to which they afterwards owed their future.

Speaking of the future, we will say that in numerous workshops they make once or twice a year "*the day of the future*," of which the product is entirely paid to the "Caisse de Retraite."

That which it is very well to draw attention to; is the absolute control outside of the withdrawal, which the depositor has over his deposit.

He can place it on reserved capital or alienated, and make the change when he likes; he can take his retiring allowance when he likes, starting from fifty years; he can reserve part of his deposit and alienate the rest; he can bequeath his capital as he desires. Payments are never lost and are always gained for him, even though he interrupts his payments. He can pay 20 cents or \$800 in the year. In a word, his money is his own—always his in full liberty.

The only thing which he cannot do is to withdraw his deposits. This irrevocability of deposits is a safeguard, and a sacred one, against the most irremediable misery, that which comes when strength is exhausted.

These results, wonderful as they appear to be, are due to saving, and above all to constant saving, no matter how small it be.

Unfortunately for workmen, they meet on the road which they traverse twice a day more taverns than savings banks, and it is more easy for them to spend five cents for a glass of beer or of ginger ale than to walk a mile to find a savings bank.

What it is necessary to do in order to increase savings of laboring men is to render economy easy, and able to be realized at all moments of the day, and to resolve this question we see only

SAVING BY STAMP.

To realize this idea it will suffice for the State to distribute cards, on which can be pasted special stamps of different values, called savings stamps. Whenever the holder of this card may wish to make a deposit he will carry his card of stamps to the Post Office Savings Bank, and the clerk, after having cancelled the stamps, will post the sum which they represent on the pass book of the depositor.

These savings stamps must be sold without expense to the State. Few employers

will refuse to keep them on hand in order that the workman on pay day may, if he desire, profit by the means of economizing 25 or 50 cents at the very moment when he receives his money—that is to say, at the moment when economy is easiest. Members of temperance societies will certainly see to it that the number of stamp deposits will be as large as possible.

School savings banks, established on the basis indicated by Mr. L. W. Sicotte in his testimony (pages 600 and 601, Que.), would have certainly for result to inculcate in children habits of economy, putting them at the same time in possession of capital which, however modest it might be, would have a great influence on the future of the little depositors.

But this State aid, far from doing injury to

MUTUAL BENEFIT SOCIETIES

can only strengthen them. Assurance against accidents, deposits in the "*Caisse de Retraite*" can be made by these societies, and many of them granting benefits of this kind may modify their regulations, so as to be able to profit largely by these Government institutions.

Mutual benefit societies can do much for the moral and material amelioration of workmen. In England and France they have as great an influence on the condition of workmen as trades unions have.

In these two countries these societies count millions of members, and their funds amount to considerable sums. Their success is due to a major cause: they are under the control of the State.

Saving is difficult for a workman, and when he has once undergone a loss he distrusts every society, and puts his money in bank, renouncing thus all the benefits of societies.

It is to remedy this state of things that in England, as in France, mutual benefit societies must get their regulations approved and their accounts audited by the Government. Numerous witnesses have pronounced in favor of this control for Canadian societies, a control which, according to them, has been promised by the authorities (pages 136, 216, 644, 813, Ont.).

But that ought not to limit the part of the State. It ought to do whatever these societies, especially the feeble ones, cannot do: it ought to study all these questions of mutual benefits, funds for the sick, workmen's insurance—in a word, it ought to prepare projects, combinations permitting the workingman to insure himself against sickness and death, and to do it under the most advantageous conditions.

Mutual benefit societies are too often founded on erroneous principles. Assessment by month is the same for all ages, and, the charges increasing with the time, it follows from this that the institutions so established are fatally called to disappear, to the great detriment of the members. The only English societies which have been able to maintain themselves and to prosper are those which have adopted entrance fees and assessments based upon the tables of mortality and of sickness of ordinary insurance.

All the projects which have just been set forth are of easy realization, and that without increasing the workingmen's expenses, if we can lighten them somewhat of the excessive charge which they have to pay under form of rent, and often of municipal tax.

WORKINGMEN'S DWELLINGS.

The question of rent, the increase of which has been almost continual during these last years, and has exceeded what laboring men have gained in increase of wages, will be settled only when workmen shall become owners.

It is undeniable that workmen are badly lodged, in houses badly built, unhealthy, and rented at exorbitant prices. To procure for the laboring man means of acquiring a property without increasing his expenses is a problem most easy of solution.

Insurance companies have always money to lend. The funds must be lent on good security.

Investments at from 5 to 6 per cent. on first mortgages will always be taken by insurance companies.

Why could not insurance companies build cottages for workmen? The construction of these dwellings by companies, rich and able to get work good of its kind and well finished cheaply, would cost less than houses badly built, constructed by small owners. Let us suppose that one of these cottages is built by the company at \$1,200.

The company would sell these houses to workmen, who could give them a certain sum cash down, say \$200. This sum would serve as a guarantee, and would be a proof of the saving habits of the buyer. The company would keep a first mortgage of \$1,000 on the house, and the buyer would take besides a life insurance policy, payable to himself in fifteen or twenty years.

What will be the charges upon the buyer during these twenty years, supposing him to be thirty years old?

\$1,000 at 5 per cent.....	\$ 50 00
Taxes and repairs, 3 per cent. on \$1,200.....	36 00
Assurance, endowment, twenty years annual premium, with participation *.....	43 19

Total..... \$129 19

The twentieth year, that is to say at fifty years, time when work is least remunerative, the workman will receive his insurance of \$1,000, with which he will pay for his house, and during these twenty years he will scarcely have paid, including taxes and repairs, more than a rent of \$10.75 a month—about 10 per cent. of the cost of the house, a rate below ordinary rents.

If he dies before the twenty years are up his family will pay for the house with the policy which is due. If it happens that he is not able to continue his payments the insurance company will give him a paid-up policy for the sums contributed, which he will be able to discount or receive at fifty years, just as for ordinary policies, and he will have been cheaply lodged. In these combinations the workingman can lose nothing and has everything to gain, as also the lender has. We have calculated the interest on the mortgage at 5 per cent., and we believe that it is sufficient. This investment is perfectly safe; and, moreover, the insurance company will have clients who will not cost it any commission. The premium paid will bring its own benefit; the mortgage is but an investment.

Here is an honorable and lucrative speculation. Who will commence it?

If any company, if any association will not commence this work, why should not municipalities commence it?

Montreal, Toronto and many other cities have lent and given money to railways. Other places gave bonuses to manufacturers who came to settle within their limits, or to those whose factories were burned. (Page 1313, Que.) Towns, in a word, protect and aid capital. Why should they not protect and aid labor? and that with so much the more reason as, hitherto, capital has never restored what it has borrowed from cities, while in the present case cities would be perfectly guaranteed.

MUNICIPAL TAXES.

At this date according to the testimony received by the Commission, municipalities, instead of protecting their workmen, seem to have established their taxes in

* Premiums of La Canadienne, \$43.19; Canada Life, \$43.20." The risk classification of insurance companies will not alter the above premiums, as governmental assurance against accident will cover the extra risks of each trade. On the contrary, insurance companies may lower their premiums in consideration of this accident insurance, or may issue special policies, covering only natural death, and providing that in case of death by accident the heirs of the insured man shall be entitled to the return of the premiums, under the same terms as in the case of surrendered policies.

such a fashion as to strike, in preference, the contributors least wealthy. This complaint is almost general, and seems unfortunately justified. It has been impossible for us to study all the municipal budgets, and we have limited the search for proof to the budget of the city of Montreal, which is more familiar to us. (*See testimony: assessment, water rates, taxations, carters*).

We have thought it a duty to make this research to verify the complaints which have been brought before the Commission (pages 86, 88, 219, 263, 472, 528, 545, Que., 25 to 28, Ont.), and we have, as regards Montreal, recapitulated our enquiries in the following tables:—

TABLE I.

Real Estate valuations and Taxes imposed at Montreal, from 1876 to 1886.

	M.—Montreal.	H.—Hochelaga.	S. J. B.—St. Jean Baptiste.	
Years.	Real Estate Valuations.	Real Estate Taxes.	Business Taxes	Water Taxes.
	\$	\$	\$	\$
1876.....	81,208,215	974,498	209,304	397,055
1877.....	78,401,131	940,813	201,521	395,762
1878.....	71,302,394	853,945	165,778	376,859
1879.....	65,595,606	785,808	156,964	360,210
1880.....	64,514,401	774,172	154,520	353,420
1881.....	65,978,930	791,747	160,954	372,137
1882.....	67,846,670	812,776	172,713	389,622
1883.....	69,800,013	837,600	184,005	413,201
1884 M.....	71,177,502	854,130	189,909	437,237
1884 H.....	1,825,985	18,783	1,626	6,547
	73,003,487	872,913	191,535	443,784
1885 M.....	72,490,538	869,886	191,777	443,421
1885 H.....	1,768,975	18,238	2,358	7,527
	74,259,514	878,124	194,135	450,948
1886 M.....	74,309,637	891,715	198,631	459,356
1886 H.....	1,816,525	18,706	2,630	8,440
1886 S. J. B.....	1,665,865	17,059	1,694	1,795
	77,792,027	927,480	202,955	469,591

TABLE II.

Assessments of Rents and of Water Tax at Montreal in 1876 and 1886.

RESIDENCES, 1876.

Rents.	Houses Inhabited.	Houses Vacant.	Water Rate.	Rental Value.
			\$	\$
\$ 30 to \$ 90.....	16,575	694	114,034	887,250
100 to 190	4,561	206	59,683	584,420
200 to 290.....	1,625	50	29,468	331,490
300 to 490.....	1,217	38	32,200	368,640
500 and over.....	598	25	28,737	360,310
Total.....	24,576	1,013	264,122	2,532,110

1886.

\$ 30 to \$ 90.....	21,063	119	140,164	1,092,180
100 to 190.....	5,983	39	66,503	625,900
200 to 290.....	1,799	19	33,944	385,920
300 to 490.....	1,358	1	37,425	449,170
500 and over.....	529	1	26,380	317,990
Total.....	30,732	179	304,416	2,881,160

STORES, ETC., 1876.

\$ 50 to \$ 100.....	1,553	119	8,754	135,250
120 to 200.....	1,051	100	9,907	190,125
225 to 500.....	1,053	89	17,778	387,350
525 to 1,000.....	527	57	16,543	384,375
1,035 to 3,000.....	290	11	19,574	474,300
3,200 and over.....	45	3	11,589	285,117
Total.....	4,519	379	84,145	1,856,517

1886.

\$ 50 to \$ 100.....	3,021	42	15,210	227,200
120 to 200	1,454	30	12,538	239,250
225 to 500.....	1,404	16	21,821	474,525
525 to 1,000.....	528	16	17,051	399,075
1,035 to 3,000.....	256	16,931	411,475
3,200 and over.....	42	11,427	283,575
Total.....	6,705	104	94,978	2,035,100

HOTELS.

1876	Number.		
1886	271	6,872	63,300
	420	12,180	113,400

TABLE II—*Concluded.**

The water rate, and the rental value on which it is based, have then varied as follows from 1876 to 1886:—

1876.	Water Rate.	Tenant Value.
	\$	\$
Residences.....	264,122	2,532,110
Stores.....	84,145	1,856,517
Hotels.....	6,872	63,300
	355,139	4,451,927
	1886.	
Residences.....	304,416	2,881,160
Stores.....	94,978	2,035,100
Hotels.....	12,180	113,400
	411,574	5,029,660
To deduct water rates and tenant value of Hochelaga.....	7,428	100,000
	404,146	4,929,660

Recapitulating these tables, we will find that the property assessments of Montreal and the taxes which accrue from them have been as follows:—

	1876.	1886.	Diminution.	Increase.
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Real estate valuation.....	81,208,215	74,309,637	6,898,578
Rental valuation.....	4,451,927	4,929,600	477,773
Real estate taxes.....	974,498	891,715	82,783
Business taxes.....	209,304	198,631	10,673
Water rate.....	355,139	404,146	49,007

Proprietors paid \$82,723 less property taxes, therefore, in 1886 than in 1876. Merchants paid \$10,673 less business tax and personal taxes in 1886 than in 1876. Tenants alone paid in 1886 \$49,007 more water tax than in 1876.

And to arrive at these strange results it was necessary that the assessments of the city of Montreal were made in such a fashion as to establish that while the value of property had fallen in ten years by \$6,898,578—in spite of 3,600 buildings constructed during that period—the rental had risen by \$477,733.

What is above all remarkable in these assessments is that it appears that only the small rents have increased in number and in value while the large rents remained stationary, or even diminished.

The tables of pages 219, 220, 221, Que., will give the explanation of these assessments, so contrary to the interests of workingmen. It will be seen there that in six years the property valuation of one house did not vary, while the valuation of its produce, of its rent, increased by 32 per cent, and that while the landlord paid always the same property tax of \$108 for his real estate his tenants had their water rate increased from \$91 to \$109.50.

Finally, we must note this fact, which can alone explain these results—that is, that of the fifteen tenants living in this property thirteen saw their rental assessments

* This table is made according to the official valuations of the City of Montreal. The reason of the difference between the total amount of the water taxes in tables I and II, is due to the fact that table I gives only the water taxes according to the amount of the rent, whilst table I gives the total amount of the water taxes including the special taxes imposed on water-closets, horses, &c.

raised; while two lodgings only, one of them occupied by the landlord himself, remained during six years at the same assessment.

These facts are so much the more significant because, according to the evidence (pages 265, 266, Que.), it is established that the Central Trades and Labor Council of Montreal had, in 1886, petitioned the city council to make an enquiry on the assessment of water tax, and that the council rejected this petition.

It has been proved that the city has always made the sub-tenants pay the whole water rate, while they really should have paid only a third of it (page 528, Que.). The sub-tenants in Montreal, where people like to have houses of their own, however small they may be, form a class which, less than any other, has the means of paying high taxes, and which, less than any other, has time and means to get injustice redressed.

It is also proved (pages 88, 472 and 473, Que.), that, in spite of complaints and of petitions addressed to the city council by the tenants, this system of municipal exaction is continued.

If, nevertheless, there is a tax of which the levying should be made at Montreal with care, it is the water rate. They cut off the water from the tenants who do not pay for it, and they sell their furniture, even, for the value of the water which they have not received.

If a charitable neighbor gives them a bucket of water the neighbor is liable to a fine of \$20 or a month in prison.

When the non-payment of a tax can entail ruin, and almost death by thirst, of the person liable who does not pay it, the least that the person liable can demand is that this tax be established on a just and equitable basis.

This question of water rate is one of the most important, as much from the standpoint of its distribution as from a sanitary standpoint. In no city is it so badly levied as in Montreal. At Montreal the tenants only pay the tax based upon a fanciful valuation of consumption. The landlords pay nothing, and profit gratuitously by all the advantages which the aqueduct assures to their real estate in case of fire. The watering of the streets, public fountains, the immense works executed for protection against fire, the expenses necessitated by the placing of pipes along gardens and vacant lots, have been paid and are maintained by the tenants and, it is regrettable to add, this is paid for the most part by tenants the least wealthy.

To resume, we recommend:—

1st. The establishment by the State of accident assurance.

2nd. The establishment by the State of an annuity system for old age.

3rd. The supervision by the State of mutual benefit and provident societies, etc. These societies will have, nevertheless, as in England, the power of demanding or not this supervision.

4th. The study by the State of mutual benefit questions, of help in sickness, of workmen's insurance, etc., and the publication of tables of mortality and of sickness, based on Canadian statistics.

5th. The intervention of the State, in the absence of any society due to private initiative, in the building of workmen's houses, an intervention which can be made in the form of a redeemable subsidy; in a word, that the State—whether it is called Federal Government, or provincial or municipal—should aid in the construction of model dwellings for workmen, as up to this day it has aided the building of railways, the laying out of model farms, and even of factories belonging to private citizens.

6th. That a study be made of the distribution of municipal taxes, and that tenants may be eligible to be elected to municipal councils, in order that the interests of the tenant class may be represented and protected.

JULES HELBRONNER.

APPENDIX D.

REPORT OF G. BOIVIN ON THE FOLLOWING QUESTION.

Q.—Does the use of machinery cheapen production?

Yes. The greater part of the machinery in use has the effect of reducing the cost of production, of doing work better and more regularly. For example, the shoe-pegging machine will do vastly more work than a man can do, and will do it not only more cheaply but better. In a very few cases the cost of production by machinery is greater than by hand, but the rapidity of operation and superior quality of the work done warrant the additional expense.

Improved machinery and tools are the best friends of the working people, as well as of consumers. When steam machine printing presses were first introduced the pressmen believed they would be thrown out of employment. Yet printing operations, as now carried on, would be impossible without the use of machinery, and ten compositors, stereotypers, paper-makers, and other artisans, are employed where only one would find work under the old system. And so it is in many other lines of business. In most cases, if machinery were to be put aside and work done by hand it would be found impossible to meet the demand. People would be compelled to return to simpler modes of life and to dispense with many comforts and luxuries they now enjoy. The change would amount to a general calamity.

Machinery has another great advantage—that of doing the hard part of the work; and if it takes no more space than one person, and does four times as much work, it will save 75 per cent. of the room required, and so cause cheaper production.

If agricultural work were to be done as in former times it would not be possible to produce enough food for all the people, and prices would be very high.

No doubt, new inventions and further improvements will be made, and production be still further cheapened.

Q.—Has the use of machinery lowered wages?

It would be very difficult to make an exhaustive study of this matter; and I doubt that it would be possible to give a positive answer to the above question supported by clear proof.

However, it is a fact that if there were no machinery for wood-work an architect would put less decoration on a house, a furniture manufacturer would put less ornament on his furniture, and so on with other trades. Thus, the work would not be so elaborate as at present.

It may be remarked that, whether wages are or are not higher than they would be if machinery had not been introduced, it is certain that the cost of living has been greatly lessened by the use of machinery, so that the purchasing power of a day's wages is greater than ever before in the world's history.

I find, on looking over the census report for 1881, that a large number of workmen are employed in building machinery and tools of every kind, the numbers being 17,950 males, producing work valued at \$20,665,364, and employing \$16,014,186 of capital. If machinery were not in use these hands would be engaged in some other form of production.

APPENDIX E.

CHILD AND FEMALE LABOR.

At the time the Commission visited Ontario the law of that Province provided that boys under twelve and girls under fourteen years of age should not be employed in factories, and the Education Act of the same Province provided that children between the ages of seven and thirteen must attend school at least one hundred days in each year. In Quebec the Factory Act is substantially identical with that of Ontario, but at the time the Commission visited the Province it had not been enforced.

In New Brunswick and Nova Scotia there are no restrictions upon the employment of children in factories. In Nova Scotia the employment in mines of boys below ten years of age is not permitted, and boys between ten and twelve years of age may not be employed more than sixty hours in one week. The boys under twelve years are employed as trappers—that is, in opening and closing doors for the passage of coal cars—and this is not laborious work. Still, your Commission cannot approve of a system which permits the continuous employment of such young children, even if it could be shown that their bodily health will not suffer injury. It is very certain that children removed from schools at the age of ten cannot acquire education sufficient to fit them for the duties of life in a civilized community. The testimony taken in other Provinces disclosed a most regrettable state of affairs. Many children of tender age, some of them not more than nine years old, were employed in cotton, glass, tobacco and cigar factories, and in other places. At one place in Ontario children, certainly less than eleven years of age, were employed around dangerous machinery. Some of them worked from six o'clock in the morning till six in the evening, with less than an hour for dinner, others worked from seven in the evening till six in the morning. At Montreal boys were employed all night in the glass works. In the cotton factories the ordinary hours of labor were from 6:30 a. m. till noon, and from 12:45 till 6:15 p. m.—this for five days in the week. On Saturday the mills close at noon. Sometimes the afternoon work is continued till 7:15, without stopping for supper, and less frequently the machinery is in continuous operation from 12:45 till 9 p. m., making eight and a-quarter hours of uninterrupted work, though it is in evidence that operatives are permitted to take a little lunch while the machinery is in motion.

The testimony respecting children employed in cigar and tobacco factories was of a very painful nature. Boys and girls, not more than ten years of age, were found in these places in considerable numbers, and some witnesses not older than fourteen had finished their apprenticeship at cigar-making and were working as journeymen. The evil in these instances was accentuated by the evident fact that the tobacco had stunted the growth of the witnesses and poisoned their blood. They were undersized, sallow and listless, wholly without the bright vivacity and rosy hue of health which should animate and adorn children.

While we cannot undertake to say where the responsibility for these evils rests, whether the duty of wholly removing them falls upon the Dominion or upon the Provincial Legislature, we think the laws should be uniform throughout the Dominion; and we are firmly persuaded that the continuous employment of children under fourteen years of age should be forbidden. Such prohibition we believe essential to proper physical development and the securing of an ordinary education. Further, medical testimony proves conclusively that girls, when approaching womanhood cannot be employed at severe or long-continued work without serious danger to their health, and the evil effects may follow them throughout their lives.

The employment of children is one of the most important subjects which can commend themselves to the attention of legislative bodies.

J. ALFRED CLARK.

APPENDIX F.

HOURS OF LABOR.

The rule for mechanics and others having regular employment in Canada is that ten hours constitute the working day; but there are many exceptions to this rule. In Ontario the exceptions are, almost invariably, in the direction of shorter hours; in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick ten hours are seldom exceeded; in the Province of Quebec much evidence of long-continued labor came before the Commission. This is to be the more deplored in cases where children, especially very young children, are employed. At some cotton mills, in which children not exceeding nine years of age are employed, the work is frequently continuous from 6:30 in the morning till noon, and from 12:45 till 7:30 in the afternoon, making thirteen hours of work, with only one intermission of three-quarters of an hour, and having an uninterrupted stretch of nearly seven hours. On rare occasions the machinery is kept in operation from 12:45 p.m. till 9 o'clock, without stopping, although some opportunity is given the operatives to snatch a bite of supper. In nearly all cities throughout the Dominion conductors and drivers on street railway cars are required to work very long hours. Some of them are employed from 6 o'clock in the morning till 10 o'clock at night, though they are actually on the cars not more than twelve hours in a day. The best retail shops of dry goods merchants in all cities are open only from 8 o'clock a.m. till 6 o'clock p.m.; but in many others the hours are very long, both for clerks and for other employes. At some shops in Montreal the clerks are employed from 5:30 a.m. till 10 or even 11 o'clock at night. Dressmakers and milliners are kept, during busy seasons, till even later hours. In October, November and December they are, in some places, kept at work from 8 in the morning till midnight, and on Saturday nights till far into the hours of Sunday morning. Children in the millinery rooms are at work from 6 in the morning till 9 at night, with brief intervals for meals. While it is very much to be regretted that attention must be called to these discreditable facts, there are many instances in which the hours of labor have been shortened. In a number of trades nine hours constitute a working day; and such change as can be observed is in the direction of shorter hours. Many employers give their hands an hour or two on Saturday, and not a few close on Saturday at noon.

It is very evident that the substitution of machine work for hand labor greatly increases production. The beneficial results are: a greater supply of necessaries, comforts and luxuries; a lowering of prices, and a shortening of the hours of labor.

Almost the universal opinion among workingmen is, that the shortening of the hours of labor benefits working people, and it cannot be doubted that good use will be made of leisure time wrung from the working day. At all events, the patriarchal age has passed away, and however weighty other arguments in favor of long hours may be, it cannot be conceived to be the duty of either Legislatures or employers to prolong the hours of toil lest operatives should fail to make proper use of their leisure moments.

It will not do to make the bald assertion that a man can accomplish more in a short day than in a long day; but the opinion of the most intelligent witnesses examined was that the man whose daily task is easily within his strength will accomplish more in a series of years than he whose energies are overtaken by excessive hours or severe toil. Many witnesses were firmly persuaded that the over-wearied laborer is more inclined to seek renewal of energy in in-oxicating liquor than the man who quits work before his energies are exhausted.

It is unnecessary to direct special attention to every instance of long hours of labor brought before the Commission; but reference may be made to illustrative cases. Firemen in Montreal are compelled to remain on duty almost without relief. Each man receives permission to absent himself from the engine-house only once a week, and then he may be absent only four hours. Surely the necessities of the department are not so great as to compel a man to separate himself from his family for 164 out of each 168 hours.

Longshoremen at Montreal are sometimes kept at continuous work for periods almost beyond belief. It is the practice to keep one gang of men at work until the unloading of a vessel is completed. One witness had worked thirty-five hours at a stretch, stopping only for meals; one had worked forty hours, and another had worked two stretches of thirty hours each in one week. It is in evidence that these cases are not at all unusual. It must not be forgotten that the labor of longshoremen is very severe, and that the work is pushed with all possible expedition.

Coal shovelers are also sometimes kept employed for excessively long periods. One witness who testified had been on duty for thirty-six hours. Out of these, he had taken time for meals, leaving thirty hours of actual occupation at very laborious work.

Particular attention may be called to the experience of a firm of tobacco manufacturers at Hamilton in shortening hours of work. They first made a reduction from ten hours to nine and a-half, and then to nine hours per day. They found that there was no reduction of output; and the experience has proved profitable to the employers as well as to the employés.

On this subject some valuable information will be found in a paper by Charles Grad, a Deputy in the German Reichstag, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for November, 1887, page 132. M. Grad says: "According to the testimony of the president of the Corporation of Miners in Germany, the workmen in mines attained their maximum production with eight hours of effective work. A temporary prolongation in autumn, for example, increased the output during three or four weeks; after this period the production returned to its normal measure, remaining the same for ten hours of occupation as for the period of eight hours. The proprietor of the glass-works of Gerresheim, near Dusseldorf, M. Heye, having reduced from ten and eleven hours to eight hours the work of his men, there was soon produced as much in the shortened day as in the longer day. In the textile industry the manufacturers who have reduced the day of work from twelve to eleven hours in times of crisis, so as not to increase too much their stocks of manufactured goods, have attained in a short time the same production in eleven hours as in twelve. In Alsace we discover similar facts, and we find others in the industrial monographs of Plener, of Knorr and of Brentano. After the passing of the English Factory Act the day of work for children from eight to thirteen years was reduced to six hours and a-half; while boys from thirteen to eighteen, and women occupied in these manufactures, were forbidden to work more than twelve hours. Employers and workmen are in full accord, and have agreed to reduce the hours of effective labor to ten—less than the maximum authorized in English territory. Better still, I have observed at Manchester—the humid climate of the district assisting it is true—in the cotton industry, a production greater in quantity with fifty-six hours per week than at Mulhouse with seventy-two hours, on the same machines. In many industrial centres the workmen have more than one league to go from their homes to the factories. Intelligent employers, capable and desirous of giving an exact account of the conditions of work in their factories, recognize that the productivity of their hands does not increase in proportion to the duration of work, when this period is prolonged beyond measure."

A. T. FREED.

APPENDIX G.

THE EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT.

In studying the operations of this Act the most particular matter regarding it is the close affinity it appears to have to relief associations of one kind and another, and more singular still is it that in England where it originated, a great many had thrown off their allegiance to it almost before they knew anything of its nature. It is also singular that the different States of Europe, though not having an Act the same as ours in the letter, still have the spirit of it permeating all their laws upon the subject of labor, and it is also remarkable that relief associations have been taken up by many of these instead of the law.

ENGLAND.

Although England has taken the first step towards placing on record a practical Act on the liability of employers to their employés, and setting forth the right of employés to demand compensation in case of accident, and although the working of the Act has been deemed successful in the main, yet many have clamored about some of its provisions. As yet we have nothing to supersede it.

On account of the fault-finding that arose, and willing that any faults which were apparent in the Act might be remedied, a special commission was appointed to investigate the matter, to take evidence and make every effort to get at the true state of things, in order that any existing evils might be remedied.

This commission was formed on the 16th of March, 1886, and continued its sittings from time to time and reported up the Bill on the 11th June, 1886, without amendment.

The following petitions against the Bill were referred to the committee:—

1. The employés of the London, Brighton and South Coast Railway Company.
2. Steamship Owners' Association.
3. Association of Trade Protection Societies.
4. Employés of London and North-Western Railway Company.
5. Householders and Ratepayers of London.
6. Clyde Ship-builders and Engineers' Association.
7. Nottingham and Midland Merchants and Traders' Association.

A special committee, to whom the Employers' Liability Act was referred, reported the same without amendment.

That committee was composed as follows:—

Sir Thomas Brassey, Chairman.

Sir Richard Webster
Mr. Bradlaugh,
Mr. Ainslie,
Sir Joseph Pease,
Capt. Verny,
Mr. Tomlinson,
Mr. Forwood.

Mr. Arthur O'Connor,
Sir Edward Reed,
Mr. Kingley,
Col. Blundell,
Mr. Sutherland,
Mr. Nolan.

Dated the 11th June, 1886.

As no Act was ever perfect, this one was no exception. The Act, at first, was hailed with joy, and a new order of things was established. It may be that too much was expected from it, for in a short time complaints began to be made that employers were slow in carrying out obligations imposed on them by the law when accidents occurred, and offers were made by employers that if the men gave up their right of action under the law employers, if a proper association was formed, would subscribe liberally towards it, and that these funds would always be available for the settlement of all claims preferred to meet all cases of accident. The employers prevailed, and a permanent relief association was formed, in which the men had the controlling power, as it was managed by a committee of workmen, and the employer had the right to be present at their annual meetings, either by himself or his agent. This association works very well, as all legitimate claims are promptly met; a better feeling exists between the employers and their workmen, and as a consequence the employers subscribe freely. The amount for which they are liable is 25 per cent., but many of them pay a great deal more.

Conditions of Permanent Relief Association:—

1. Payment by the masters for the proportion of accidents for which they are liable.
2. The payments by the men to provide for the accidents which they ought to hold themselves liable for.
3. The payments by both masters and men for accidents for which neither scientific nor practical men can account.

Whilst these societies are effectively working in some districts, the Liability Act is still successfully being carried out in others.

The tables of those Associations are very interesting, but as it is not necessary to quote them here.

It is a fact worthy of note that accidents of a serious nature, under the present order of things, are not as frequent as they were before.

The following Circular was addressed by Lord Roseberry to Her Majesty's representatives at Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Rome, Brussels, the Hague, Berne, Stockholm and Washington. The answers are those given by the Ambassador to France:—

“FOREIGN OFFICE, 30th March, 1886.

“MY LORD (OR SIR)—Questions relating to the liability of employers to compensate workmen injured in their service, are likely again to come before Parliament, and I have therefore to request a report on the state of the law upon this subject.

“I am anxious that the report should give a full account of the provisions of the existing law, and should state whether or not it depends upon special legislation; if so, to what extent, and since what time that legislation has been in force, and should notice any intended or probable alterations.”

“The following are points of particular importance:—

“Q. Is the employer limited to any particular classes of employment or classes of workmen, and if so, to what classes? A. There are no classes among workmen.

“Q. In what cases does the fact that an injury arose from the act of a fellow workman relieve the employer from liability? A. The responsibility of employer is never absolutely relieved.

“Q. Does it make any difference if the fellow-workman was in authority over the workman injured, or in a position of authority in the employer's business generally? A. It makes no difference if the injured workman was under authority of a fellow-workman or in a position of superior authority.

“Q. Is there any difference between the employer's responsibility for the condition of machinery, plant and permanent appliances of the work and for specific acts or defaults of workmen? A. Responsibility of employer is the same, whether by machinery or the acts or defaults of workmen accidents are caused.

“Q. Is the workman injured required, as a condition of being entitled to compensation from the employer, to give any notice of the facts, or of his claim? A. It is

not a condition that he should. If the employer makes no offer he is summoned before a judge, and he fixes the sum.

"Q. Are employers and workmen allowed to contract themselves out of the whole or any part of the provisions of the law on the subject? A. Either are allowed to make such contracts, as they please; but the judge can annul such contracts if they are prejudicial to either party.

"Q. Generally, is the right to compensation treated as arising out of the contract between the employer and the workmen, or as independent of it? A. The right of compensation exists in virtue of the law.

"Q. How far does a system of insurance by workmen themselves against accident prevail, compulsory or otherwise? A. It is to be regretted that the system of insurance by workmen themselves does not prevail, or is not general, in France. There are some.

"Q. In what proportion do employers and employed, respectively, contribute, voluntarily or otherwise, to insurance funds? A. No fixed sums. It varies from 1 per cent. to 5 per cent. The employers yearly set aside a sum as a subvention to the workmen's insurance fund.

"Q. To what extent do the employers reduce their liability by contributing to the insurance funds? A. The employer cannot reduce his responsibility for any fixed sum. He may be proceeded against for the balance.

"Q. Is the liability of ship-owners for injuries suffered by sailors in their employment governed by the general law of the liability of employers? A. Responsibility same as other employers, subject to the common law.

"Q. If special legal provisions exist in the case of shipping, what are the provisions? A. No special provisions for responsibility of employers.

"Q. Is the shipowners' liability limited to French sailors, or does it extend to those of other nationalities in his employment? A. Responsibility the same for the sailors of all nationalities."

Responsibility of employers has long existed, for it is provided in the codes of all civilized nations that whoever, by imprudence or negligence, causes injury to other persons, through himself or by or through his agents or employés, is responsible in all codes of civil and criminal procedure, and must make compensation for the same. Such compensation should not be treated as arising out of any contract between employer and employed, but rather as a right of a public character, arising out of a natural obligation of the employer to compensate workmen injured in his service.

Accidents divide themselves into four classes :—

1. Those caused by defective machinery, or by acts which attach liability to the employer.
2. Those caused or contributed to by the workman himself.
3. Those which were brought about by his fellow-workmen, and which are of such a nature as to render the master liable.
4. The mysterious, inscrutable, terrible disasters, the discovery of whose cause baffles human ingenuity, and which are described as the act of God.

It is decided by jurists that even with the extension of the law brought about by the Employers' Liability Act the workman must continue to make provision himself against the accidents included in these classes, and the only way in which he can do that is by entering into an arrangement with his fellow-workmen on some basis of insurance.

To the good will this arrangement has engendered, hundreds of widows and orphans are indebted for their daily bread—not the bread of charity, but of a clear-headed appreciation of the dangers which men must every day run in following their daily avocations, particularly those engaged in mining, on railways or wherever machinery is used.

Although so many benefit societies have been formed, and although so many have received benefit and relief from them, yet your Commission consider it a dangerous principle to establish, that in order to obtain benefit from any benefit society you should be obliged to ignore the law of the land, particularly a law such as the Employers' Liability Act, which had been declared by the special committee who examined it in all its bearings to be a law that was a benefit to the working man, and at the same time inflicted no injustice upon the employer.

It may be possible that from all the correspondence from the different courts of Europe that a more perfect law may be provided—a law, if possible, that will meet the requirements of the age.

FRANCE.

In this country all questions of liability are regulated by the common law.

The law in cases of this kind is formulated in the following articles of the Civil Code:—

1. Any action whatever of a man, which causes injury to another, obliges the person by whose fault the injury occurred to repair it.
2. Every person is responsible for the injury he has caused, not only by his action, but by his negligence and imprudence.
3. A man is responsible not only for the injury he has caused by his own action, but also for that which is caused by the action of those for whom he is responsible, or of things in his charge.

This law is founded upon the Napoleonic Code, which dates from 1804, and, as will be seen, is what most of the laws of European nations are founded upon.

The great drawback of this law is the delay and expense in settling claims, but this fault is found in almost every case where the law is called upon for settlement. However, a law was passed 22nd January, 1851, which gives parties in indigence redress in a shorter time, and furnishes counsel gratis, and all steps of legal procedure free of charge.

The French Parliament adopted, in the month of May, 1888, a "Law concerning the responsibility for Accidents of which workmen are victims in their work," based upon the principle of the employers absolute responsibility, a consequence following on what has been called professional risks.

One of the speakers on the side of the law thus defines professional risks:—

"For to-day what is of importance to me is that we are in presence of a state of fact which commands imperatively a new legislation; the workingman, by the very necessities of his work, is exposed to constant chances inevitable from accidents; the employer, no matter what may be his forethought, cannot hinder these accidents from happening more or less frequently.

"Behold the fact, there is the point of natural departure in the discussion. What conclusions must be drawn from it?"

"It is that the workingman, without calling in question the culpability of anyone, is in face of a continual risk, inherent, in fact, even in industry and in the normal conditions of work.

"This is the risk which people have called professional risk.

"What, then, is the professional risk? It is a risk inherent in the very fact of the industrial profession, and what is the consequence of this principle once laid down? It is that while such a risk exists it creates for him who is exposed to it a right to an indemnity when he is the victim of it."

The whole law is summed up, as far as its spirit, in Article 1:—

Article 1. Every accident, which has occurred in their work, to workmen and employers, gives a right to profit to victim or his heirs by an indemnity, of which the importance and nature are determined below.

Those only are admitted up to the present to benefit by this disposition, workmen or employés occupied on account of the State, of departments of communes, or of public establishments, in mills, factories, manufactures, dock-yards, or public works transport, loading and unloading, public stores, mines, mining, quarries, underground work, and besides—1. In every labor in which explosives are produced or used. 2. In every work industrial, farm, or forest, in which use is made of machinery or steam engines or any other machine worked by an elementary force.

The indemnity is at the cost of the chief of the enterprise, whatever may have been the cause of the accident.

Nevertheless, no indemnity will be due to the victim who may have acted with a criminal intent.

The indemnities accorded by the law are:—

1st. In case of permanent, absolute incapacity to work, an annual pension, which cannot be lower than a third of the victim's salary, nor higher than two-thirds. In any case it cannot be less than \$80 a year for men and \$50 for woman. Temporary incapacity for work entails reduced pensions.

2nd. In case of death—1st. Twenty times the daily salary of the victim, on account of funeral expenses. 2nd. A yearly income from the profits to the heirs, setting out from the day of decease.

A. For the widow, up to her death or up to her contracting a new marriage, a yearly income equal to 20 per cent. of the mean annual salary.

B. For the children, the yearly income varies from 15 to 50 per cent. of the salary, according to the number and condition of the children, the annual income is payable only up to fourteen years completed.

If it is the mother who is killed, the husband, if there are children less than fourteen years, receives an indemnity equal to two years' salary.

C. During the continuation of illness caused by accident the employer must pay the costs of doctor and medicines, and an indemnity equal to half the wages; the maximum of this indemnity is 50 cents a day, and the minimum 20 cents.

Employers can free themselves from obligations regarding sickness, whether by forming private savings banks for help or by affiliating their workmen at their own expense to mutual banks of help, guaranteeing the indemnities provided by law.

Employers can also form among themselves syndicates, with the effect of constituting mutual assurance against the risks provided for by the present law.

They can equally assure themselves against these risks at the State "Caisse d'assurance" against accidents, by means of a premium, which varies from \$1.20 to \$4.80 per \$200 of salary according to the classification of the industries.

For the women the premium is reduced by 20 per cent. and a reduction of 25 per cent. upon premiums is moreover accorded to manufacturers who will furnish a certificate, delivered by a State engineer, declaring that they have taken all the measures recognized as proper to prevent accidents.

If the accident entails the penal condemnation of the employer the victim or his heirs have then a right, but in this case only, to an indemnity, to be fixed by the courts.

GERMANY.

The law of 6th July, 1884, which has been in force since 1st October, 1885, imposes on the employer the obligations:—

1. To compensate workmen injured in his service.
2. To pay pensions to widows of workmen killed in his service.
3. To maintain the children of workmen killed in his service until they have reached a specified age.

And as to responsibility for accidents, there is no difference between the liability of employers for the condition of machinery, plant and permanent appliances of the work, and their liability for specific acts of their workmen.

The effect of the passage of this law has been that employers, for their own protection and in order to spread their risks over as large an area as possible, have been grouped together in trade associations.

The different groups are formed by those having equal risks, those owning mines forming one, those having factories another, and so on.

The rules of these trade associations must be sanctioned by the Government.

The funds are raised yearly from all employers within their respective districts in proportion to the wages paid by each employer.

Employers contribute 90 per cent. and men contribute 10 per cent.

Some employers pay the whole premium.

This has worked, so far, successfully, and men say they are better satisfied to pay 10 per cent. and have their claims settled without any difficulty than have any litigation with their employers, as it, in most cases, engenders bad feeling.

The greatest harmony now prevails, and accidents are of less frequent occurrence, as the employers and foremen are more careful than ever. But the men say they may thank the Act for the change. Compensation for injuries in all cases of accident is paid out of the funds of the trade association, but whatever amount is paid out must be made good by the employer or firm in which the disaster occurred.

There are sixty-two of these trade unions throughout Germany at the present time.

ITALY.

A law was passed 9th May, 1883, relating to liability of employers to compensate workmen injured in their service, and provides that owners, engineers, architects of mines, railways, buildings, &c., are primarily responsible for damages to the persons or health of their workmen, occasioned by all kinds of accidents, unless caused through the sole negligence of the workman, by pure misadventure or by unavoidable circumstances.

The law of April, 1886, goes farther, and includes contractors and workers on railways, the owners of rural or suburban districts, in which new work or repairs are made, and the contractors or workers of the same. The owners or workers of mines, quarries or foundries, and the engineers and architects who direct the work, are always materially responsible (and through them the employers) for injury to the bodies or health of their workmen, caused by accidents on the railroads, by the total or partial destruction of buildings, by earth-slips, excavations, explosions or any similar misfortune, unless caused as stated above.

The Workman's National Insurance provides as follows—this is the principal one in the country:—

1. In case of death of person injured no less than seven times the yearly wages, if the workman leaves parents, and a wife with three or not less than three children.
2. Six times the yearly wages if he leaves a family, as above, of three or less than three children, and no parents.
3. Five times the yearly wages if he leaves a wife, with more than three children under age, or only more than three children.
4. Four times the yearly wages if he leaves three or less than three with or without a wife.
5. Three times the yearly wages if he only leaves a wife, without children, and parents.
6. Twice the yearly wages if he leaves only a wife without children or parents.

AUSTRIA.

The common law is particularly the one under which all claims to accidents are adjudicated upon, and the employer is only held responsible when he is personally the cause. In case of accident through his agent or employé he is only held responsible when it can be proved he has not taken proper care in the selection of such person, and often gets clear on a plea of error of judgment. As the common law is often both dilatory and expensive, it is not resorted to very much.

In 1883 Austria was divided into districts, each under an inspector, whose duty it is to see that employers adopt proper precautions for protection of life and limb, as well as the health of their employés.

In most districts of Austria insurance companies prevail, and, with few exceptions, the premiums were borne by employers alone. The benefit arising from these insurances are as follows: if a workman is injured he receives 60 per cent. of his annual wages; if only partially incapacitated he receives 50 per cent. In case of death his widow receives 20 per cent., each legitimate child 15 per cent., or if the child is entirely an orphan 20 per cent.; each illegitimate child 10 per cent., but the total percentage must not be more than 50 per cent., no matter how large the family may be.

In case the accident was intentionally incurred there is nothing, unless in case of death; then one-third is given to his heirs. Every workman is understood to belong to or be insured in this scheme, and none are allowed to contract outside of it, unless with the consent of the communal authorities. Provisions are made by law for enforcing the conditions of these societies, and also on the heads of industrial establishments, to which various fines and penalties are attached.

A special law was passed on 5th March, 1869, in relation to railways, and in case of accidents holds the employer liable for compensation, unless he can show that the injury was caused by neglect.

SWITZERLAND.

In this country there is a Factory Act, dated 23rd March, 1877, which has established the principle of the liability of employers of labor in the sense of that Act. The law consists of sixteen articles, of which five only relate to liability.

Following are the answers to the points of particular importance;

Q. Is the employer's liability limited to any particular class of employment or class of workmen, and if so, what classes? A. Yes; the liability is limited to those classes that are subject to the provisions of the Factory Act of 23rd March, 1877.

Article 1st says: Every industrial establishment is considered a factory, and as such subject to the provisions of the present law, where a number of workpeople are occupied regularly and at the same time inclosed rooms outside their own dwelling.

Q. In what cases does the fact that an injury arose from the act of a fellow-workman relieve the employer? A. In no case.

Q. Does it make any difference if the fellow-workman was in authority over the workman injured or in a position of authority generally in the employer's business? A. It makes no difference whatever.

A commission chosen to report and to amend the law relating to the liability of employers accepted, 13th May, 1886, the following five propositions, submitted by Monsieur Droz, Federal Councillor:—

1. Extension of the liability to a number of other dangerous industries.
2. Obligation of employer to give notice to the authorities in case of accident.
3. Obligation for the employer to give such notice, also, in case of compromise with workmen.
4. Right of intervention on the part of the Government for the purpose of protecting the interests of workmen, if the compensation arising out of a compromise is deemed insufficient.
5. Gratuitous advice to impecunious workmen, or their heirs, in case of accident.

BELGIUM.

The common law is the only one by which damages in case of accident can be recovered, and is founded on the Civil Code, the same as the law in France. Insurance societies prevail and are largely patronized, but their conditions are not given.

NETHERLANDS.

The same as France—common law, founded on the Civil Code. There is one special law, however, in relation to liability of employers in the matter of their workmen, that in case of intentional or unpremeditated homicide, the wife, the children or the parents, have a legal claim for a compensation, which shall be estimated according to the status and means of both parties. In the case of mutilating or wounding, either intentional or premeditated, it confers upon the wounded person the right of compensation.

LIABILITY ACT IN ONTARIO.

In the Province of Ontario an Act entitled, "Workingmen's Compensation for Injuries Act" was passed, and is now in full force. The evidence bearing upon its effects so far as collected is not very extensive; but so far it is shown to be effective in its results.

On page 74 of the Ontario evidence, *in re* employers' liability, Archibald Blue, Assistant Commissioner of Agriculture and Secretary of the Bureau of Industry, says:—

"The accidents caused for which claims are made under this Act are of the nature shown in my report, page 62, and are attributed to the practice of putting young boys without experience and men of little or no former training to the running or working of dangerous machines. In many instances these machines are not properly guarded, also for want of proper care in the matter of gearing machines. Hatches, hoists and elevators come under the same category. A great many young men come from the country, and think because they have had something to do with running agricultural machines, they have sufficient experience to warrant their undertaking the running and setting up of the more complicated machines in factories, moulding and planing mills, machine shops and others. The result is that serious accidents often occur."

Frederick Nichols, Secretary Canadian Manufacturing Association, page 181:—

"Q. Do you know anything about Ontario Employer's Liability Act? Is it satisfactory? A. If a man is injured his remedy is at hand. The employers think it a step in the right direction in affording them increased protection, because they are insuring their men at their own expense—I mean at the expense of the employers.

"Q. Would the employers exact an agreement from their men that they should have no claim against them? A. Certainly not.

"Q. Take the case of railway accidents? A. The company is liable.

"Q. Take the case of machinery turning out defective? A. That would have to go to the courts.

"Q. In the case of the Grand Trunk? A. The Grand Trunk were exempt from the Act because they had a benefit insurance."

Thomas Webb (page 269) complains of the negligence of employers in the erection of proper scaffolding, and frequent accidents and loss of life from such neglect.

Conductor, Grand Trunk Railway (pages 513 to 519), complains that the employes cannot take advantage of the Act on account of exemption of Grand Trunk Railway from its provisions by the Ontario Government. He also complains about danger of couplings, running-boards, bell-cords, and being obliged to sign contracts outside of Act, on the plea of being secured by insurance, to which the men are obliged to contribute, and that the company are sole managers, and that men will not be taken upon permanent staff or get promotion unless they sign such contract.

Conductor, Michigan Central Railway. (*See* evidence, pages 525 to 575).

C. A. Passmore, painter, decorator, &c., London (page 684): "I consider the Liability Act is a great benefit both to employers and employes. It makes them more careful, particularly in matter of scaffolding.

James Stevenson, moulder, Hamilton (page 797), regards the Ontario Liability

Act as a benefit, but would like a Dominion Act of a similar nature. He objects to children working at the trade, as it is too laborious for them, many of them being under fourteen years of age, and thinks this very wrong.

The importation of children into this country is wrong: 1st. Some of them are treated no better than slaves. 2nd. There are plenty of children of our own, and we often experience difficulty in placing them.

Thomas Towers, Hamilton (page 870), handed in a declaration, Knights of Labor, which see in evidence.

The quotations made will give a fair outline of how the Employers' Liability Act is thought of in its operation.

UNITED STATES.

In answer to the circular of Lord Roseberry, addressed to the Government of this country as late as 1886, it was stated that no Liability Act was in force; that the common law was the only law, and that it holds the employer liable to his employé in case of accident only in two instances, viz. :—

1. When he has directly interfered in the act which caused the injury.
2. When, by his negligence or otherwise, he has employed incompetent workmen.

In some cases tried this proved to be only an error of judgment, and the employer got clear of any responsibility.

However, many of the States of the Union had Acts passed before this time, some of which enunciated a forward position with regard to liability of employers for compensation to employés for accidents happening in their employ.

For the past half century a great many changes have been made in the laws bearing upon the liability of employers to their employés. Notably is this the case in England and United States. The result of these changes in England from time to time culminated in the passing of the Employer's Liability Act of 1880. (*See Statute*).

In 1841 it was decided in the case of *Murray vs. South Carolina Railway Company* that they were not liable to one servant injured through the negligence of another servant. This decision elicited a great deal of comment, and in the case of *Farwell vs. Boston and Worcester Railroad Company* the same decision was made, and was followed in nearly every jurisdiction, both State and Federal.

Statutes have been passed, however, by several States, with the special purpose of modifying or abolishing the doctrine of common employment.

In Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Wisconsin, Montana and Wyoming the Legislatures have guarded the employés of railroad corporations from the common law rule of non-liability. In England, Alabama and Massachusetts the statutory changes have been more extensive, and are confined to no special class of workmen.

The provisions of the present Code of Georgia, as amended in 1856, relating to employers' liability, are the following :—

"Section 2083. Railroad companies are common carriers, and liable as such. As such companies have many employés who possibly cannot control those who should exercise care and diligence in the running of trains, such companies shall be liable to such employés as to passengers, for injuries arising from the want of such care and diligence."

Section 3036 says: "If the person injured is himself an employé of the (railroad) company, and the damage was caused by another employé, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to recovery."

Section 2202 says: "The principal is not liable to one agent for injuries arising from the negligence or misconduct of other agents about the same business."

The next State to alter the law was Iowa, and the new legislation was incorporated into the Code of 1880, where it now stands in the following form, in Vol. I and Section 1307 :—

"Every corporation operating a railway shall be liable for all damages sustained by any person, including employes of such corporation, in consequence of the neglect of agents, or by any mismanagement of the engineers or other employes of the corporation, and in consequence of the wilful wrongs, whether of commission or omission, of such agents, engineers or other employes, when such wrongs are in any manner connected with the use and operation of any railway on or about which they shall be employed, and no contract which restricts such liability shall be legal or binding."

In Kansas the first attempts to modify the law was made in 1874, by the passage of an Act, which Act was incorporated into the Civil Code, and now reads as follows:—

"Every railroad company organized or doing business in this State shall be liable for all damages done to any employe of such company in consequence of any negligence of its agents, or by any mismanagement of its engineers or other employes, to any person sustaining such damage." (Compiled laws of Kansas, 1885, Section 5204).

This law was assailed as unconstitutional, but when the case of *Missouri Pacific Railway Company vs. Haley* was brought to test its validity, not only was the Act declared constitutional, but a contract in contravention of it has been held void. (*Kansas Railway Company vs. Percy* 29 Ks. 169).

Wisconsin, up to 1875, held on by the common law rule of employers' liability.

In that year a statute (Laws of 1875, chap. 173) was passed, making railway companies liable for injury to servants.

Wisconsin presents the curious example of a State which had attempted to change the doctrine of common employment by statutory provisions, and then abandoning the attempt went back to the old doctrine. The above statute was repealed in 1880, and to-day the common law rule has no restrictions placed upon it by legislation.

The next step in the history of legislation is an important one. The hardness of the rule of non-liability of employers increased rather than diminished by the constant accumulation of decisions, and led to an extensive agitation of the question in England, in which the workingmen's association took a prominent part. In 1877 the attention of Parliament was called to the subject, but it was not till 1880 that the *Employer's Liability Act* was finally passed (43 and 44 Vic., chap. 42).

Alabama was the first of the American States to follow the example of Great Britain in passing an *Employers' Liability Act*. On 12th February, 1885, the Legislature passed an Act entitled, "An Act to define the Liabilities of Employers of Workmen for injuries received by the workman while in the service of the Employer."

This Act was elaborated somewhat for the new Code of 1887, where it now stands as follows (section 2590): "When a personal injury is received by a servant or employe in the service or business of the master or employer, the master or employer is liable to answer in damages to such servant or employe, as if he were a stranger, and not engaged in such service or employment in the cases following:—

"1. When the injury is caused by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the business of the master or employer.

"2. When the injury is caused by reason of the negligence of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, who has any superintendence entrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence.

"3. When such injury is caused by the negligence of any one in the service or employment of the master or employer, to whose orders or directions the servant or employe at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, if such injuries resulted from his having so conformed.

"4. When such injury is caused by reason of the act or omission of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, done or made in obedience to the rules, and regulations, or by-laws of the master or employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the master or employer in that behalf.

"5. When such injury is caused by reason of the negligence of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive, engine, switch, car or train upon a railway, or any part of the track of a railway."

Massachusetts, after an agitation of several years, passed an Employers' Liability Act in 1887. It resembles in its provisions the Acts of Alabama and Great Britain, but goes still further than the other State, and is in the nature of the English Act, in making restriction as regards the amount of compensation in case of death or disability.

There is one of the clauses, however, that relates to employers letting sub-contracts, that is of special interest. It is as follows: "An employer is made liable to employes of a contractor or sub-contractor injured by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant, if they are the property of the employer or furnished by him, and if such defect arose or had not been discovered or remedied, through the negligence of the employer or of some person entrusted by him with the duty of seeing that they were in proper condition." There is also another clause, where it goes farther than either Alabama or Great Britain, and which will prevent private contracts from virtually repealing the statutory provisions. It provided that no person or corporation shall, by a special contract with persons in his or its employ, exempt himself or itself from any liability which he or it might otherwise be under to such persons for injuries suffered by them in their employment, and which result from the employer's own negligence, or from the negligence of other persons in his or its employ.

The many and great alterations in the laws of all civilized countries have tended to place the relations of employers and employes upon an equitable basis, for we have the authority of that great political economist, Sir Thomas Brassey, who was chairman of the Select Committee appointed by the Imperial Government to enquire into and report upon the working of the Employers' Liability Act of 1880, for saying that while it benefited the workingman it did no injustice to the employer.

Indeed, it seems but a question of time when the old harshness of the law in regard to the employes will be done away with. The tendency of the American law is to interpret the doctrine of common employment more liberally in their favor. Great Britain and Massachusetts, jurisdictions in which their rights were restricted, have modified the law to their advantage. Below these surface indications is the trend of public opinion, not supporting capital at the expense of labor, nor labor at the expense of capital, but favoring a more equitable distribution of the responsibility which must fall upon the one or the other whenever labor is injured in the employ of capital. Calmly reviewing the great and beneficial change that has taken place of late years in the relation of labor to capital, particularly in the direction of liability of employers to compensate workmen injured in their service, it seems but the outcome of the advance of civilization. It appears to have advanced as education has progressed. The workmen of to-day have taken advantage of the opportunity which education offers in fitting themselves for a higher sphere, both in the workshop and in the social and economic progress of the State, and are therefore entitled to be relieved from the barbarous exactions of former times. The employers themselves must acknowledge this truth, for both in the press and on the platform of to-day we find workingmen filling creditable positions, and in the discussion of practical and economic questions they are the peers of those whom circumstances have made their masters.

NOTE.—But the master or employer is not held liable under this section if the servant or employé know of the defect or negligence causing the injury, and did not report it to the master, employer or agent in proper time to have it remedied, so as to avoid any accident. This proviso is very far reaching in its provisions.

Although the Liability Act of Great Britain in 1880 was a great practical advance in legislation, still we find its scope amplified by other countries.

We would, therefore, urge upon the authorities of this great Dominion, this Canada of ours, that whatever is wanting in the way of legislation to bring us into the front rank should be seen to at once, and if any existing laws are capable of greater amplification in the general interest we feel that the Government of this country has both the will and the power perform the service.

Legislation, to be useful, must be effective in its results, and in order to be effective it must have for its aim the interest of those for whose benefit it was brought into existence; but it must also be of such a nature as not to inflict injustice upon any.

These considerations were brought very forcibly before your Commission in the collection of evidence necessary to understand intelligently the position of labor in this country in its relation to capital.

If any Act is passed for the welfare of the working classes, although comprehensive in its provisions, yet if it is not fully carried out, it is inoperative, and is an injustice to those whose condition it aimed at remedying.

1st. We refer to the Employers' Liability Act.

2nd. Then we have the Factory Acts, which are also inoperative, because not fully carried out—therefore an injury; for again and again we have seen where their provisions were either set at defiance or disregarded altogether.

In the first case we find powerful corporations making their employes sign contracts binding them in such way as to prevent them resorting to the provisions of the law in case of accidents, or their representatives in case of death or disability, on the plea of securing them by an insurance scheme of their own, and over which they (the employers) have the controlling power, which scheme is mostly supported by the contributions of their employes.

In the other case we find children of tender age wearing away their young lives for a mere pittance in cotton factories, in tobacco factories, in the manufacture of cigars, and in various other unhealthy employments, that are not calculated to benefit them either socially, morally, physically or even pecuniarily; whose growth is so stunted from impure air that, even if they survive to reach the age of puberty, their progeny in the next generation must be a tax upon the State, and not the stalwart, robust race which our climate, as well as our opportunities, is so calculated to bring forth.

Both the Acts mentioned have been passed in the general interest, for although they are supposed to be in the particular interest of those who are bound to labor, you cannot benefit the laborer or workman without benefiting the employer; for the workman, when he finds himself under no disability, has double the vim and energy, and is able to perform his work with credit to himself and with benefit to his employer. The general feeling prevails that if these Acts were under Federal, instead of Provincial Governments the provisions would be more beneficially carried out. In claiming special Acts for the protection of laboring classes, the employer too often thinks that only the interest of the employe is sought. This is an error, for when the employe is safe the employer is protected also. A great deal has been said about legislation of a special nature ruining employers. There is little fear of that, for employes know that whatever injures capital also injures labor. A great fear is that as human nature is generally selfish, considerations of a pecuniary nature will cause the hiring of inexperienced hands, particularly the younger ones. Whilst in making laws the interest of all should be kept in view, you may depend that however stringent or however favorable they may be in the interest of the workingman, in all cases the capitalists will protect themselves. The interests at stake demand that all should bear their own responsibilities. Let capital bear its share and let labor bear its share, and let us, above all things, join together to see if we cannot devise some means to lessen the loss of life, with the misery and heart-breaking it entails upon so many families; and let us try our best to comfort the sufferers in their misfortunes.

MICHAEL WALSH.

APPENDIX H.

UNJUST LAWS.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT OF THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO.

When the regulations of a factory are unjust, workmen have a very simple remedy, by withdrawing themselves from it—that is by not going to work there; but when these rules, which are unjust, are converted into laws by Legislatures, workmen are forced to submit to them and to undergo all this injustice.

We have already given our opinion, in speaking of insurance against accidents upon "The Act to assure in certain cases compensation to Workmen" (chap. 141, Consolidated Statutes of the Province of Ontario), but we think it a duty to return to this question, to expose all the unfairness of this law existing at the time the Commission held its investigation, so as to prevent its adoption in other Provinces.

This law, without being perfect, would offer, nevertheless, important guarantees to workmen, if its 16th section (the last) did not in certain cases, completely nullify the law:—

SECTION 16.

"Sec. 16.—Whereas certain railway companies, some of which carry on operations, partly within the Province and partly without, have in accordance with the provisions of certain acts of the Parliament of Canada, established insurance and provident societies or associations to provide and secure, in case of sickness, accident, or death, aid to such of the employes of the companies as are members of such societies or associations; and whereas it is desirable that nothing in this Act contained should have the effect of impairing the advantages derivable from any such association, or of making its operation less beneficial to the workmen employed by such companies; and whereas, with a view to enactment of any safe and proper provisions which may be necessary in the premises, it is desirable that time should be afforded for further and more complete enquiry in that behalf; therefore, it is hereby enacted that, where any railway company or employer has, in accordance with the provisions of an Act of the Parliament of Canada, or otherwise, established an insurance and provident society or association, of which at least two-thirds of the employes of said company or employer shall have become members, and which society or association shall provide for its members aid in case of sickness, accident, or death to at least the extent and amount provided and secured in that respect by the insurance and provident society or association now established by the Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada, in accordance with the provisions of certain Acts of the Parliament of Canada, then and in every such case this Act shall not until after the 1st day of April, 1888, apply to any such railway company or employer.

Provided, however, that notwithstanding anything in this section contained, this Act shall be held to apply to every such railway company and employer in respect of any personal injury caused to a workman by reason of any of the matters mentioned in section four of this Act, and in respect of any action for the recovery of compensation for any such last mentioned injury.

Provided, moreover, that notwithstanding anything in this section contained, this Act shall be held to apply to every railway company and employer in respect of any personal injury, within the meaning of this Act, caused to a workman who is not a member of the insurance and provident society or association so established by the company or employer, as aforesaid, and in respect of any action for recovery of compensation for any such last mentioned injury."—(49 Vic., chap. 28, sec. 17; 50 Vic., chap. 22, secs. 1, 2.)

Thus, every manufacturer and every company having compelled their workmen to form themselves into provident and assurance associations will be exempt from all responsibility in case of death or of wounds resulting from accident.

What has this law, in return, exacted from those employers who establish insurance and provident societies to relieve them from the responsibilities imposed upon other manufacturers?

We have only found in this direction paragraph 2, section 12, of the Grand Trunk Railway Assurance and Provident Society. (Pamphlet produced by Mr. Hy. B. Moore, Secretary Treasurer. Page 120, Que.) :—

"Section 12, paragraph 2—The Grand Trunk Railway Company will each half year contribute out of the revenues of the company a sum in aid of the sick benefits and allowances of the society, and in consideration thereof these rules, and all alterations which may be made in them, shall be subject to the approval of the Directors of the Grand Trunk Railway Company."

A sum! What sum? The Grand Trunk pays actually \$10,000 (page 113, Que.) If the company paid 10 cents it would be equally relieved of all responsibility, for it would be strictly within the limits indicated by the law.

The Grand Trunk Company has not certainly abused the elasticity of the law, but what the Grand Trunk does not another company can do.

This Ontario law delivered up defenceless the employés of the most dangerous industries to all the consequences of accidents which can befall them.

This law does not indicate the proportion of payment which the employer should make in exchange for the immunity which the law gives him, and they have not even taken the trouble to indicate on what conditions and what plan these compulsory assurance societies should be established.

Let us suppose, for example, a saw mill employing twenty-four workmen. According to law, if the employer forms a provident association with sixteen of his men, he will be completely sheltered from all responsibility in a pecuniary way in case of accident. Does any one think that these sixteen men would be able to meet, with their monthly assessments, the amount required in the case of the first accident which should strike one of them?

If, on the contrary, these sixteen men form part of an association containing great numbers of members they will be certain to receive their indemnity in case of misfortune.

Paragraph 2 of section 12 of the rules of this Grand Trunk Provident Society shows that the company subscribes only to the sick funds, and does not contribute in any way at all to the sum paid to those assured in case of death. And despite this the Ontario law exempts from all pecuniary responsibility the Grand Trunk Company when one of its employés is killed, and with it, all the manufacturers, companies or individuals who may follow its example.

We have said that the last section of this law of Ontario (section 16) annuls the law completely. It does more than annul it; it has fixed at a ridiculously low amount the sum which unfortunate, disabled employés can receive from employers in whose service they have been injured when these employers have established among their workmen an insurance society.

In effect the maximum of indemnity which the law grants is fixed as follows by section 6, chapter 141:—

"Section 6.—The amount of compensation recoverable under this Act shall not exceed such sum as may be found to be equivalent to the estimated earnings during the three years preceding the injury of a person in the same grade employed during those years in the like employment within this Province, and such compensation shall not be subject to any deduction or abatement by reason or on account or in respect of any matter or thing whatsoever, save such as is specially provided for in section nine of this Act." (49 Vic., c 28, s. 6).

According to this section Ontario courts can grant to the brakeman of a freight train, victim of an accident involving complete incapacity to work, an indemnity of \$1,440; to a conductor, \$3,000; to an engineer from \$3,600 to \$5,040, if those employés belong to the Canadian Pacific, to the Michigan Central or to any other railway company; but if they belong to the Grand Trunk Company the victim would be deprived of the right of appealing to the courts, and would have to conform to the rules of the Grand Trunk Provident Society.

According to the testimony of the secretary of this society (page 122, Que.) these victims would have had the right to \$3 during twenty-six weeks and to a sum of \$100, or in all \$178, of which \$140.40 would be paid by the employés and \$37.60 by the company.*

*The half assurance paid sometimes to victims of accidents is paid by an assessment on the employés. (Par. 3, sec. 5, of the rules).

If the victims whom we have cited as examples had been killed, or died of their wounds, their heirs would be able to get from the Ontario courts judgment against the companies for sums ranging from \$1,400 to \$5,000. But if the victim was in the service of the Grand Trunk his heirs have no right to any indemnity, for we cannot consider as an indemnity a sum due in virtue of a premium paid by the man assured. If, even, we consider this assurance as an indemnity, it never goes beyond from \$250 to \$1,200.

If, to make use of the expression of the superintendent of the Michigan Central Railway (St. Thomas section), this railway kills one of its employés (page 557, Ont.) the company pays all the funeral expenses. "We do not ask," adds the superintendent, "the widow and the children of that employé to pay off those expenses."

The Ontario law has not even imposed these expenses on the Grand Trunk Company. When the family of the man killed is too poor to provide for them the provident society advances the necessary funds and deducts them from the amount of assurance. (Section 14 of the rules of administration of the society).

Clause 16 of this "Act to assure in certain cases a compensation to workmen" threatens the interests of workmen in the gravest manner.

The Grand Trunk Company obliges its employés to be members of this provident and assurance society. It does not wish to shoulder the responsibilities from which it can, without expense, legally free itself.

But one cannot enter into this society without having passed the medical examination, and one must be not more than forty-five years old.

Should this insurance system become general in the Province of Ontario, men subject to one of these numerous illnesses not incapacitating them from work, but making them ineligible for assurance, would be reduced to enforced idleness.

As to men of forty-five, they would be bound to remain with their then employer; for if they quitted him they could not enter any other shop, not being eligible for any other employer's assurances.

Such are the actual results and the probable consequences of section 16 of the law of the Province of Ontario, so called, "to assure in certain cases a compensation to workmen."

This section, on the contrary, deprives them of the just compensations to which they would have a right in certain cases.

We do not believe that, since Legislatures have taken up the labor question, provisions so unjust, so threatening to the interests of the workmen, have been adopted.

What profoundly astonishes us is that labor societies of Ontario have not appealed to public opinion and have not protested energetically against this iniquitous legislation.

Railway employés, more than any other class of workmen, ought to be protected by associations which have assumed the mission of watching over the general interests of labor.

These employés are under the control of powerful administrations, able easily to impose on them their own behests. The very nature of their work, and the absolute impossibility in which they are of finding work without a certificate, renders them, numerous though they are absolutely helpless to protect themselves.

The Commission did not arrive at the truth without guaranteeing to the witnesses that their names would not be published. Their depositions have been confirmed by the officers of the company.

The Commission's enquiry would have been certainly more complete on this question but for the incomprehensible boycotting which the Trades and Labor Council of Toronto had decreed without reason against the Commission, or for reasons which have not been revealed to this day. (*See Mr. Parr's letter*).

It was necessary to give this explanation, in order that the workmen of the Province of Ontario may know that if the work of the Commission has not been as complete in some places as in others they have only themselves to blame and some

members of the Trades and Labor Council of Toronto, who have done everything in their power to hamper the work of the Commission.

Section 16 of the "Act to assure compensation in certain cases to workmen" of the Province of Ontario is bad. We believe, even, that it is tainted with illegality, for it seems to us impossible that a Legislature has the power to take away from a citizen, or his heirs, the guarantees which are accorded to him, without giving him the least compensation in return.

MASTERS AND SERVANTS ACT.

In the Provinces of Ontario, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia there is no Act concerning the fulfilment of engagements entered into between employers and their workmen. The only Acts of this nature existing in these Provinces apply only to the relations between masters and apprentices. *

The very existence of these Acts is a source of wonder, as almost all the witnesses, employers as well as workmen, were unanimous in declaring that apprenticeship, as understood a quarter of a century ago, did not exist any longer—as in our days, to speak the truth, there are no more apprentices. The Acts regulating, in the three Provinces which we have just mentioned, the relations between masters and apprentices are all enacted from the same standpoint—that is, they permit the penalty of imprisonment to be imposed on the apprentice who breaks his contract, although they do not impose any penalty, not even a fine, on the employer who neglects or maltreats his apprentice.

In the Province of Quebec there is a Masters and Servants Act applicable to the whole Province outside of towns, cities and incorporated villages, which have the right of passing rules regulating, within the limits of their jurisdictions, the relations between masters and servants.

The Act in force outside incorporated towns is very hard. It allows to be condemned to a fine or to prison, or to both, servants who fail in engagements which they have contracted towards their employers; but, on the other hand, it punishes with the same penalty employers who do not fulfil theirs, and that, too, quite apart from what concerns non-payment of wages.(†)

In the course of its enquiry the Commission visited several towns of the Province of Quebec, all having different Masters and Servants Acts.

At St. Hyacinthe this Act is almost identical with that in force in the rest of the Province of Quebec, with, however, this happy modification, that it imposes only fine or imprisonment—not both together.

At Quebec the matter is regulated by "By-law 197, concerning Masters, Servants, Clerks, Apprentices, Domestic and Day-Laborers." Sections 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 16 permit the imposition of a fine not exceeding \$40, or two months' imprisonment, at most (at hard labor, according to section 16), on every employé who fails in his duty, or who quits his service without leave, although sections 12, 13, and 14 punish only by a maximum fine of \$20, or an imprisonment of thirty days, employers who fail in their engagements towards their employés, even those who treat their apprentices cruelly.

At Montreal, by-law 20, "By-law concerning Masters and Apprentices," has been in force for nearly half a century. It will suffice to cite section 1 of this by-law to make known the spirit of it:—

Section 1.—Every apprentice or servant of both sexes, or journeyman held by certificate or by act or written agreement, and every servant of both sexes or journeyman verbally engaged before one or more witnesses, for one month or a time longer or shorter, who shall be guilty of bad conduct, of stubbornness in his conduct, of laziness, or of quitting his service or duty, or of absenting himself, day

(*) Section 14, paragraph 2, sec. 19, cap. 142, Revised Statutes of Ontario. .
Secs. 11, 12, and 15, cap. 98, Revised Statutes, series 5, Nova Scotia.
Secs. 9 and 13, cap. 70 Consolidated Statutes, New Brunswick.

(†) Sec. 6, cap. 27, Revised Statutes of Lower Canada.

or night, without permission, from his said service or from the house or residence of his master; or who shall refuse or neglect to fulfil his lawful duty, or to obey proper orders given to him by his master or mistress; who shall be guilty of any fault or offence in the service of his master or mistress, or of any illicit act which can affect the interest or trouble the domestic affairs of his master or mistress; or who shall be guilty of squandering the property or effects of his master or mistress, shall be, on conviction before the Recorder's Court, subject to a penalty not exceeding twenty dollars and to an imprisonment not exceeding thirty days, for each and every offence.

The other sections treat of giving notices to employers before quitting their service, but they all inflict the same penalty on employés—\$20 and a month's imprisonment, or two months when the fine is not paid.

On the other hand, the employer found guilty of "ill-treatment, defect or insufficiency of provisions or wholesome food, or for cruelty or ill-treatment of any sort," (section 5) is punishable only by a fine, or by imprisonment not exceeding thirty days. And this by-law, which allows the employé to be sent for sixty days to the common gaol for quitting his service without giving fifteen days' notice, inflicts no penalty on the employer who sends away his employé without giving him notice or without paying him his wages.

This Act, its interpretation and its application, are responsible in a great measure for the deplorable facts exposed before the Commission at Montreal.

This Act has allowed certain employers to terrorize their apprentices, male or female, and has allowed others to make rules more or less tyrannical.

This Act makes the workman his master's chattel. It allows the latter to keep his employé at his house day and night, to hinder him from voting, to hinder him from watching at the sick bed of any of his own people, and to force him to work without paying him. The law is absolute; it does not admit any excuse, however lawful it may be. (Pages 212 to 214, Que.)

The Acts which punish in a different manner the same faults according as they are committed by employé or employer have long since been abrogated in all other countries. If it is absolutely necessary to leave them in our legislation the least we can do is to apply the same punishment to those who fail in their engagements, whether they are masters or servants.

Masters and Servants' Acts have been abolished everywhere, because people consider that a contract between employer and workmen is a contract purely commercial, whose non-execution can entail damages, but ought not in any circumstances be punished with imprisonment, as at Montreal, or with hard labor, as at Quebec, any more than non-payment of a note or non-delivery of an order can cause the trader who does not keep his engagements to be sent to prison.

It is a serious thing to send an innocent person to prison, and it would be, perhaps, useful to hold an enquiry upon the life led by poor apprentices and unfortunate servants who have been sent to the Montreal gaol.

These Acts carry their own condemnation with them. The severer they are the more bad employers make use of them to tyrannize over their employés, as the testimony heard establishes.

Their suppression can only tend to increase good relations between employers and workmen, and to prevent the recurrence of acts which have been committed during their existence.

We believe, however, that it would be necessary to make a special law concerning employés or workmen whose sudden cessation from work would jeopardize the lives or welfare of citizens.

There is a law whose application the Commission has proven in the Province of Quebec, but the text of which it has been impossible for us to find.

It is in virtue of this law that workmen working by the piece can be arrested, condemned to prison and to fine, or to loss of wages due them, for leaving their employer, their job being finished, without giving fifteen days' notice. (342 and 343, 1183-85, Que.)

Certain manufacturers seem to know this law well, for after having engaged their apprentices and workmen by the week, which obliges them to give fifteen

days' notice before leaving, they change work by the day into piece-work and then bring before the court those of their employés who leave them. The court, according to the evidence, has in such cases always condemned the workmen.

Here is surely a legal injustice which ought to attract the notice of legislators. It is impossible to pretend that a workman is bound to his employer during fifteen days without the latter being obliged to keep him in work. Actually, an employer imposes on men doing piece-work the obligation of giving fifteen days' notice, upon penalty of being brought before the court and losing the salary due, although he does not at all engage himself to give the man work—that is to say, the possibility of earning a livelihood during these fifteen days. (Contract of the Allan Line, page 199; of the Hochelaga Cotton Company, page 277; of the Tanneries *** at Montreal, page 593; of the firm of Dobell, Beckett & Co., 1027; of the Paton Manufacturing Company, page 1244; of the St. Hyacinthe Granite Mills, page 1364, Que.)

All these contracts have force of law, as the evidence proves. We will cite, above all, the case of two brothers at Sherbrooke—one fourteen years, the other fifteen years—both doing piece-work, who, having followed their family to Montreal, were arrested and taken back by the police to Sherbrooke to finish their contract of apprenticeship, although this contract called for weekly payments, and had been broken by the employer himself. (Pages 1183-1185, Que.)

JULES H̄ELBRONNER.

(Translation.)

APPENDIX I.

STRIKES AND ARBITRATION.

A great number of strikes arise more from unjust regulations than from a question of wages.*

It is unjust to oblige workmen to labor on religious holidays, to impose fines on them, to force them to give their time without remuneration, as men working by the piece, and certain bateauxmen of Quebec must do, for example.

It is unjust to refuse work to men if they belong to labor organizations, to pay them irregularly, to keep back part of their wages, to leave them at the mercy of the whim, more or less tyrannical, of a foreman, etc.

Strikes arise from these abuses, as well as from questions of wages.

And workmen, it should be understood, respond too often to these exaggerated and unjust pretensions of employers by other demands no less unjust.

The most practical means for reducing strikes to their minimum in number and intensity is to establish for the settlement of disputes between labor and capital a labor court, whose judges (or jurymen, if preferable) should be practical men—employers and employés.

* Leading Causes of Strikes—Number and per cent. for the United States—1880–87.

(From the third annual report of the Commissioners of Labor, 1887—*Strikes and Lockouts*, page 17.)

CAUSE OR OBJECT.	Establishments Involved.	Per cent.
For increase of wages.....	9,439	42.32
For reduction of hours.....	4,344	19.48
Against reduction of wages.....	1,734	7.77
For increase of wages and reduction of hours.....	1,692	7.59
For reduction of hours and against being compelled to board with employer.....	800	3.59
For change of hour of beginning work.....	360	1.61
For increase of wages and against the contract system.....	238	1.07
For increase of wages and against employment of non-union men.....	215	.96
In sympathy with strike elsewhere.....	173	.77
For nine hours' work with ten hours' pay.....	172	.77
Against employment of non-union men, foremen, &c.....	162	.73
For increase of wages and recognition of union.....	145	.65
For adoption of union scale of prices.....	142	.64
Against increase of hours.....	138	.62
For increase of wages and enforcement of union indenture rules.....	132	.59
For reduction of hours and wages.....	126	.56
For re-instatement of discharged employés, foremen, &c.....	124	.56
	20,136	90.28
All other causes (297).....	2,168	9.72
Total for the United States.....	22,304	100.00

The "Conseils des Prud'hommes," of France, are both boards of conciliation and compulsory courts of arbitration. They are composed of an equal number of employers and employés, respectively, elected for three years by the class which they belong to.

Thus the action of each "conseil" is twofold.

As boards of conciliation, they are composed of two members—an employer and an employé—each sitting alternately as president. The two parties are heard privately. If the difference between them cannot be amicably settled they are sent before the court of "Prud'hommes."

The latter is composed, besides the president and the vice-president, of an equal number of employer "Prud'hommes" and employé "Prud'hommes." Four members are a quorum. The president and the vice-president of that court are elected for one year, at a general assembly by the majority of the members present. The president and the vice-president cannot belong to the same class, either of employers or employés.

In the absence of other legislation, the "Conseils des Prud'hommes" can be established under existing laws in the Province of Quebec, municipalities having the power to make regulations concerning the relations between employers and employés.

The "Conseils des Prud'hommes" would judge the differences between employer and employé, would estimate the damages sustained by the employer or the workman in case of dismissal or of abandonment of work; would pronounce on the validity and the equity of the factory rules—in a word, would regulate promptly and without expense all individual variances, and would prevent the individual difficulty from assuming the importance of a general dispute.

We would not see any more a whole workshop (sometimes a whole trade-body) quit work to protest, and to protest very often justly, against a grievance, or against an attack on the self-respect of a workman.

When workmen shall be able to bring abuses of authority before their peers they will no more have reason to go on strike to protect themselves *en masse* against the consequences of these abuses.

With the "Conseils des Prud'hommes" the workman dismissed for not having executed an unjust order will obtain damages in proportion to the wrong sustained; and the employer or the foreman who may be guilty will be more careful in the future; and, in like manner, workmen will be restrained from putting forward undue claims.

Disputes in the matter of payment of wages, of deductions, contracts of apprenticeship, and their execution, etc., etc., will be settled by these "Conseils des Prud'hommes."

In cases of strike, or of threats of strike, they will perform the functions of a court of arbitration, if required, and in all cases they will have the right of sitting as a court of enquiry. Those who are interested may testify under oath, and after this enquiry the court will make an impartial report of the state of affairs, and of the reasonable concessions which the parties should make in order to reach an understanding.

This manner of proceeding would result in enlightening public opinion, a potent factor in matters of strike, and, above all, of enlightening those interested. The Directors of great companies often refuse to accede to the just demands of their workmen, upon the interested representations of their superintendents, or of their foremen, and workmen often make demands which the state of business does not justify.

Such an enquiry, made by a tribunal composed of disinterested masters and men, would cause the truth to be known, and would protect the industrial world from these disturbances, due solely to the despotism of some employers and of their foremen, and to the irritation of workmen too often fanned by some of themselves.

With the "Conseils des Prud'hommes" having the right of enquiry in cases of strikes, we would see fomenters of disturbance disappear, as well as the employer who wants a "lock-out" because his stock is too large.

The reports of these councils, indicating what it would be just to do, would put an end to all these irritabilities which always prolong strikes. It would be no longer a question of knowing who should give way, but solely of correcting an error of judgment.

In a word, to diminish the difficulties between capital and labor it is necessary to submit to prompt and compulsory arbitration all individual differences and abuses by means of a competent tribunal.

Besides, this council can mediate in all questions of wages, being the only ones in which they cannot make compulsory arbitration.

The "Conseils des Prud'hommes" have fulfilled this double function in France since 1804. They exist also in Belgium. They formed the basis for the first law concerning arbitration established in England in the reign of George IV, and Mr. Mundella was inspired by their principles at the time of the creation in England of tribunals of voluntary arbitration.

To show what the effect was of those Conseils des Prud'hommes on the relations between employers and employes in France, it will be sufficient to give the opinion of a few economists on that subject.

Mr. J. B. Guise, an employer, member of the Lyons "Conseil des Prud'hommes," made the following statement in the course of a lecture on the reforms which it was proposed to introduce into the organization of those councils:—

"Among all the institutions of conciliation which we have in France, that of the Councils of Prud'hommes is, without contest, the most useful.

"That organization, which, under its modest appearance, protects, to-day, the capital invested in industrial pursuits, no matter what may have been said to the contrary, has been, sometimes, powerful enough to oppose a legal obstacle to the abettors of strikes and scenes of disorder." (*La Reforme Sociale*, Sept. 16, 1888, page 286).

But the remark may be made that that is the opinion of a Frenchman on a French law. Let us now see what foreign economists have to say on the same subject.

In his report to the Legislature of Massachusetts for 1881, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, after giving the list of the tasks performed by those Councils, expresses himself in this wise:—

"This is a most satisfactory showing; but it falls far short of expressing the great benefit these councils have been to French industry, especially in removing causes of differences or in preventing them from growing into disputes. Their success is sufficient justification of the praise so lavishly bestowed upon them by M. Chevalier—*une des plus nobles créations dont notre siècle s'honore*. (*Industrial Conciliation et Arbitration*, page 9).

We find the following opinions in two other reports of the United States Labor Bureau:—

"The oldest boards of arbitrators are the "Conseils des Prud'hommes," of France, and they are also the most successful. Their establishment dates back eighty years.

The authority of these councils extends to every conceivable question that can arise in the workshop, not only between the workman and his employer, but between the workman and his apprentice or his foreman. There is but one question they cannot settle—future rates of wages; but even this can be done by mutual agreement. Arbitration is compulsory upon the application of either, and the decisions of the court can be enforced, the same as those of any other court of law.

"The workings of the court have been beneficial to France's industry, especially in conciliations, by which more than 90 per cent. of all cases before the tribunal are settled."

In 1856, out of 28,030 cases, 26,000 were settled by conciliation. There were in 1880 about 135 councils in France; out of every hundred cases brought before the court of conciliation 59 related to wages, thirteen to dismissals, five to disputes about apprenticeship, and thirteen to various other points." (*Second Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics of Wisconsin*, 1885-86. (page 390).

"The mining districts of the latter country (France) excepted, it will be seen that in industrial centres of the country strikes are comparatively few and far between. This exemption is probably due to the admirable system of voluntary arbitration which prevails there under the name of "Conseils des Prud'hommes," an interesting account of which appeared in the third annual report of this Department." (*Fifth Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor of New-York for the year 1887*, page 25.)

In the report of the New York State Bureau of Statistics for 1885 we find a paper by Mr. Jackson H. Ralston, on the Conseils des Prud'hommes, which was read before the International Typographical Union, at their last session in Washington.

In the few lines preceding that paper, by way of preface, we find the following quotation :

"Thomas Brassy says in his 'Work and Wages': 'The result in ninety-five out of one hundred cases brought before these boards leaves a reconciliation between the parties, and although appeals are permitted to the superior courts of law they are rarely made. Lord Brougham, in a speech in the House of Lords in 1859, declared that, in 1856, 28,000 disputes had been heard before the "Conseil des Prud'hommes," of which no less than 26,800 were satisfactorily settled.'" *Third Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of New-York, 1885, page 431*).

A few extreme partizans of the Monroe doctrine allege that the ideas, customs and laws of this continent are so very different from the laws in Europe that it would not be practicable to adopt in America the Conseils des Prud'hommes. We can oppose to that opinion that of Mr. Jackson H. Ralston, and whose views on those boards are expressed at the end of his paper on the "Conseils des Prud'hommes".—

"It was my good fortune to be present at several sessions of the bureaux of the "Conseils," and I was struck with the anxiety shown to render exact justice. The council seemed to me to be emphatically a court of workingmen. In our courts we know that the employer is always at an advantage. In France master and man meet upon equal ground, and each defends his own cause. Therein exists a spirit of the most exact equality; the workman and employer each and equally concedes its impartiality and justice. Such has been the testimony of all acquainted with the matter with whom I have been brought in contact.

"That this system should be adopted in our country, with necessary modifications, I have no doubt. To cause its institution in many of our States requires but the effort and disposition of a few earnest men. Its universal adoption would secure the removal of many petty grievances from which we too frequently suffer." (*Third annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of New York, page 437*).

Strikes lead invariably to disastrous results for the winning parties themselves. In order to prevent them, it is wise to have good legislation which will facilitate the prompt and equitable settlement of differences which may arise between employers and employés; and all sort of encouragements must be given the latter to save their earnings as much as possible.

By the encouragement given the employés in that direction those among the employers who are guided by a sense of justice will find themselves protected against the strikes resulting from the arbitrary disposition or selfish avariciousness of certain men of their own class. When the working classes have saved sufficiently to face all the hardships of a strike those among the employers who are abettors of strikes, will not be so easily disposed to lower the rate of wages, or dictate arbitrary regulations; and, on the other hand, the employés will accept all reasonable measures of settlement ere they feel resigned to spend part of their savings.

JULES HELBRONNER.

APPENDIX K.

REPORT OF G. BOIVIN ON THE POSSIBILITY OF PROCURING FOR WORKMEN AND LABORERS OF ALL KINDS REMUNERATIVE AND CONSTANT EMPLOYMENT.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN,—

I have divided my notes into three parts, which I have entitled: Suggestions, Exports, Patents.

SUGGESTIONS.

1. That a study be made of all products imported into Canada, in order to find out those which it is possible to manufacture in this country.
2. That a choice be made of imported products of which this country can furnish the first or raw material, and of which the manufacture requires the least apparatus. Imitate by preference foreign products.
3. That the Government manufacture, even at great expense, all it wants for its own use, rather than import.
4. That importations of foreign workmen under contract be not permitted, and that Government assistance to immigrants be not continued.
5. That a law be passed requiring imported goods to be plainly stamped with the name of the country of production, where that is practicable, so that even retail buyers may know what they are purchasing.
6. That in addition to elementary education, primary instruction in practical mechanics and domestic economy be given in the public schools.
7. That to render these suggestions practical and permanent, societies be formed in all incorporated towns, and that in those where there may be more than 25,000 souls they shall have the right of forming societies in proportion to the population.
8. That at a meeting composed of not less than twenty persons having the right to vote, a president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer and other members to form a committee of management shall be chosen, which committee shall be composed of at least five persons, and that these officers shall have sole direction of the society.
9. The name of the society should be the Manufacturers' Society of (here name the place). The officers shall not have any pecuniary responsibility, but nevertheless shall be obliged to make an annual report in writing of their management to the Government.
10. Every town shall be obliged to furnish a sufficient and proper place for the collection of samples, which shall be labelled with all possible information.
11. The Government shall give, once for all, a sum of \$100 for the purchase of samples which shall be placed in the said hall; and, moreover, shall give every year the sum of \$200 which shall be the salary of the secretary-treasurer.
12. It shall be also the duty of the said society to make a special study for the development of mines, and to reciprocally arrange, in order that the laws in each Province make charges as low as possible to those who wish to acquire mineral lands.

EXPORTS.

It is a matter for regret that the Government has not more agents in foreign countries to assist the representatives of Canadian exporters in the placing of our farm and other products.

Business men know that it is almost useless to send to foreign countries ordinary travellers to dispose of their products. These agents have little influence with the great foreign buyers. So much is this the case that for want of documents of an official character the sample will not even be examined.

I would suggest: if four or more manufacturers or wholesale dealers associate for export trade, and name one or more representatives for the sale of their products, that the Government issue in this case letters of introduction, setting out the names of the manufactures represented, the nature of their products, that they are Canadian, and permitting them to have all the information possible from Government representatives, when there are any. Letters of this kind, official, will be of a nature to open the doors of large buyers in countries where Canada has no representatives.

PATENTS.

I believe that, as mechanical inventions and improvements contribute so enormously to the development of industry, I ought to make some suggestions regarding the patent law.

Inventors are born with special talents. In general that is a misfortune for them, because they work all their lives for the advancement of a number of things, without any reward, or even the honor of the merit of their inventions. It is necessary that strict and intelligent search be made before granting a patent, in order that the patents granted can be considered as real property.

The Government should have at its service for the Patent Branch only persons having innate talent for this matter, give them all means possible to keep themselves posted and continue the system of models. There is much to do.

The price charged for a patent of fifteen years is \$60. I would suggest that it be reduced to \$30, and that the charges for trade marks and patterns be no more than the mere cost of registration. I think that the Patent Office would lose nothing in revenue, and that this reduction would have a good effect in the development of trade and industry. In the United States patents are not granted except after the most minute research in the registries of patents granted in France, in England and in Germany. The cost for work so beneficial is only \$35 for a patent of seventeen years, and for a population twelve times larger than that of Canada.

The paper which is published by the Patent Branch should be printed in the two languages. This journal will be useful to workingmen, and it is right that they should be able to benefit by it.

(Translation.)

APPENDIX L.

PAYMENT AND NON-PAYMENT OF WAGES.

The law protects, only very feebly, wages; that is to say payment is assured, when it is so, only by laws of an application as slow as costly.

Numerous complaints have been made to the Commission *à propos* of the losses to which wage-earners are exposed and of the thefts of which they are too often the victims.

At page 888, (Ont.), there is found a list of thirty-four employés of a woollen factory who had lost together an amount of \$565.78 of wages; the smallest sum due is \$2.02 and the largest \$91.81, representing three months' labor. The witness in his own energetic language says: "Our salaries have been stolen."

Numerous witnesses were heard on this question in all the Provinces, and were agreed in demanding a law assuring absolute security of the payment of wages.

Numerous complaints were equally made *à propos* of the precarious position in which employés, whose employers are bankrupt, find themselves. These employés, often engaged by the year, lose their wages and their situations, without the least hope of compensation. (Page 192, Que.) They ask that an indemnity, based on the damages suffered be granted them by law.

The Commission has learned, with regret, that in certain districts workingmen were systematically fleeced of their wages.

A witness (page 1156, Que.) declares that a sub-contractor at a single time robbed his workmen of \$1,600, one of them losing \$150. He declares—an incredible thing—that Canadian farmers working in the shanties, on Canadian soil, for Canadian employers, have been for three successive years robbed of their pay. He adds that if these men had worked upon the territory of the State of Maine they would have had a lien upon the wood cut, a privilege which they have not in Canada.

Mr. L. E. Panneton, lawyer, Mayor of Sherbrooke, says (page 1161 Que.) that many workmen working for a sub-contractor in building a railway have lost, each, from \$15 to \$60 of their wages, and that shantymen have lost from \$80 to \$200. There is, he said, a law protecting workmen, but it is useless in the majority of cases. The details of similar thefts are given by other witnesses on pages 1187, 1188, 1189, Que., 1161 and 1190, Ont.

These facts require no comment, and the necessity of legislation hindering the recurrence of it is beyond all question.

It seems that certain employers have no idea of the privations without number which they impose on their employés by paying them irregularly. This irregularity, which may happen in small manufactories at times, is certainly incomprehensible when it is the act of great administrations.

How can one explain that the gardeners employed at Spencerwood, receiving 75 cents per day, remain from eight to nine weeks without being paid? (Page 1048, Que.).

How can one explain that the corporation of Quebec suffers regularly every year the men employed by it to wait for their wages seven or nine weeks? (Page 1109, Que.).

How can one explain that men working at the building of the Quebec court house have remained seven weeks without receiving their wages, with this aggrava-

tion, that from the date their pay ceased their daily hours of labor were increased from eight to ten? (Pages 781-783, 892, Que.).

One of these unpaid employés said: "I have heard it said that many of these workmen were in distress, that they had need of wood and that the grocers refused to give them credit." (Page 782 Que.)

There are a number of other evidences upon the same subject. We have cited only the most striking examples, and those which are able to justify more than any other the demand which wage-earners do not cease to make for a law permitting them to recover at small expense and without delay the wages which are due to them.

We ought to mention, with regard to the payment of wages, that almost all workingmen have pronounced for weekly payments, and that the payment be made on Friday.

Weekly payment to workingmen will result in diminishing the credit system, to which workingmen must necessarily have recourse between two payments long divided. The Friday payment will result directly in permitting housekeepers to make their market with advantage, and will indirectly result in aiding in the solution of the question of the Saturday halfholiday for retail stores.

JULES HELBRONNER.

APPENDIX M.

THE FISHING INDUSTRY OF CANADA.

The fishing industry in the Dominion of Canada is of vast importance; and, however great it may be at the present time, it is impossible to estimate its possibilities for the future. For, situated as it is, reaching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and having large extent of seaboard on both, it is only the natural outcome of such a position that the greatest interest should be taken to avail ourselves of the untold treasures of our seas, and any disability that may in any way hinder its development to the fullest extent should be remedied by legislation, by treaty, or by any legitimate means to hasten such a consummation.

On account of its importance, a Minister of the Crown is specially appointed to look after its interests; and as yearly returns are made to his department, from which its general results may be learned, it is not our intention to go into any statistical *resumé* of its general progress.

Our intention is merely to give such deductions concerning this industry in the different districts visited as the evidence received by the Commissioners will warrant.

At Windsor, Ont., the fishermen of the Detroit River testified that within their time a thriving fishery was carried on, in which about 100 men were engaged with profit. The number at the present time is reduced to thirty, or thereabouts. They say that fish are as plenty as ever, and that as large a number of men as ever might be profitably employed upon the river, only for the use of pound nets upon Lake St. Clair. They complain that these nets are used on both sides of the lake, and have long leaders or arms extending for miles along the shores, and are so close to openings into the river as to prevent the fish from coming down as plentifully as formerly, and that whatever come down are small, as the large ones are taken in these nets.

They also complain that the use of these are likely to injuriously affect the fish in spawning. The Detroit River, they say, is the natural depository for the ova, and if so deposited it is sure to come to maturity; but, as the fish are held back by these nets they deposit their spawn in the lake, where a great deal of it is destroyed by the storms of October and November. We have their testimony that there is no close season that they know of, and if there is it is neither observed nor enforced. All who have testified agree that if a close season was observed and the nets done away with, or their arms or leaders shortened, the fish would be much more plentiful than at present. Their principal markets are Detroit, Windsor, London, Ontario, and sometimes New York. They complain of duties being exacted from them when selling fish in the United States for immediate consumption, on the plea that they were selling to be stocked, even when they offered to make affidavit to the contrary.

ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK.

Alewives.

The city of St. John, N.B., is largely interested in this fishery. There are 125 boats employed in the alewives fishery, employing about 250 men and boys. This fishery lasts about three months. The catch is about 10,000 barrels, and returns about \$45,000.

Shad.

Some fifty boats are engaged in the shad fishery, employing about 100 men and boys. Fishing lasts from three to four weeks, and returns from \$200 to \$250 for each boat, or an amount equal to \$12,500.

Salmon.

About 125 boats are engaged in this fishery, employing 250 men and boys for about six or seven weeks, and secure about 10,000 barrels, at an average of \$15.50 per barrel, returning an amount equal to \$155,000.

We find that in the prosecution of these different fisheries those employed have not any great distance to go outside their own harbor; unless, indeed, in the herring fisheries, when they sometimes go as far as Grand Manan. We are pleased to report that it is very seldom any accident of a fatal nature occurs.

As these fisheries employ those engaged in them only in spring and summer, many of them engage in winter fishing, which lasts from the beginning of the year to about the 1st of March, and if fairly fortunate earn about \$100 each.

None but able fishermen engage in this voyage, and larger craft, that require a crew of four or five men, are necessary for following it up successfully. Those who do not engage in winter fishing find employment in factories, in mills or on farms.

Most of those engaged in these fisheries are fairly well off, many of them comfortable, having houses of their own, and several have farms also. The market for their fish is their local market, which is very large, the West Indies for alewives, and the United States as a general market. They would send more to the United States, but say that they are at a disadvantage in the way of transport, as they are obliged to pre-pay freights, which the people of Halifax are not.

The general outfit for the shore fishery costs about \$40 for boat and nets, and for winter fishing about \$150.

CHATHAM, NEW BRUNSWICK,

In the vicinity of Chatham there are many engaged in the fishing industry. Lobster fishing is extensively carried on; but, at the time the Commission visited that place, reliable information was not to be had.

Salmon fishing is carried on extensively. The season lasts from four to five months, and ordinary hands employed earn about \$350.

Smelt fishing has been for the last few years more extensively carried on than formerly, and proves very profitable to many. It is a great boon to the people, for its principal season is winter, when work is scarce. A great many are engaged in it, and some have made as much as \$60 in one night.

NOVA SCOTIA,

The general fishing trade of Nova Scotia is largely represented in the city of Halifax, and from testimony received in that city it appears that the inshore fishing is not as productive and profitable as formerly. It is not now so easy to follow up this employment, for the fish seem to be inclined to keep farther from the shore year after year, and the boats used along shore are no longer fit for going further out and prosecuting the voyage with any degree of safety and success. Besides, the former appliances are not so well adapted for this new order of things.

This inclination of the fish to keep off shore is attributed to a variety of causes. Some say the former grounds are overfished; others say they are poisoned by throwing overboard decayed bait and fish refuse, and that after some time, when the grounds are purified, the fish will return again.

Another reason is stated, and seems to gain prominence at the present time, on account of its discussion through the press of the Province. It is this: that from the mouths of harbors and rivers a great many impurities are thrown upon the fishing grounds, particularly from saw-mills, factories, etc. (In this connection see evidence on page 136, Halifax evidence). But from whatever cause, the fact remains the same: the fishermen have to go farther to sea to prosecute their voyage. Notably is this the case with regard to mackerel, fish that formerly used to swarm in our very harbors. Even a few years ago this fish used to be taken close

on shore. This is seldom the case now, for fishermen say, they have to go out from 10 to 15 miles to sea in order to have any chance of a successful catch.

Whilst it may be an acknowledged fact that the fish are keeping farther from shore, it is satisfactory to be assured by those who are competent to judge that some 20 to 25 miles from shore, and on the several banks resorted to, as well as the North Bay, fish is as plentiful as ever, and those who take advantage of it and procure the proper outfit are fully rewarded for their enterprise. But a great many of our people are unable to do so, as the expense of such an undertaking is too heavy for them, and many who have long been their own masters do not like to become servants to others. But, notwithstanding all those drawbacks that in-shore fishermen have had to contend with, the majority of them who had boats of their own have secured something like a competence. Many have houses of their own and live comfortably; others have houses and farms; and, as regards any hired help they may have, and who are not permanently engaged may, if sober and industrious, find plenty employment after the fishing season is ended, in factories, saw-mills, mines, in the woods or on farms.

Our young men, however, are taking early advantage of the position, and for the most part attach themselves to the more successful, if more arduous, work of going to the bank fishery.

The average size for bankers is about 110 tons, and the cost about \$6,000, when fitted out and ready to take in her fishing outfit, which would cost some \$3,000 more, so that when the vessel is ready to proceed to the banks on her voyage, having on board doreys, salt, provisions, which include everything that would be considered necessary for a comfortable family on shore, and every article the best of its kind, the amount invested would be about \$9,000. This would be the greatest expense, for the outfit of the vessel on a second or third voyage would not be so much, perhaps not more than half of the first, or from \$1,500 to \$2,000. This refers to the vessel only. Although the expense is heavy, if the voyage turn out fairly well a couple of trips would pay the whole expense. Some even do better than that. Instances are known in which vessels of this class have made \$20,000 in one year; but, of course, everything would depend upon the result of the catch. Vessels of this class carry a crew of about twenty men, who are generally upon shares. The amount made is divided as follows: The vessel gets half, the captain 5 per cent., the remainder is divided among the crew. Most of the vessels of this class make two, and sometimes even three trips in a season, and men on share make from \$200 to \$400. The full season is from the 1st April to the 1st October, although many of them are home from 1st to 15th September.

We find that about 200 vessels of all classes are fitted out for the bank fishing from Halifax city, besides a great many from various harbors of the Province, and are pleased to find that in general they are fairly successful. The bankers being fitted out from Nova Scotia of late will bear favorable comparison with those of any other country. They are as well found and as well provisioned as any to be found elsewhere. In the near future we hope to see such a fleet of bankers fitted out from Nova Scotia, and from other seaboard Provinces of this Dominion, as will give our young men sufficient employment, and thereby do away with the necessity of their having to go elsewhere to look for it. It is acknowledged that the fishermen of the Maritime Provinces are among the best, if not the very best, in the world; the vessels as good as, if not superior to, any engaged in this fishery. They have been proved so staunch and seaworthy that those interested have been spared the painful necessity of recording the terrible loss of life, and all deplorable details of family bereavements, with its sequence of widows and orphans, that year after year have been recorded elsewhere.

As this hazardous occupation is always attended with great danger, accidents, even of a fatal nature, may at any time occur; yet they are so few in these Provinces, considering the number engaged, that for this blessing we have to thank a Benign Providence, in whose hands are life and death.

Many of those in Nova Scotia engaged in the fishery own and are able to fit out their own vessels, and, if fortunate and thrifty, become (and some already are) wealthy, and while benefited themselves, give an opportunity to others to make themselves and their families comfortable. Many men of the crews of these vessels own property, having houses and farms of their own; many own houses without other property. According to testimony these houses are worth from \$400 to \$600 each. Some others—young men, for instance—have farms of their own, but do not own houses.

FRESH FISH.

Large quantities of fresh fish are sent by rail from Halifax to Montreal. Still more would be sent if there were cars adapted for such purpose. If proper cars were available fish could be sent in cold weather, without being first frozen, as has to be done at present, and as the season advances they have to be packed in ice.

Consignments are also sent to Hamilton and London. One firm in Halifax ships to the places named 200 to 250 tons in a season.

There are frequently delays upon the road, but when a full carload is sent it is despatched more quickly.

WEST INDIA TRADE.

The city of Halifax has from sixty to seventy sailing vessels engaged in carrying fish to the different ports of the West Indies, and until lately had the entire supplying of these ports with fish, with the exception, perhaps, of some from Newfoundland. However, Nova Scotia had the largest share of it, and it is believed all engaged made fairly good markets.

The steamers, however, that used to make semi-monthly trips from Nova Scotia to these ports, began some ten or fifteen years ago to carry some fish as part of their cargo. These steamers received a subsidy from the Imperial Government for carrying the mails. Upon representation of some of the merchants of Nova Scotia this subsidy was withdrawn some three or four years ago.

The use of steamers in the carriage of fish is preferred, for, although they charge higher rates of freight than sailing vessels their voyage is shorter (which is a very great consideration in a tropical climate) and the fish is landed in better condition.

A fish expert said that fish only a few days landed in the West Indies would be scarcely recognized by those who saw it in Nova Scotia, for it changes in taste and color. Much more is this the case after a long voyage. At the present time steamers from the United States are engaged in this trade.

The introduction of steamers in carrying fish to the West Indies has materially altered the trade. Again, telegraphic communication has had its effect. The shippers say the markets are not so good for them as formerly, although they may be more profitable for the consumer.

The case stands thus: Formerly, fish merchants at the West Indies had no means of getting immediate advice as to when any fish cargoes would leave, or when to expect them, and if stocks of fish had run down or completely run out prices consequently would range high. The first vessel to arrive, under these circumstances, with fish cargo, parties selling could make their own terms, and sometimes sold at fancy prices.

The buyer of such would charge his dealers in the same ratio, and upon the consumer would fall the greatest loss. It is a received maxim of trade that when prices are abnormally high merchants and middlemen make their greatest profits. Since steamers engaged in the business, and had stated time for leaving, the time of their arrival could be fairly calculated; therefore, the chance of such a state of things as formerly prevailed could scarcely happen. Although this was a great change, the telegraph revolutionized the whole state of affairs, and information may be had regarding markets and vessels at once, and all concerned will govern themselves accordingly. Although the profits of the merchants may not be as great as formerly, the consumer certainly is benefited.

LOBSTER FISHING AND PACKING.

The evidence received upon this industry is not as comprehensive or as extended as we could wish. It is not now as profitable as formerly. The reason given is that of over-fishing. There are other reasons which a witness has sent in memorial to Government. The evidence may be taken as a description of the manner in which this great and profitable industry is carried on, and one in which so many are now employed. It gives employment during the season to a great number of men, women and children.

A single firm employs from 200 to 225 men and women, and about fifteen boys. The wages paid men per month is from \$25 to \$40, with board and lodging. Women's wages per month is \$12, without board, as many of them live in the neighborhood, and \$8 with board and lodging. The boys' wages are the same as women's.

Independent of this, a number of can-makers are employed all the year around, at the rate of \$2 per day. All wages are paid in cash, and no orders given, unless desired, for goods.

The morality of those engaged will compare favorably with the same number engaged in any other industry, although the sexes live in the same buildings. These employes are well housed, well fed, and everything done for their welfare.

The wages of those employed in this industry have steadily increased within the last ten years. Those who have worked in this business like it and return year after year; some have been in the employ for twelve years. The hands engaged in this trade are employed about six months in the year, from 1st of May to 1st of October. For the remaining time they find employment in mines, in the woods, and some go to sea.

The fishing bounty which the Government of this country dispenses is acknowledged to be a great benefit to our fishermen. It stimulates them to work more earnestly in the future even than they have in the past. To those employed in small boats along our shores is this particularly so, and they acknowledge with gratitude the wisdom as well as the goodness of those who brought it into effect.

Sea fishing as an occupation is both arduous and dangerous; but to those thoroughly bred to it there is a kind of fascination about it which divests it of either character—so much so, that they would not willingly relinquish it for any other, and although we know that all are not successful, still they live on quietly and hopefully. Very seldom, if ever, do we find any disruption leading to conflict between them and those with whom they deal, and the labor troubles which frequently appear amongst those who labor on shore scarcely ever affect them; but, whenever they do complain, it is not without reason, which may be caused by matters outside their control.

We may instance the difficulty in international relations, such as we are passing through at the present time, and in this they have full reason.

MICHAEL WALSH.

APPENDIX N;

CONVICT LABOR.

The problem of the employment of prisoners is one which has engaged the attention of thoughtful men for many years. So far, no solution has been found which gives universal or even general satisfaction. It has been decided with substantial unanimity that prisoners should be employed at productive industry. Their own health, their well-being after liberation, and the public interest require this. Warden Lavelle, of Kingston Penitentiary, says: "I believe we send out men worse than when they came in, unless they are taught intelligent labor, fitting them for future usefulness. Confirmed criminals are not those trained to some useful occupation." (Page 937, Ont.)

Other things being equal, convicts should be put at that employment which will produce the best results. If it is unwise to keep them at wholly unproductive work it is unwise of the same kind, though less in degree, to keep them at inferior production, if they can be put to better economic use without detriment to their health, their reformation or to the interest of free industry.

The best authorities agree that prisoners should, when at work, as at other times, be under the exclusive control and direction of the prison authorities. The weight of testimony seems to support an opinion that the selling or leasing of the labor of prisoners to contractors is evil in its effects, though Warden Massie, of the Central Prison, Toronto, thinks that if industrial operations are carried on under official supervision—the contractors having only instructing and directing power—there can be no objection to the system (page 344, Ont.) It seems better, however, to save to the State the profit made by the contractor. It is quite possible to urge strong objections against any system of Government interference in trade; and it cannot be denied that the purchase of supplies and sale of manufactured goods by Government officials might lead to complications. At the same time, it may be observed that the labor of these convicts directly employed by the authorities at the Central Prison produced better financial results than that of those who were leased to contractors. The main objection urged against the employment of prisoners in productive industry is that the goods made enter into competition with the products of free labor. Generally they are sold at lower prices than goods made under normal conditions; and, even when such is not the case, they are thrown upon a market fully supplied, drive honest people from employment, injure established business houses and in other ways disturb industry. John McKenna, Hamilton, testified that the number of hands employed at broom-making had largely fallen off, owing to "convict and prison labor employed at the trade." (Page 905, Ont.) "The ordinary employer cannot compete with the contractors." (Page 906.) If the prison contract were done away with the regular hands would have steady work, and a larger number would be employed. The testimony of printers, shoemakers, harness-makers and others in Montreal was pronounced against the contract system carried on at the Reformatory, under which the labor of boys was leased to contractors at 15 cents per day. (See evidence page 329.)

It has been urged that the goods made in prison must, under any circumstances, be so small as not to produce any appreciable effect upon the market. (See the testimony of Wardens Lavelle and Massie, already referred to). But it must be remembered that these disturbing goods are not distributed over the whole volume of a country's production. It must also be remembered that if a pint of water be poured into a barrel already full there will be an overflow. If 10,000 pairs of shoes be thrown on a market already supplied, the disturbance to industry and trade will unfavorably affect the whole body.

Two possible remedies for this evil may be suggested. The first is a requirement that all goods made in prisons for sale be exported, even if the prices realized in foreign countries be lower than those which might be obtained in the Dominion. It would be better to suffer that loss than to disturb Canadian trade and injure Canadian workingmen, by forcing the goods on a reluctant market at home. The other proposal is to manufacture for home use goods not now produced in the Dominion. As an illustration; the manufacture of steel rails has not been undertaken in Canada, and, under existing conditions, it has not been deemed wise to foster the industry by means of protective legislation. But it might be possible, with cheap prison labor, to produce rails, and to sell them at prices no higher than are paid for imported rails delivered at Montreal. Some such manufacture would disturb no Canadian interest, would furnish employment to convicts and might be self-sustaining. It may also be found possible to employ prisoners in mining operations, provided free labor be not thereby displaced.

Economy in the use of machinery depends, to a considerable extent, upon the price of labor. Where labor is very cheap interest on the cost of the machinery, wear and tear, the price of skilled directing labor, the outlay for power, and other added expenditures, may more than balance the value of increased production. For this reason, and for the further reason that it is well to give the convicts as much knowledge of hand labor as possible, it may be wise to dispense, as far as possible, with the use of machinery in penal institutions. Warden Lavelle says: "Manual labor should be used when possible."

The main objects of punishments are two: the protection of society and the reformation of the criminal, while its deterrent effects upon persons inclined to violate the laws must not be forgotten. The cost of punishing criminals is a secondary consideration. It is wise to make convicts as nearly self-sustaining as possible, but it is not wise to so employ them as to injure men who are not criminals, their wives and their children.

G. BOIVIN,
A. T. FREED.

(Translation.)

APPENDIX O.

SWEATING PROCESS.

Starvation wages and the exactions demanded from employés by masters (other than fines) exist only in exceptional cases in Canada.

These wages and these exactions, classed in England under the denomination of "sweating process," though not numerous, should be noted.

We call an exaction, for example, that act of the master who, taking advantage of his position, exacts the time of his employé without compensation. Thus, in a factory (page 971, Que.) where the workwomen were obliged to work ten hours a day, if the machinery stopped for any cause these employés were obliged to work at night, after their day's work, for a time equal to that lost by the stoppage.

But why was this? These women were bound to give ten hours to their employer; they remained ten hours at the factory ready to work, and this was the extent of their obligation. They, nevertheless, were obliged to submit to this exaction for fear of losing their means of livelihood.

The bateaux-men of Quebec (page 950) cannot procure work without they agree to do, without remuneration, work that takes them about fifteen days to accomplish, and without they consent to submit to the losses caused by the delays of loading and unloading.

This loss of time has such influence upon the wages that a good bateaux-man can only earn \$150 during the season. (Page 500, Que.)

What proves the injustice of these impositions upon the workman is that these exactions were only imposed after the association of bateaux-men had been dissolved by the men themselves, on the advice and promises of the masters. It was only when these men were no longer united, and consequently powerless, that these exactions were imposed. (Page 949 to 951, Que.)

We are justified, also, in considering these young girls who work sixty hours a week for 80 cents (that is a cent and a-third per hour) as victims of this sweating process. (Page 1137, Que.)

In like manner young girls are paid 1 cent for each sole they make, while a fine of 4 cents is imposed for each defective sole; these fines are so managed that the manufacturer makes a clear profit of 1 cent on each article condemned as defective. (Page 987, Que.)

Workmen who are obliged to pay for gas, whether they use it or not, are equally victims of the sweating process. Sewing women, milliners and saleswomen in retail stores, whose wages never vary, but whose working hours do, are among the most to be pitied of this system. The Mayor of Toronto, Mr. Howland, has described in a very touching manner the miseries endured by this interesting class of workwomen, and to his evidence we would refer our legislators. (Page 167-168, Ont.)

Another form of the sweating process, and not the least cruel, is the reducing of the wages of workmen during the winter, on the plea of there being a superabundance of workmen. This is an unjust, iniquitous and selfish application of the law of supply and demand, a law beyond the workingman's control, but to which he is bound to submit, and an application of it not always justified by facts.

Take, for instance, the case of the City Passenger Railway Company, at Quebec; the figures we give were furnished by the directors of the company. (Page 819 to 825, Que.) The company reduce their men's wages in winter. The following are the wages given in summer and winter for seven hours work:—

Summer—Drivers, \$7; hostlers, \$6; conductors, \$7.50. Winter—Drivers \$5 to \$4; hostlers, \$5; conductors, not given.

In summer conductors' and drivers' hours of work are from ten and a-half to eleven and a-half hours. Hostlers have alternate days of fourteen, nineteen and twenty-four hours work. In winter the day's work is somewhat shorter.

The company was formed with a capital of \$50,000, of which \$32,500 was in cash and the balance in paid-up shares as dividends. The dividends have been about 12 and 16 per cent. on the nominal capital, or about from 18 to 24 per cent. upon the paid-up cash capital.

The reduction of the wages of the drivers and hostlers, even including conductors, does not give a saving to the company of more than \$500 or \$600 a year, which for the last year would have reduced the dividends by 2 per cent. The shareholders would have drawn 22 per cent. on their shares.

What signifies this reduction to the company, compared with the loss of \$1 a week to the fathers of families? According to the evidence of the director of the company himself, one of these men, whose wages had been reduced and who earns but \$5 a week in winter, has a wife and two children; and of five men, whose wages are thus reduced, four are heads of families. It is right to remark that the dividend of 16 per cent. is a net profit, while they have placed, as a sinking fund for wear and tear, 4 per cent. for rails, 10 per cent. for horses and 10 per cent. for vehicles.

We doubt much if labor could maintain its strength on \$5 per week.

Many other reductions in wages, made in winter—those, for instance, in tobacco factories—are just as cruel and not more justifiable than those just cited.

Thus the City Passenger Railway of Quebec, which realizes a clear profit of 18 to 24 per cent. a year, after deducting the general and running expenses, reduces, under the pretext of the difficulty and expense of winter traffic, the wages of its employes below what is absolutely necessary for their maintenance.

The reduction of wages in winter is rarely more justifiable; consumers pay exactly the same price for goods manufactured in winter as those manufactured in summer, and this reduction, in almost all cases, is a deplorable taxing of the workman.

Few smokers or chewers, for instance, imagine that the wages of the workmen who prepared the tobacco which they use are reduced in winter by some 37½ per cent.

The "truck system," as practised in cities and villages, is but another form of the sweating process.

The Commission has also discovered another instance of the English sweating process. A foreman imposed upon his workwomen an increase of work without any increase of pay; twelve young girls refused to submit to this imposition, and left their work, and the company confiscated the wages due them, amounting to \$10 or \$15 for each workwoman. Some of these young women were re-engaged by the company, but were each obliged to pay an entrance fee of \$2. (Page 1324, Que.)

Evidence before this Commission has brought to our knowledge two strikes among workwomen, due to the unjust exactions of their foremen, and in both cases the directors of the company have sustained the foremen and confiscated the wages earned by these unfortunate girls. Some among these directors are members of the Society for the Protection of Women and Children. What justification could they offer, should they learn that among the unfortunates whom they seek to succor are some of those who, by reason of their not being paid, have been driven from their boarding houses and rendered homeless?

This mode of proceeding is, moreover, very economical; the wages are reduced, and, thanks to the law which obliges workmen by the piece to give fifteen days' notice before leaving, their wages are legally confiscated if they refuse to accept the reductions.

It is to preserve this advantage over the workmen that a number of masters and companies have established the custom of retaining part of the wages of their employes who work by the piece: they retain fifteen days' pay. The factory to which we refer retains even three weeks' pay. Since labor is subject to the exigencies of supply and demand it would be well that the workman should have any advantage to be derived from them.

When an employer has made a bargain for the execution of certain work he is

guilty of an injustice if, taking advantage of his position, he binds his workman, under penalty of the loss of wages earned, to remain in his service for fifteen days without any guarantee of work during that time.

When a workman's job is completed his bargain is finished, is at an end, and he has a right to his pay. It is absurd to contend that because this workman may have agreed to do a certain work for A, A will have the right to keep him during fifteen days in his service, even though another master, B, should offer him 10 per cent. more for his labor. This combination of payment by the piece and engagement by time, which is legally recognized in the Province of Quebec, is another form of the "sweating process."

This combination has given rise to a very reprehensible form of the sweating process. It places the time of the workman at the absolute disposal of the master, without the latter being obliged to furnish work to his employé. So true is this, that the workman working by the piece is obliged, under pain of fine, to be at the workshop at seven in the morning, though the employer is not obliged to give him work, and it often happens that the workman has to wait an hour or two before getting anything to do. The workman by the piece is obliged also to remain at the shop for hours, and sometimes days, without work and on pay-day he has to wait for his pay and to remain hours without work, the same as workmen by the day. This is an abuse that cannot be too strongly condemned. When workmen are engaged by the day they are compelled to work continuously during the working hours, and when they are engaged by the job or piece they have the right to demand continuous work or the right, at least, of leaving the shop when there is no work for them. It is true that the division of labor exacts the constant attendance of the workman at the shop, even though he is not continuously employed; but this requirement could and should be so arranged that the workman would not suffer; and the law should not in any case interfere to legalize an injustice.

Working by the piece, although in principle one of the most equitable and just methods, has yet, in certain industries, been instrumental in lowering wages, or at least of obliging the workmen to supply a greater amount of work for the same amount of pay. Workmen complain that the price of work is not calculated on the ability of the average workman, but on the ability of special workmen. Working by the piece is one of the consequences of the changes in manufactories; formerly the master was himself a workman, capable of judging whether his employés honestly earned their wages. Now-a-days the master is rarely a workman, and even when he is one the commercial requirements of his business prevent him from overseeing his factory. In large factories and with large companies the personal oversight and appreciation of the merit of the workman is an impossibility. It is this impossibility of judging of the respective merits of the workman that tends more and more to the generalization of work by the piece.

This is to be regretted, as the discussion of prices is a source of endless difficulty, and the necessity of the workman doing a certain amount of work, often beyond his ability, in order to do a fair day's work, naturally leads to the lowering of the standard of handiwork; and the divisions and sub-divisions, caused by the general practice of working by the piece, reduces the position of a workman to that of a simple machine, and of a useless machine, when some new invention improves the machinery of which he is only the complement. So voluminous was the evidence given before this Commission for and against working by the piece, but especially against it, that we are unable to cite the pages, and must, therefore, refer to the index.

From the working by the piece comes the real sweating process, and its true operator is the sub-contractor. Workmen protest strongly against the introduction of this intermediary, whom the masters have imposed on them, and whose profits are necessarily obtained from the price of their handiwork. These sub-contractors, from the workman's point of view, are unnecessary, and in any case are only necessary where the master does not understand the details of the working of his business. The masters who have given evidence on this subject have all declared that the only

advantage pertaining to this system is that it relieves them from the supervision of their workshops, and that the sub-contractors derive their profits from the extra work which they obtain from the men.

The workmen, on their side, have shown the wrongs caused them by this system—decrease of wages, increase of work and, above all, an increase in the number of children employed.

Finally, the Commission has learned (pages 1361, 1362, Que.) of a factory where sub-contractors of twelve and fourteen years of age hire one or two children of about the same age.

The Commission has also discovered two cases where wages were discounted—that is, two cases of the most dangerous type of these exactions. A witness (page 783, Que.) declares that his master paid him in *Bons*, which he had to get discounted at a certain broker's, a friend of his master, at a discount of 5 per cent. Another witness, a foreman in a large factory, admits that he had the workmen paid only every fifteen days, although in other departments they were paid every eight days, and between the two payments he discounted the pay of the workmen.

It is sufficient to enumerate these abuses which lead inevitably to the sweating process and its attendant miseries, to induce legislation to suppress them by every legal measure possible. And the effect of the changes recommended by the Commission would certainly result in the disappearance of many of these abuses.

JULES HELBRONNER.

SECOND REPORT.

P R E A M B L E.

To His Excellency the Right Honorable Sir Frederick Arthur Stanley, Baron Stanley of Preston, in the County of Lancaster, in the Peerage of Great Britain, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath, Governor General of Canada, and Vice-Admiral of the same.

Your Commissioners appointed "for the purpose of enquiring into and reporting on the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours of labor and the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual and moral prosperity, and of improving and developing the productive industries of the Dominion, so as to advance and improve the trade and commerce of Canada; also, of enquiring into and reporting on the practical operation of courts of arbitration and conciliation in the settlement of disputes between employers and employes, and on the best mode of settling such disputes; also of enquiring into and reporting on the expediency of placing all such matters as are to form the subject of such enquiry under the administration of one of the Ministers of the Crown," beg leave to submit their report.

PLACES VISITED.

Your Commissioners have visited and taken testimony in the following places: In Ontario—Toronto, Windsor, Chatham, St. Thomas, London, Petrolia, Hamilton, St. Catharines, Kingston, Cornwall and Ottawa. In Quebec—Montreal, Quebec, Levis, Sherbrooke, Capelton, St. Hyacinthe and Hull. In New Brunswick—St. John, Moncton, Chatham, Newcastle, Fredericton, Marysville, St. Stephen and St. George. In Nova Scotia—Halifax, Dartmouth, Londonderry, Spring Hill, Amherst, Stellarton, New Glasgow, Sidney Mines, Glace Bay and Bridgeport. Nearly two thousand witnesses were examined. The testimony taken is hereto appended.

The witnesses who gave testimony were not in all cases residents of the places visited, but came from the surrounding districts and adjacent towns.

DIRECT ATTENTION TO CHIEF EVILS.

In considering their report, your Commissioners have felt themselves at liberty to direct attention to all the chief evils which were exposed by the testimony, and to ask for their removal, without presuming to determine in all cases what authority possesses the power to correct them.

REASON FOR SUPPRESSING NAMES.

It is to be regretted that a number of witnesses refused to permit the publication of their names, fearing dismissal or other mark of disapprobation on the part of their employers. If that fear was well founded it is greatly to the discredit of those exercising such petty tyranny. In most cases, however, employers were quite willing that their hands should testify, and a few actively interested themselves in aiding the investigation.

TABLE OF WAGES.

A table of wages, as paid in the places visited by the Commission, has been compiled, and will be found annexed.

The testimony taken sustains a belief that wages in Canada are higher than at any previous time, while the hours of labor have been somewhat reduced in some

sections. At the same time, many necessities of life are lower in price than ever before, so that the condition of the working people in this respect has materially improved. Especially has this been the case during the past ten years.

FACTORY LEGISLATION.

As will be seen from the evidence, in many of the factories and workshops the employment of children of tender years prevails extensively. It would be a waste of time to point out the injurious effects likely to arise from this evil. So long as it is allowed to continue the amount of education necessary to fit these children to become useful members of society cannot possibly be acquired.

In addition to their mental injury, there is also the physical ill which naturally follow upon a too early application to continuous work in the close-confined atmosphere of badly ventilated work-rooms.

To remedy this evil it is demanded that the employment of children, of either sex, under fourteen years of age, be strictly forbidden; that factories in which women and children are employed shall not commence work before 7 o'clock, a.m., that the hours of child and female labor shall not exceed fifty-four in one week or more than ten in any one day, and that night work be prohibited in all cases for children under sixteen years of age. (*See Factory System, page 37*).

EXISTING FACTORY LAWS.

Laws regulating the employment of women and children in factories and workshops are on the Statute Books of the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. So far as could be learned by the Commission, they are largely inoperative, and as long as any doubt exists with reference to the constitutionality of these measures they are likely to remain so. Masters and workmen agreed that it would be desirable to have a general Act upon this important subject. It is earnestly recommended that a test case be made and the jurisdiction settled once for all. If it were found that the power to legislate is vested in the Provinces, existing Acts could be more efficiently enforced, and workmen in the other Provinces could bring pressure to bear upon their Local Governments to enact similar measures.

STATE OF MORALS.

Careful enquiry was made into the state of morals in manufacturing towns and cities, and especially in cotton mills and other industrial establishments in which large numbers of both sexes are employed. The testimony on this point proves the moral character of the working women in Canada to be as high as that of other classes. It is believed that some scandal would be removed, and possibly some evil prevented, if all employers of mixed labor were required to provide wholly separate conveniences for the two sexes. (*See Morals, page 90*).

FINING OF EMPLOYÉS CONDEMNED.

It is recommended that the system of fining, in active operation in some lines of industry, and stores, be forbidden by law, under a penalty sufficient to ensure the breaking up of this pernicious practice.

Every operative and clerk ought to be reasonably certain that the wages, which by his or her skill and industry has been earned, shall suffer no reductions owing to the petty tyranny sometimes practised by those in authority. The money which is lawfully theirs, by right of the increased value which they have created, ought not to suffer any deduction whatever in reaching their hands.

There are ample means at the disposal of the employer to secure careful attention to work and proper discipline without resorting to these iniquitous exactions. (*See Fining of Employés, page 91*).

BOARDS OF ARBITRATION.

Strikes and lock-outs are the cause of much bitter feeling, vast pecuniary loss, and a wider estrangement of the employed and employing classes. We believe it is

possible to prevent, to a considerable extent, these causes of divisions amongst men by boards of mediation and arbitration, and would recommend that a system of local and voluntary boards, together with a permanent board, be provided, whose duty it shall be to arrive as speedily as possible at an amicable settlement of labor disputes. (See Arbitration, page 92).

LABOR CONTRACTS.

Contracts for labor, in order to be fair in their operations, should be equally binding upon both parties, the buyer and the seller. This is certainly not the case where the employés are compelled to bind themselves to belong to no labor organization as a condition of securing employment. It is a bartering away of the rights of citizenship in a free land. Trade unions are legalized by the laws of this Dominion, and any contract which binds the workman to abstain from attaching himself to one of these organizations, when he thinks that by so doing his material prosperity would be advanced, ought to be declared void and of no effect in law. (See Iron-clad Agreements, page 98).

SHORTER HOURS OF LABOR.

The evidence taken before the Commission shows that efforts are being made by the employés in many lines of industry to shorten the hours of labor. It is believed that with more time for study and recreation the working people of the Dominion would be more contented, more prosperous, and better fitted to discharge the duties of citizens of a free and self-governed community. In order to assist the workers in this laudable ambition it is urged that the Government aid the movement for shorter hours, by stipulating in every contract for work entered into with it that the contractor shall not employ his hands for a longer period than nine hours per day. (See Shorter Hours, page 98).

CASH PAYMENTS ASKED FOR.

Justice demands that the working people of the country should be paid in cash and in full, and whereas evidence has been adduced before this Commission showing that amongst lumbermen, miners, and some other classes, a species of payment in truck exists, to a certain extent, therefore your Commissioners are convinced that a law abolishing such payment would prove a great boon to those immediately the victims of it, and would, in addition, have a stimulating and healthy effect upon the trade of the country.

Your Commissioners are further firmly convinced that the more frequent payment of wages would be a great advantage to employés in all lines of industry, and that legislation enforcing payment of wages at least fortnightly would render the working classes more contented, frugal and prosperous. (See Truck System, page 100.)

COMPENSATION FOR INJURIES.

In only one Province of the Dominion (Ontario) is there any specific legislation providing for the compensation of workmen who are injured while in the discharge of their duties. Employés in the other Provinces—with the exception of Quebec, which has the Civil Code of France—are exempted by the doctrine of common employment from the obligation to compensate their workmen for injuries received while in their service, or the heirs of the workman, in the event of his being killed. In the opinion of your Commissioners a general act upon the subject would be both wise and beneficial, and this law should cover the case of all accidents to workmen while following their customary avocation, which are not brought about by their own carelessness or negligence. If, however, a Federal Act would be *ultra vires*, it is earnestly to be hoped that the workingmen of the other Provinces will shortly be placed upon the same footing, in this respect, as are those of Ontario and, to a certain extent, Quebec. (See Employers' Liability, page 102).

CERTIFICATES FOR ENGINEERS.

There is serious danger in permitting unskilled men to control large engines and boilers. It is therefore recommended that strict examination be made and certificates be granted to properly qualified persons; and none that do not hold such certificates be permitted to remain in charge of engines exceeding six horse-power, or of boilers used for heating factories or other large buildings. The practice of placing boilers under the pavements in some cities is a growing source of danger to life and property. And it is further recommended that a system of inspection that would cover all boilers should be made compulsory. (*See Stationary Engineers, page 105*).

SUGGESTIONS FOR SECURING GREATER SAFETY TO RAILWAY EMPLOYÉS.

The evidence of railway employés given before the Commission clearly establishes the need of some legislation on their behalf. Their occupation is of necessity a hazardous one, but much can be done to diminish the risk of accident and death incurred by them, by compelling the companies to remove unnecessary causes of danger. Your Commissioners would recommend that legislation be enacted to provide for a uniform width of running-boards; for the placing of a guard-rail on the outer edge of the roofs of freight cars; making it a penal offence to leave that portion of railway tracks known as frogs in an unprotected condition; to prohibit, if possible, the dangerous style of dead-woods that are attached to some freight cars; that every means be used to induce railway companies to adopt the automatic air brake in place of the hand brake now in use; and for the early introduction of a car-coupler that will remove the necessity for brakemen going between the cars in making up trains. The increasing amount of Sunday work is a matter of grave concern to the community at large, and steps should be taken to prohibit unnecessary labor on that day, and, if possible, put a stop to it entirely, so far as the moving of freight is concerned. (*See Railway Employés, page 106*).

UNSAFE VESSELS.

Sailors on our inland waters complain that their lives are oftentimes imperilled by their having to undertake voyages in vessels which are not seaworthy. As it has been recognized as a duty by most civilized countries to look carefully after the safety of these men, whose occupation is at best a perilous one, it is strenuously urged that legislation be had which will render compulsory a system of inspection for the vessels navigating our inland lakes and rivers; and providing, further, that no vessel shall be permitted to leave port unless she is properly manned with a sufficient staff of competent sailors, supplied with all necessary life-saving appliances, has proper accommodation for all on board, and is not so over-loaded as to prove unseaworthy. (*See Inland Navigation, page 108*).

THE OIL INDUSTRY.

Your Commissioners beg to direct attention to the interesting testimony bearing on the oil industry given at Petrolia. Some important information on the wants of that trade will be found from pages 692 to 730, Ontario evidence. As it is a matter of considerable importance to the people of the Dominion that this article, which enters so largely into domestic use, should be made as perfect and safe as possible, some attention might be given to the present system of testing the oil. In making any change, found necessary in the interest of this industry, every care should be taken that the non-explosive condition of the oil should be maintained. The request that an inspector of tanks be appointed seems a reasonable one, and it is hoped the Government will be able to meet the views of the producers in this respect.

PLATES FOR PRINTERS' USE.

Your Commissioners believe that the importation of stereotype plates and cellu-
loid matter from foreign countries, to be used in the printing offices of Canada,

operates unjustly to the Canadian mechanic. If, on account of its cheapness, publishers find it necessary to use such matter, it should be obtained from Canadian makers, and thus be made to furnish employment to our own printers and stereotypers. Your Commissioners, therefore, recommend that a sufficient specific duty be levied upon this matter, to prevent its importation. (*See Stereotype Plates and Celluloid*, page 109).

GEAR INSPECTOR.

We would recommend that an inspector be appointed at the principal shipping ports for the purpose of examining the gear to be used at the loading and unloading of vessels, so that accidents from use of defective ropes, chains, etc., may be avoided. (*See Longshoremen and Ship Laborers*, page 110).

PROHIBITION FOR MINERS.

As both managers and men of the coal mines of Nova Scotia expressed themselves very forcibly in favor of a law prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors in the vicinity of the mines, your Commissioners recommend a stringent law prohibiting the sale of such liquors within a certain radius of all mines.

LABOR UNIONS.

Workingmen's organizations have spread very rapidly of late years and with much apparent good to their members and trade. They have made it possible, in cities where they are strong, for workingmen to maintain their wages at a living rate. Much testimony was given of their influence for good in the discouragement of strikes and in advocating mediation and arbitration for the settlement of disputes between capital and labor. By stimulating their members to aim at a higher standard of proficiency in their callings they have done much to improve the skill of our artisans. To them is largely due the improved sanitary conditions in factories and workshops, the shortening of the hours for child and female labor and the separation of the conveniences for the sexes. In nearly all of these societies benevolence forms a prominent part of their work—the caring for the sick and injured, and the providing for the families of deceased members by their insurance departments. They inculcate a spirit of self-control, of independence, and of self-reliance in matters that affect their material welfare, and are the earnest promoters of temperance principles among the working classes. Your Commissioners recommend that in view of the good already accomplished the increase of such societies be encouraged by all legitimate means, and that one day in the year, to be known as Labor Day, be set apart as a holiday by the Government. (*See Labor Organizations*, page 111).

ALIEN CONTRACT LABOR.

Canadians are prepared to welcome to the Dominion, farmers and farm laborers who come with the intention of taking up land, but the immigration of mechanics and unskilled laborers should not be encouraged. The labor market of Canada is already overstocked, the only class of help for which the demand exceeds the supply being female domestic servants. The sending to Canada of waifs and strays from the poor houses and reformatories of other countries should be discountenanced. Canadian workingmen feel it to be an injury that alien foreign labor is allowed to be imported under contract. In the opinion of your Commissioners, penalties should be imposed upon the resident contracting party, as well as upon those who undertake the transportation of the alien contract laborer or mechanic into the Dominion. (*See Immigration*, page 114).

CONVICT LABOR.

Some testimony on the subject of convict labor was given before the Commission, but nothing new was elicited by the enquiry. The general feeling of the witnesses examined was in favor of keeping the prisoners constantly employed at some regular

labor, both on physical and moral grounds. Notwithstanding the opinion expressed by Warden Massie, of the Central Prison, Toronto, in favor of the contract system, it was considered by all others that prisoners should be employed on State account only, in the manufacture of such articles as are needed for Government use—that if any goods are made for sale to the public they should be such as will come least into competition with free labor. That all goods of prison make offered for sale should be stamped in a plain manner and a penalty attached for the obliteration or covering of the stamp.

COLLECTION OF RENTS.

We recommend that in the collection of rents landlords should have no preference over other creditors, and that as many articles of household use as are necessary to comfort should be exempt from seizure to satisfy any debt. That tenants should be protected against the growing practice of increasing rents from year to year at the will of the owners of houses or leasehold land. A simple remedy should be provided for arriving at the value of leasehold lands, where a renewal of lease is required, to protect the lessees from excessive costs. (See Land and Rents, page 115.)

LIEN LAWS.

Laws giving mechanics and laboring men a lien upon the products of their labor are in operation in most of the Provinces. Workingmen, however, sometimes have difficulty in obtaining their rights under these liens. In order to ensure that the wages due shall with certainty be paid it is recommended that liens for wages shall form a first claim upon a building, machinery or any article upon which a lien can legally be placed.

WAGES SHOULD BE A PREFERENTIAL CLAIM.

Serious loss has in some cases been experienced by working people through the failure of the person or firm by whom they were employed. Wages, to a considerable amount, have been lost in this way, entailing great hardship and much suffering. It is believed by your Commissioners that three months' wages of all operatives should rank as a preferential claim upon all insolvent estates, and that the assignee or other person in charge should settle claims for wages in full before the accounts of other creditors are dealt with.

ACTIONS FOR SMALL DEBTS.

The enormous costs attaching to the collection of small debts by process of law have been clearly set forth by some of the witnesses. It is a serious grievance and one which imperatively calls for legislative intervention. The opinion of your Commissioners is, that in all actions for debts of less than \$25 no greater sum should be allowed for costs than \$1. (See Collection of Small Debts, page 117).

GARNISHMENT OF WAGES.

Some information was obtained on the subject of the garnishment of wages. In several occupations it was stated that a second garnishee secured the dismissal of the workman. Under garnishee laws wage-earners are subjected to a method of compelling payment which cannot be applied to other classes. Laws entirely abolishing garnishment of wages, or leaving a very liberal amount free from attachment, are in force in some of the American States and similar laws we consider would be beneficial in Canada.

SAVINGS BANKS.

The facilities afforded by the Government and Post Office Savings Banks are, we are gratified to find, being largely taken advantage of by the working classes. The system offers a perfectly safe method of laying up funds to be drawn upon in cases of unforeseen emergencies, and thus prevents the degradation of being compelled to seek for charity. We would recommend that, in so far as the interests of the public will permit, the system be further extended, so that it may be brought within the reach of a larger number of working people.

PAYMENT OF WAGES IN SCRIP CONDEMNED.

Believing that only the Government and the chartered banks should be permitted to issue currency, your Commissioners recommend that payment of wages in scrip, notes, tokens, or any other promises to pay, or evidence of indebtedness intended to be used as currency, by any other persons or bodies, be forbidden by law. We would also recommend that in the case of bills intended to be used as currency, issued by any bank holding its charter from the Dominion Government, their acceptance at par value should be made compulsory at any branch of all other banks who derive their authority to do business from the same source.

SANITARY CONDITION OF WORKMEN'S DWELLINGS.

Intimately associated with the material welfare and social and physical well-being of the workingman is the sanitary condition of his dwelling. In the large cities very exhaustive evidence was taken, showing that the poorer classes are laboring under a serious disadvantage in regard to sanitary inspection of their homes, which hinders, in many cases, their moral and physical advancement. Often, by reason of the increase of rentals, the difficulty of obtaining constant employment, and the scarcity of suitable tenements in congested districts, workingmen are unable to exercise that choice which is necessary for their comfort and well-being. In most of the large cities and towns there are municipal laws having reference to sanitary matters, but owing to their indefiniteness, the apathy of inspectors, the influence of landlords, or the helplessness of the tenant, these laws are in a great measure inoperative.

CO-OPERATION

It is to be regretted that co-operation in business has not as yet made any considerable progress in Canada, though the principle, both in its productive and distributive forms, seems to be well understood and has many advocates among workingmen. This plan, as well as that of profit-sharing, has been adopted with success in England, France, and some few places in the United States. It would be productive of much good if carried out in the Dominion, and remove many causes of friction between capital and labor. (See Labor Organizations, page 111).

CO-OPERATIVE BUILDING ASSOCIATIONS.

In one or two places co-operative saving associations have been formed, to enable persons in comparatively humble circumstances to acquire homes. It is believed that the principle might be greatly extended in such a manner that weekly or monthly payments, not materially greater than present payments for rent, would in a few years purchase homes.

CHANGE IN SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The people of Canada are justly proud of the excellent system of education provided in their public schools, though it is a matter of regret that so many children of the working people are unable to take full advantage of the opportunities afforded, because of the early age at which many of our large industries are permitted to employ them. In some places visited by the Commission quite a number of children were found at work who were unable to read or write. It is felt by some that a change should be made in the curriculum of the schools, to render the instruction given more practical. Your Commissioners recommend that as far as possible the instruction be made such as will train the scholar to use his hand, his mind, and his eye together, and so fit him in after life to adapt himself to any mechanical calling he may adopt. And further, that special schools be established in our cities and large towns, where a full course of technical instruction could be had, and that in connection with these schools there should be evening classes for mechanics and apprentices. (See Education, page 118).

APPENDICES.

At a meeting of workingmen held in Victoria, B.C., a series of resolutions were passed, which will be found appended to this report, together with a number of letters which your Commissioners deemed it advisable to publish.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

Your Commissioners are firmly persuaded that the interests of working people will be promoted if all matters relating to them be placed under the administration of one of the Ministers of the Crown, so that a labor bureau may be established, statistics collected, information disseminated, and working people find readier means of making known their needs and their desires to the Government. (*See Bureaus of Labor Statistics, page 121*).

The foregoing recommendations endorsed.

JOHN KELLY,
S. R. HEAKES,
H. A. McLEAN,
U. CARSON,
JOHN ARMSTRONG,
WM. HAGGERTY,
WM. A. GIBSON,
PATRICK KERWIN.

* Also continuation of the evidence of Thomas Stewart, Ottawa.

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OUR FACTORY SYSTEM.

Factories of various kinds having been in existence in Canada for many years, but it was not until the impetus given by the protective tariff of 1879 had been fully felt that they became an important feature of the wealth and prosperity of the Dominion. With us the factory system has not grown slowly; it sprang into existence almost at one bound, and was the creature of the legislation adopted ten years ago. That a vast amount of good has been accomplished in promoting the material prosperity of the country by the large industrial establishments thus called into being is undeniable. To them the growth and consequent prosperity of our towns and cities is largely attributable. As it is impossible for all minds to think alike, so it is equally impossible to build up a country upon one industry alone. Some are attracted to the independent life of the farm, and are happy in its pastoral calm, while others prefer the rattle of the shuttle and the whirr of the spindle. That land is best off which offers to its people a diversity of employment, so that all may find avocations suitable to their inclinations. Nothing can be more certain than that the money which would have been sent out of the country to pay for the manufactured goods, had we continued to import them, would be followed by that class of our citizens who are attracted to the life of the factory operative. In this way both money and population would be sent out of the Dominion, neither of which could be spared, and to the manifest detriment of those who remained to till the soil. By encouraging the growth of industries in our midst we have become practically a self-contained people, able to produce for ourselves all that is necessary to support life in comfort, and even in some degree of luxury.

But it has also to be pointed out that in acquiring the industries at one bound we have also become possessed, just as quickly, of the evils which accompany the factory system, and which, in other lands, were creatures of a gradual growth. These evils have engaged the serious and special attention of the legislators of the motherland for generations. They sprang from the desire to acquire vast fortunes in the shortest possible interval of time, regardless of the suffering which might be caused to the individual or the bad effect upon the State. There seems to be no idea of any obligation existing between the employer and his operatives, any more than the mere payment of wages. To obtain a very large percentage of work with the smallest possible outlay of wages appears to be the one fixed and dominant idea. There is no bond of sympathy existing between the capitalist of the large mill and his employes, such as prevailed when smaller works were the rule, and an intimate personal acquaintance existed between the employer and the workman.

To arrive at the greatest results for the smallest expenditure the mills and factories are filled with women and children, to the practical exclusion of adult males. The reason for this is obvious. Females and children may be counted upon to work for small wages, to submit to petty and exasperating exactions, and to work uncomplainingly for long hours. These are the inducements to employ this class of labor and why it is being utilized so largely. It would be wrong to blame any individual mill-owner or corporation for this state of affairs. It is entirely due to the system which all alike work by. So long as one employer is permitted to fill up his factory with this cheap labor, without any restrictions, the others are compelled to do likewise, or suffer the consequences of being undersold in the general market. There are, however, excrescences upon the system for which individuals are altogether responsible, and for which there ought to be some way of holding them to strict account. One such presented itself in Montreal, where the conduct of a cigar

manufacturer, in a large way of business, was under examination. The evidence in connection with this matter will well repay a careful perusal. It is almost impossible to believe that such things should be done in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and yet it is very clearly proved that in this factory apprentices were imprisoned in a "black hole" for hours at a time. Occasionally the incarceration would stretch beyond the working hours, and a special visit would be made to the factory to release the poor little fellows. A special constable, who still wore his constable's badge, was employed to overawe and strike terror into the hearts of the juvenile offenders, and to carry out the punishment awarded by the proprietor and his foreman. Occasionally this Oriental despot would himself be the executioner of his own decrees, and did, upon one occasion, personally chastise, in a flagrantly indecent manner a girl eighteen years of age. And for all this the law provides no remedy—nay, incredible as it may appear, law, in the person of the Recorder of Montreal, expressly authorized the punishment inflicted. This gentleman, on being examined, stated that he had authorized employers to chastise their operatives at their discretion, so long as no permanent injury was inflicted; and this evidence was given in the Year of Our Lord one thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight, much as it might be wished that it referred to some period of the dark ages, when servants had no rights which their masters were bound to respect. The evidence (of both Mr Fortier and the Recorder—pages 123 and 388, Que.) describes a state of affairs which is simply astounding. So vicious was it that a boy who was one of the witnesses before this Commission asked to be sent to the reformatory as a means of escape from the treatment he received. The cigar manufacturer, when detailing his actions in the case of the young girl whom he so shamefully treated, seemed to think it a matter of very small consequence—a matter-of-fact, every-day occurrence, which it was not worth while making any ado about; and the Recorder was equally complacent when stating that he had empowered employers of labor to chastise their apprentices, because, in his opinion, it was "in accordance with common sense, which is the natural law, and conforms with positive Divine law and the civil law." Comment on such evidence would be superfluous. But it may be said that if there is any civil law in existence which authorizes the infliction of corporal punishment, as stated by the Recorder, it ought at once to be repealed; for so long as it remains upon the Statute Book Canada has no right to class herself with the civilized nations of the earth.

Other cases of brute force being resorted to by employers came before the Commission, but none of so flagrant a character as that referred to above.

What is imperatively required to meet such cases, and what we are convinced the public demand, is a stringent factory law, requiring frequent inspection by officers who will prosecute to the utmost limit men who are so completely regardless of the usages of civilization as to act toward their employes in this way.

A very common rule, one to be found in most factories, is that which requires a certain notice to be given before leaving the employment, under the penalty of forfeiture of wages earned. If this rule were a reciprocal one not much objection could be taken to it, but where, as is most frequently the case, employers hold themselves free to discharge employes without any notice, the rule is an unjust one. So unfair is it deemed to be that in the State of New Jersey an Act has been passed which provides that manufacturers who require from employes, under forfeiture of wages, notice of intention to quit, shall be liable to like forfeiture if they discharge employes without similar notice, unless in case of a general suspension of business.

The general hours of labor are ten per day, but in some instances longer time is worked, and it is particularly noticeable that where this is the case it is in factories where females and children constitute the greater part of the help.

The sanitary conditions of many of the large factories are good, but there is in nearly all the small mills, and in some of the large ones, vast room for improvement in this respect. Cases are frequent where no separate conveniences exist for the use of the two sexes, and cleanliness in flushing closets, etc., is not looked after as closely

as the health of the employé's require. The locking of doors, which might entail great loss of life in case of a fire panic, is a very common rule, and cases where adequate outside means of escape in case of fire are provided are remarkably scarce. There is very little attention paid to the safety of hoists, and accidents by falling down the well, or defective machinery for the working of these, are far too frequent. There are very few cases met with in which suction fans are used to carry off dust in works where a considerable quantity is generated. Machinery in the larger mills is fairly well guarded to prevent accidents, and this is due to the fact that a large part of the machinery is made in Great Britain, where such guarding is compulsory, and the protection forms part of the machine. In the case of machinery made in our own country, and in mills and workshops where such machinery is used, there might be considerable improvement made in this respect. It is very unfortunate that the question of jurisdiction should have been raised in the case of factory laws. While acts bearing upon this subject, and which, if properly enforced, would remedy many of the evils of factory life, have been passed in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec, it is notorious that they have so far accomplished little or no good. The Ontario Act was passed some two years before the inspectors provided for by it were appointed. Nearly another two years have elapsed since the appointment of these officers and during the whole of that time, up to the close of this enquiry, only one case had been brought before the courts. This inactivity cannot be for want of material to work upon.

The Act does not include places where less than twenty people work and it is notoriously winked at by employers of labor. Just as long as there is manifested a reluctance to enforce its provisions by process of law it will remain a delusion and a farce upon legislation. It would be better to discard it altogether than to retain it, and yet make no proper effort towards its enforcement. The same remarks, to a limited extent, would also apply to the Quebec Act. It had been passed two years and no inspectors had been appointed until the lamentable state of affairs prevailing in Montreal had been brought to light by evidence given before this Commission. In none of the other Provinces are there any laws regulating factory labor.

The utter uselessness of a provincial law on a matter like this, where all the Provinces are alike interested, has been made clearly apparent. Where a law has been passed by one Province, imposing restrictions upon the number of hours to be worked, or the ages of children who may be employed, and the adjoining Province refuses or neglects to do so, there is a great temptation on the part of the former not to put the law in motion for fear of embarrassing the manufacturers. It is apt to be considered, and rightly considered, that no restrictions should be placed upon one industry that do not apply equally to all who are in the same business. The protection which is given to manufacturers against outside competition proceeds from the Federal Government, and is enjoyed by all in common, and equally all should be placed on the same footing in the matter of restrictions. There is, too, a keen competition between different localities for the securing of these industrial establishments, and as the capitalist will naturally locate his mill at a point where there are no restrictions as to the hours of labor or class of help to be employed in preference to another place, where these laws are in force, an unfair advantage is enjoyed by the Province which refuses to pass a fair, just, and reasonable measure of protection to the factory worker. It must also be considered that the proper enforcement of factory legislation is too expensive for it to be resorted to by the smaller Provinces, which do not contain a large proportion of factory labor. These beneficial provisions would therefore, in all probability, be confined for a considerable period to a portion of the Dominion.

In view of all these circumstances we would strongly urge the desirability of a Dominion Factory Act, wherein uniformity of laws can be obtained. If there be a doubt as to the powers of the Federal Government in the premises there ought to be a way provided for removing that doubt.

The absolute necessity which exists for such a measure, the good results which would follow from the efficient enforcement of a uniform law throughout the Dominion being so much greater than could possibly be achieved by the divers provincial Acts, a united effort should be made to remove any difficulty that may be in the way. The feeling in its favor is general; it has been frequently and strongly expressed, and the working classes are confidently looking forward with the hope that in the not far distant future their wishes will be met. As the request they make is not an unreasonable one, so the difficulty to be overcome should not be an insuperable one. If it can be met in no other way, each of the Provinces might be asked to give their consent to a general Act of the Dominion Parliament.

MORALS.

Grave charges of immorality have from time to time been made against female operatives in the large mills and factories. Whenever such charges have been made very serious apprehension has been felt by the public and careful enquiry has been made, in order to arrive at a correct conclusion upon this all-important subject.

In considering this matter it is necessary to look closely at the conditions of life in which—through no fault of their own—these young girls are placed. Stern necessity obliges them to earn a livelihood, and in pursuance of the avocation by which they earn their daily bread they are frequently compelled to toil for long, weary hours in close, ill-ventilated rooms. In these rooms there is a general commingling of the sexes, which is partly necessitated by the nature of the work in which they are engaged, and which cannot be avoided so long as the division of the task between males and females remains as at present. To this extent employers are not to blame, but when we find that in many cases the closet accommodation is lamentably insufficient, and that no attempt is made at a separation of these conveniences, grave censure is merited. It has been sufficiently demonstrated that in some factories closets are used indiscriminately by the operatives of both sexes, and where the employer is thus careless of the moral feelings of his operatives it should be the duty of the State to interfere and see that the proprieties of life are strictly observed. In further consideration of the case of these girls it must be remembered that for a considerable period after commencing work in a mill or factory they are paid such small wages that it is almost impossible for them to live respectably and clothe themselves decently out of the amount.

Given these conditions, it is not a matter for surprise that one is occasionally driven in despair to a life of sin. But it is monstrous to condemn a whole class because of an occasional sinner, as has been far too frequently done in this matter.

This subject came prominently before the Commission at Montreal, and was also touched upon at other places. At Montreal one witness (page 314 Que.), asserted that a condition of gross immorality prevailed in one of the mills of that City. In reading this witnesses' testimony it will be well to bear in mind that he was an ex-employee of this mill.

His charges were very general in their nature, and provoked an outburst of natural indignation from the present employés of the company. A large number of these appeared before the Commission, and conclusively proved that the statements made by this witness were not warranted by the facts.

To make sweeping assertions of immorality against a whole class seems to be a comparatively small matter with some people; nevertheless, when their assertions are not consistent with the facts the cruelty and injustice involved ought not lightly to be passed over. The bare fact that a girl is willing to work hard during a long and tedious day for a very small allowance ought to be conclusive evidence that she is not inclined to a life of sin. The operatives of this mill who gave evidence before the Commission showed that though the toil is severe and long continued it is but rarely that one of the girls departs from the strict line of virtue. That occasionally

one is led astray is probably true, just as it is equally true, that cases of immorality are found, from time to time, in what are termed the "higher walks of life." We need go no further than the records of the divorce cases in the Dominion to prove that immorality is not confined to the poor, hard-working factory operatives.

In a return furnished by the officials of the penitentiary at Manchester, Eng., to prove how far the ranks of prostitution are recruited from factory girls, it is stated that "while eight out of every fifty proceeded from factories, no less than twenty-nine out of fifty were from domestic service." The percentage of immorality amongst factory girls is not so great as in other classes where the pinchings of poverty do not offer the same direct incentive to vice, and we believe that those who assert to the contrary are common libellers of a class who are nobly striving to live upright, honorable lives, under such conditions as should secure for them that "charity which thinketh no evil."

FINING OF EMPLOYEES,

Of late years a system of fining employes of factories and stores has sprung into existence. This system cannot be condemned too strongly. It provokes feelings of bitter and lasting animosity on the part of the employe against the employer, not so much on account of the amount deducted as from the prevailing idea that it is a form of petty larceny for which the law provides no punishment. It is worthy of note that the fines are only imposed upon females and children, the most helpless class of operatives. Men will not put up with deductions from wages which they have toiled hard to obtain, and therefore the system is not applied to them. As it is not found necessary in the case of adult male operatives, why should it be practised upon working women and helpless children? Not because of the necessity, but simply because it is passively submitted to. Of all the mean, pitiless exactions which labor has to suffer from this is the vilest. A young woman will work hard from Monday morning until Saturday evening for a paltry pittance of three or four dollars, and when pay day comes finds that the sum of 25 or 50 cents, or even \$1, has been deducted for some trifling breach of the rules, or because of the petty spite of the overseer.

It is fortunately true that the system is not extensively practised in Canada. It is as yet only in its infancy; but it is growing and unless some means is taken for preventing its spread is liable to permeate through all our industries. It is a noxious plant which has but recently been transferred to our soil, and before it assumes threatening proportions efforts ought to be made to root it out. If it be found that employers are not to be driven from it by public opinion, legislation should be resorted to to prevent these exactions being made.

Cases were found where females were fined 25 cents for taking a piece of toilet paper with which to curl their hair, and in the factory where this was done, and another factory under the same management, no less a sum than \$2,706.32 was collected, or, more properly, confiscated from the employes in one year. This sum was equal to 1 per cent. of the wages paid, and over one-quarter of the dividend paid to the shareholders, the dividend being 10 per cent. The shareholders had no compunction about receiving this money, but probably had they known the source from which it came they might hesitate before accepting it.

Where this fining system prevails little or no discrimination is exercised. Employes are just as liable to be fined for what is purely and entirely an accident as they are in cases where they have been careless. Advantage is also taken of the system by forewomen and overseers to vent their private spleen upon the operatives. Fines are imposed in these cases for laughing, for speaking to a fellow employe and other similar "offences."

A portion of the fines are collected for damaged, or what is alleged to be damaged, work. Whether the feeling is justifiable or not, there is no doubt of its

existence amongst employés in the fining establishments, that oftentimes they are fined for having damaged goods, which goods are afterwards sold, the damage being so infinitesimal that it is not observable to the buyer.

Employers attempt to justify themselves in imposing these fines by saying that negligence and carelessness are thereby prevented, and that if these fines were not imposed they would have considerably more spoiled work.

Without admitting the truth of these statements, would it not be more honorable, instead of fining an employé who is careless and negligent, or who spoils work, to discharge such employé after due caution, for, by retaining such operatives in their employ, and continuing the fining system to meet their cases, they do a gross injustice to the attentive, careful workers, who are exposed to the spite or malignity of the overseer, and are frequently made to suffer from this cause, and through no fault of their own.

We find this fining system in vogue all over the Dominion. Even Government institutions are not free from this evil. Take, for instance, the Quebec cartridge factory. Amongst the list of fines imposed (and they were many) was one as follows :—

One of the employés (a girl) had a pair of rubbers stolen during working hours, and forty-five of the employés, including the party who lost the same, were fined 5 cents each. The lost articles were valued at 50 cents. After the imposition of this fine the girl did not receive the price of her lost property.

In this establishment one boy had 4 cents and another 7 cents after their week's work, the balance being paid in fines.

It has been found necessary to legislate against this system of robbery in Great Britain, where it was found to prevail extensively amongst manufacturers of hosiery. For the benefit of the employés of this industry an Act was passed in 1874, which, by taking out the trade references and legal verbiage, would read about as follows :—

"1. In all contracts for wages the full and entire amount of all wages, the earnings of labor, shall be made payable in full, in the current coin of the realm, and not otherwise, without any deduction or stoppage of any description whatever.

"2. If any employer shall bargain to deduct, or shall deduct, directly or indirectly, from the wages of any employé, any part of such wages, or shall refuse or neglect to pay the same, or any part thereof, in the current coin of the realm, he shall forfeit a sum of £20 for every offence, to be recovered by any employé or any other person suing for the same in the county court in the district where the offence is committed, with full costs of suit."

During the last session of the Legislature of Massachusetts a Bill was introduced dealing with the subject of the fining of weavers, but did not become law.

In dealing with this question it seems to have been taken up by legislators piecemeal—why, or for what reason, it is difficult to determine. If the employés of hosiery manufacturers or persons employed in weaving are entitled to the protection of the law from these iniquitous exactions, certainly operatives engaged in other lines of manufactures, or employés of stores, should receive an equal measure of justice.

ARBITRATION.

The question of arbitration is one which vitally affect the welfare of the wage-earning classes. Arbitration has been successfully employed in settling disputes between corporations and between nations. Why should it not prove equally efficacious between employer and employé? There is a strong feeling prevailing throughout the Dominion in favor of some system whereby trade disputes can be settled speedily and amicably. This feeling is by no means confined to the workers. Very many employers express themselves favorable to any practical scheme of arbitration which can be produced and chrystalised into legislation. Among the labor organizations sympathy with some form of amicable adjustment of labor disputes is universal, and the stronger and more experienced the organization the more do its members appreciate the good

results likely to follow from the enactment of a practical and operative law on this important subject. Nearly all the trades unions and labor organizations have clauses in their constitutions providing that all possible efforts must be made towards an amicable settlement of disputes before a strike takes place. In many cases a strike must be carried by more than an ordinary majority vote, and in several bodies it is provided that each member voting on a strike must be a certain number of months consecutively in good standing in his trade union or other labor organization. These restrictions go to show that strikes are not looked upon with any degree of favor by the intelligent worker; and it is well that it should be so. Strikes are often far-reaching in their effects, as no one trade can be said to be entirely independent of others. For example, a strike or lock-out among stone cutters often necessitates the enforced idleness of carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers, painters and all skilled and unskilled laborers whose work is required on or about the structure which is being erected.

The loss and ill-feeling which follow in the wake of strikes are fully appreciated, and it is only when it is found to be impossible to rectify a grievance in any other way (and even then very reluctantly) that this method of settlement is resorted to. The strike is at present the only remedy which the wage-earners possess to secure redress of the wrongs which they occasionally suffer from. But the enormous losses which result from strikes do not all fall upon the shoulders of the workers. Both parties bear their share of the burden, and the employer who is far-seeing, and who has the welfare of his class at heart, is looking forward with as much eagerness as the intelligent workman to the time when a peaceful solution of labor troubles will be rendered practicable.

Happily, Canada has not experienced the same disastrous results from trade disputes as have been felt in other lands. Strikes have not been as numerous nor as extensive with us as they have been with other nations working under somewhat similar trade conditions. It should not, however, be forgotten that it is only during the last decade that our factory system has reached the dimensions which it has now assumed. While the workers were small and, as a rule, directly presided over by the proprietor, the terms of social intimacy which existed between employes and employer ensured the speedy adjustment of any differences that might arise. When both parties met frequently and on equal terms an amicable settlement of labor disputes was easily and speedily arrived at. But with the large development that has been going on during the past ten years; with the advent of works employing hundreds of wage-earners, the relations between capital and labor have assumed a different aspect. In the case of these large establishments it is clearly impossible for the proprietor, or head of the firm, to be on terms of intimate personal acquaintance with his employes, as formerly. Indeed, in many cases the capitalist knows nothing of the details of the work carried on, and is therefore seldom seen in the establishment of which he is the head. This new condition of things makes it much easier for trouble to arise, and very much more difficult to arrive at a settlement. The prosperity of the Dominion depends so largely upon the well-doing of the wage-earning class that no cause should be left for discontentment and strife which can be reached by a legislative remedy. The remedy asked for by the employes almost unanimously, and by a considerable portion of the employers, is some method of arriving at conciliation, mediation or arbitration.

But while the feeling on behalf of conciliation and arbitration is so universally prevalent, there is some diversity of opinion as to the exact form which it should assume. In European countries arbitration boards have been in existence for many years. It is claimed that the voluntary system has been very successful in England, that many disputes have been settled, and that many strikes and lock-outs have been prevented with the assistance rendered by voluntary boards of arbitration since first this system was established by Mr. A. J. Mundella, in 1860. Nearly all of the larger industries in England have arbitration boards, to which all trade disputes are

referred. The Act under which these boards are now constituted was passed in 1872. The main provisions of the Act are to—

1st. Provide the most simple machinery for a binding submission to arbitration.

2nd. To extend facilities of arbitration to all questions of wages, hours and other conditions of labor; also, to all the numerous and important matters which may otherwise have to be determined by justice under the provisions of the Masters' and Servants' Act.

3rd. To provide for submission to arbitration of future disputes by anticipation, without waiting for the time when a dispute has actually arisen and the parties are too much excited to agree upon arbitrators.

In France there exists one of the oldest systems of arbitration which is known as the "Conseils des Prud'hommes." These boards have been in existence for many years and provide a simple and effective method of arbitration upon all labor troubles and disputes. The "Conseil" consists of not less than four members, composed equally of masters and workmen. The president of the "Conseil" is chosen by the Government, and must be a master, although under the Republic of 1849 the president was a master or workman for alternate periods of three months.

Mr. J. H. Ralston, in giving an account of these councils, to the International Typographical Union which met at Washington in 1879, says:—

"It was my good fortune to be present at several sessions of the bureaus of the councils, and I was struck with the anxiety shown to render exact justice. The council seemed to me to be emphatically a court of workmen. In our courts we know that the employer is always at an advantage. In France master and man meet upon equal ground, and each defends his own cause. Therein exists a spirit of the most exact equality; the workman and employer each and equally concede its impartiality and justice. Such has been the testimony of all acquainted with the matter with whom I have been brought in contact."

In speaking of these councils of wise men Lord Lyons, British Ambassador, stated that fully 95 per cent. of the cases brought before them were amicably settled.

While, however, these councils have proved so satisfactory in France, it is not at all certain that they would be a success on this side of the ocean. Our systems of Government are not at all similar, and it does not follow that what has been found to work easily and without any friction in that country could be as readily adapted to the circumstances of our people in this western hemisphere.

The presumption, indeed, is rather against it, as it is found that while several of the States of the neighboring Republic have adopted arbitration laws none of them have followed in the line laid down by the legislators of France.

As the condition of our people so closely resembles that of the citizens of the United States it is much more probable that the legislation they have found to be beneficial would meet with an equal measure of success on this side of the line. In the United States we find two distinct systems in existence. The first consists of a voluntary local board, whose jurisdiction is confined to the county in which it is created; and the other is a permanent State board, whose operations extend over the entire State. The first is the prevalent system. Quite a number of States have laws of this nature on their Statute Books, but inasmuch as there is a great similarity in their provisions it would be useless to go over them all. A synopsis of the law in the State of Pennsylvania is given, in order to show how voluntary boards are formed and what powers they possess.

PENNSYLVANIA.

On presentation of a petition signed by fifty workmen, or by five firms, each employing not less than ten men, or by one firm employing seventy-five men, judges of the Court of Common Pleas are to issue a license to a tribunal for the consideration and settlement of disputes between employers and employes. Each workman signing the petition must have been a resident of the judicial district for at least a year; must have been in the trade he represents at least two years, and must be a citizen of the United States. The signing employers must be citizens of the United States

and have been engaged in business within the judicial district for at least one year. The petition is to contain the names of the arbitrators, who must be in equal numbers from both sides, and an umpire mutually chosen. One such tribunal may be created for each trade. It shall continue in existence for one year, and may take cognizance of any dispute submitted to it in writing. The umpire is to be called upon to act only after three meetings have been held, at which full discussion shall be had, and the tribunal has failed to agree. The tribunal is to consist of not less than two employers and two workmen. The chairman is given power to issue summonses and to administer oaths. When the matter is referred to the umpire he is to render a decision within ten days. Counsel are not allowed to appear before the tribunal.

Similar acts are in force in other States, but no material difference is made in their provisions from the foregoing. The main fact in connection with the voluntary county boards is, that although in some cases it is years since they were authorized by law, no use has been made of them. As a reason for this failure to utilize the provisions of these laws it is alleged in some quarters that when men's passions have become excited over differences that affect their profits or their wages it is not possible to get them together to calmly consult and to reach a conclusion as to who would be suitable parties to adjudicate between them. But whatever may be the reason (and the one above is by no means the only one advanced), it is undoubtedly true that these acts, constituting voluntary county boards, have proved a failure. The one prominent fact that they have not been brought into requisition proves very conclusively that they are not suitable to perform the mission for which they were intended.

Before leaving this branch of the subject it may be pointed out that the Province of Ontario has had an Arbitration Act for many years (Revised Statutes of 1887, cap. 140). Its provisions are somewhat similar to those of the voluntary boards of Ohio, Pennsylvania and New Jersey. There is a section in the Ontario Act, however, which destroys the effect of the entire measure, and which is not to be found in any of the other Acts alluded to. It reads as follows:—

“Section 28.—Nothing in this Act contained shall authorize the said board to establish a rate of wages or price of labor or workmanship at which the workmen shall be paid.”

Inasmuch as ninety-five one hundredths of the disputes which arise between the employer and employé relate to the rate of remuneration it is difficult to see what object it was hoped to achieve by an Arbitration Act containing such a section. It is needless to say that this Act has never been used, and that its very existence seems to have been forgotten. It ought to be altered, in conformity with the spirit of the age, or entirely rescinded.

But while the Acts constituting voluntary boards have almost universally remained unused, the State boards of Massachusetts and New York have met with a different reception. To say that they have proved an unqualified success would be, perhaps, speaking too strongly of Acts which are as yet largely in the experimental stage. Even at this early date in their existence it is not, however, too much to say that they have very largely fulfilled the expectations and the promises of their promoters. The Massachusetts board has decided, impartially and satisfactorily, quite a number of cases in which their services have been called into requisition. But it is not so much their undoubted success as arbitrators to which attention should be particularly drawn. Since the change in the Act, which enables the board to act as mediators in all cases of trade disputes (whether their services are called upon by the parties or not), they have speedily and unostentatiously decided many cases which, if allowed to proceed the usual length of labor troubles, would have developed into strikes and lock-outs that would doubtless have resulted in serious loss to the parties involved. On this point the Massachusetts board, in their second annual report, say:—

“Besides the hearing and investigation of grievances submitted in due form, on the joint application of both parties, the board has been frequently consulted, as well by employers as by workmen and workwomen, in regard to differences which did not call for any extended inquiry, and were quietly adjusted without publicity, and without any formal hearing or adjudication by the board.”

The report also goes on to say :—

“ In all the cases regularly submitted by both parties the recommendation of the board has been accepted and acted upon without material variation, and although by law the binding force of a decision is limited to the term of six months, it has generally happened that the status of the parties has remained unchanged after the expiration of the prescribed time. To sum up the result of our experience we have no hesitation in affirming our sincere belief in the efficacy of conciliation, mediation and arbitration, as contemplated by the laws of this State, for the settlement of differences between employers and employed. It is due to the workmen, considered as a body, and to the members of labor organizations that have come in close contact with the board, to say there appears to be among them an increasing aversion to strikes and a more ready acquiescence in the adoption of methods which appeal to the sense of justice and to right reason. The very existence of a board, ever ready to entertain such appeals, from whatever quarter they may come, is of itself a reminder of the excellence of peaceful methods in comparison with strikes; and thus employers and employes are compelled, as it were, to choose their positions more carefully, to be more reasonable in their demands and more ready to make concessions for the purpose of meeting and proceeding together on a common ground for their mutual advantage. Whatever influence this board has been able to exert has been thrown in this direction; and, without doubt, settlements are more readily arrived at by the parties themselves, because of its existence as a possible board of appeal, easy of access and actuated by the single purpose of doing justice between man and man. It should not be expected that all questions directly involving the earnings and profits of considerable numbers of men and women, having interests that are in some degree conflicting, will be settled at once and for all time by any simple agency. But whatever tends to establish more kindly relations between citizens and neighbors, and to uphold justice and right as the standards by which these questions must sooner or later be tried, is an agency which cannot fail to meet with due appreciation by free and intelligent members of an enlightened commonwealth.”

The New York board does not seem to have had quite as many cases before it for decision as the Massachusetts board. This may be owing to the fact that there were not so many labor disputes in the former State, or that their people have not yet been fully educated up to the point of utilizing the board in all difficulties that arise. Or it may be, as the board itself says, that the mere fact of there being such a tribunal in existence has had a deterring effect. In their report for 1887 they say :—

“ The anticipations that vesting the power of mediation and investigation at will in the board would exercise a deterrent influence upon disturbing elements in cases of ordinary labor grievances and disputes has, it is fully believed, been realized to a very large extent, and has justified the belief expressed that a power of inquiry and publicity, representing the sovereignty of the State, would have great moral effect in restraining a disposition on the one hand to exact too much from employes and, on the other, to strike without justifiable cause against employers.”

The experience of this board (N. Y.) would seem to have led its members to believe that voluntary boards, with an appeal, in cases of disagreement, to the State board, is the most effective means of settling disputes. They say :—

“ We are sorry to state that only in a few instances have provisions been made for permanent voluntary boards of arbitration, consisting of an equal number of employers and employes, to whom disputes arising in a particular industry or trade are referred. We are of opinion that if such a board was appointed in each trade or calling, the members thereof to serve for a stated period, and meetings to be held from time to time for the consideration of disputes, provision being made for appeal in case of disagreement to this board, there would be little or no contention between capital and labor and strikes and lockouts would no longer be resorted to.”

It may be interesting to mention that one of the cases which this board investigated was a dispute between contractors and laborers in the city of Rochester, in which the contractors refused to employ men who were members of any labor organization, although the employers had themselves formed an organization of contractors.

At the session of Congress held in 1886 President Cleveland addressed a message to that body, recommending legislation upon this subject. In pointing out that the relations between labor and capital were far from satisfactory, the President suggested that in order to prevent disturbances and disputes which arise, a commission be created, to consist of three members, who should be regular officers of the Government, and who should be charged with the consideration and settlement, where possible, of all controversies between capital and labor. The message points out that while the Federal Government must be guarded in its action, owing to constitutional restrictions, there are many of these labor disputes which arise amongst transportation companies who do business in several States, and in these cases Federal

interference would be justifiable, while in other labor disturbances, confined within the limit of one State, the interposition of the Commission might be tendered upon the application of the Legislature or the Executive of the State. Legislation based upon this message was introduced, but, so far, no National measure upon the subject has become law. Such boards as those of Massachusetts and New York are necessarily somewhat expensive. It is a question worthy of consideration whether all the Provinces of the Dominion would feel themselves justified in incurring such an expense. As, however, this Commission has been requested to report on "the practical operation of courts of arbitration and conciliation in the settlement of disputes between employers and employes, and on the best mode of settling such disputes," we would recommend, as the plan best suited to accomplish the object which the Government have in view, and the one most likely to succeed with our people, the following:—

Boards of conciliation and arbitration to be appointed by the Dominion Government in all the larger centres of trade. These boards to consist of three persons—one employer of labor, one selected from some labor organization or one *bonâ fide* workingman, these two to choose a third person, who shall be the chairman; but in case no agreement is reached by these two in thirty days, then the Government to appoint the third arbitrator, who need not necessarily be a member of either of the two classes mentioned. This board to receive no remuneration, except for the time actually engaged in investigating labor troubles or cases submitted to them for adjudication.

In addition to these local boards there should be a permanent board of arbitration—whose members might be connected with the Bureau of Labor Statistics—and their time utilized by that bureau when not actually engaged in their duties as arbitrators (the Bureau of Labor Statistics to be under the control of a Minister of the Crown). This board also should consist of three members, and at least one of them should be a member in good standing of some labor organization. Whenever it should come to the knowledge of this permanent board that a labor dispute is pending, or contemplated, it should be their duty to send one of their number to the scene of the disturbance. On arriving there he should at once place himself in communication with both parties to the dispute and offer his services as mediator in arriving at a settlement. In case this cannot be successfully accomplished, he should endeavor, by all means in his power, to obtain the consent of the parties to a reference of the case either to the local or the permanent board. In conducting this part of his duties the arbitrator should have power to summon witnesses and examine them under oath. Should one party to the dispute refuse to submit the case to either of the boards, then the arbitrator to have power to make a report to the full permanent board, stating the full facts of the dispute, as elicited by him, and which party thereto is mainly responsible or blameworthy.

Should the parties to the dispute prefer to submit the case in the first instance to arbitrators mutually chosen such power should be given, and the decision of such a tribunal to have the same force and effect as though it were given by one of the regularly constituted Government boards.

Where the dispute has first been adjudicated upon by either the local or a voluntary board, and either party is dissatisfied with the decision, then an appeal should lie to the permanent board—the decision of the permanent board, whether in case of appeal or in the event of their having acted in the first instance, to be final and conclusive, and to have the same effect as a decision given by any court of record.

Witnesses summoned before either the local or permanent boards to have the same fees as are allowed in division court cases, but the court may, in its discretion, grant an additional allowance for lost time and travelling expenses incurred. Any one of the members of either the local or permanent boards to have power to issue summonses, to examine witnesses under oath and to require the production of all books and papers bearing on the subject in dispute.

The decision of either the voluntary, local or permanent board to be rendered

within five days of the close of the hearing of the case. A copy of the decision given by any voluntary or local board to be sent within ten days of the close of the hearing to the permanent board.

IRON-CLAD AGREEMENTS.

In some cases, not very numerous we are glad to say, employers have taken advantage of the necessities of the working people to compel them to sign documents which obligate the employé not to belong to any labor organization (*see* page 1,131 Quebec evidence, for specimen of agreement). Inasmuch as there can be no reciprocal arrangement entered into, as it is clearly impossible for workmen to make it a condition precedent to entering employment that the employer shall not belong to any trade organization of employers, no such agreement should be considered binding at law. It may be said that employés are not compelled to sign these agreements, that they do so voluntarily, but it still remains true that no workman would, of his own free will and accord, sign such a document if he were given any choice in the matter. As one writer on this subject put it:—

“To treat it (labor and wages) as a simple exchange between equals is absurd. The laborer must sell his labor or starve, and may be obliged to take such terms for it as to leave him without the means of enjoying the rights which society award him, and discharging the duties which society claims for him. Look on him as a ware if you will, but remember that he is a ware that has life, that has connections, responsibilities, expectations, domestic, social and political.”

These documents are signed only because the employer make it compulsory to do so before entering his service, and when it becomes a case of seeing his family in need of the necessities of life or signing a “cast-iron” agreement there is but little choice, and it can scarcely be looked upon as an entirely voluntary act. It is an infringement of the liberty of the subject which ought not to be tolerated.

It is gratifying to note that steps are being taken to prevent the making of such agreements in some communities. The Legislature of the State of New York, at its 1887 session, passed the following Act:—

“Section 1.—Any person or persons, employer or employers of labor, and any person or persons, or any corporation or corporations, or on behalf of such corporation or corporations, who shall hereafter coerce or compel any person or persons, employé or employés, laborer or mechanic, to enter into an agreement, either written or verbal from such person or persons, employé, laborer or mechanic, not to join or become a member of any labor organization as a condition of such person or persons securing employment, or continuing in the employment of any such person or persons, employer or employers, corporation or corporations, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor. The penalty for such misdemeanor shall be imprisonment in a penal institution for not more than six months, or by a fine of not more than \$200, or by both such fine and imprisonment.”

Such a law would, we believe, be beneficial in this country.

SHORTER HOURS.

The movement among the workingmen for shorter hours of labor has advanced to some extent in the large centres of population. Some trades that have a thorough organization have managed to secure a reduction in the number of hours constituting a day's work. Nine hours per day, with the half-holiday on Saturday, is not by any means the rule in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, but it has been fought for and obtained in some cases, and the movement is still slowly spreading. Much more might be accomplished in this direction by combined and persistent effort on the part of the organized labor bodies. When it comes to be fully and clearly recognized by those who live by labor that the greatest boon which they can obtain for their class is the shortening of the hours of toil still greater efforts will be made in this direction. The men who assert that to shorten the hours of labor will be simply to add to the gains of the saloon keeper, that the additional time would be spent in the tavern, are not so numerous as they were.

The discussion of this subject has elicited the fact that excessive drinking is far more prevalent amongst the men who work long hours for poor pay than where the worker is employed reasonable hours and is fairly compensated for his labor. On the other hand, the number of men who believe that eight hours for work, eight hours for study and amusement, and eight hours for sleep, constitute a natural division of the hours of the day are becoming numerous. It is true that some employers and capitalists are strongly opposed to the movement, but it must be remembered that there has been no effort ever made for the amelioration of the condition of the worker which has not met with strenuous opposition. Professor Thorold Rodgers in his excellent treatise on "Work and Wages," says :—

"Employers have constantly predicted that ruin would come on the great industries of the country if workmen were better paid and better treated. They resisted and have resisted, up to the present day, every demand which workmen have made for the right of association, for the limitation of children and women's labor, for the shortening of hours, for the abolition of truck, for the protection of their workmen's lives and limbs from preventable accidents, and are now appealing to the doctrine of liberty of contract, after having for centuries denied that liberty."

The necessity for a reduction of the hours of labor is shown by the vast increase in the number of labor-saving machines which are constantly being brought into operation. While these machines are doubtless of inestimable advantage, it is equally true that their first operation is to do away with so much hand labor. This has the effect of constantly unsettling the labor market, and the number of men who are unable to find remunerative employment is very great. The Hon. Carroll D. Wright gives, in his report to the United States Government, an instance of an agricultural machine shop in the west which employs to-day some 600 hands, where, under former conditions of hand-work 2,145 would have found employment. The same official, commenting on the statistics of the last census says "that the industries of the United States were carried on by 4,000,000 of workers, while at the same time there were 1,000,000 unemployed people. If the hours of labor were reduced by one-fifth employment will be found for a large part of this army of unfortunates." Professor Rogers tells us that in the fifteenth century eight hours was the rule; and certainly, with all the improvements that have since taken place in mechanical pursuits, it should not be necessary to continue the ten-hour system all through the nineteenth century. The eight-hour working day is almost universal in Australia, and has been since 1856. In that country the 21st of April is celebrated in each year in commemoration of the establishment of the eight-hour system. Surely we should not be behind our fellow colonists at the antipodes in our trade methods. If it has been found to work satisfactorily there for thirty years it might be worth while trying it in our own Dominion. In several States of the Union eight-hour laws are in operation in all work done for, or on behalf of, the State Government. California goes further, and compels all municipal corporations within its boundary to stipulate in all contracts made by the corporation that eight hours for a day's labor shall be inserted as one of the clauses of the contract. Congress has also passed a law that "eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen and mechanics employed by, or on behalf of, the Government of the United States."

That a corresponding reduction of pay does not necessarily follow a decrease in the hours of labor has been frequently demonstrated. On the contrary, it has, in many cases, been the means of securing increased remuneration. The reason is obvious,—more workers are able to secure employment, which releases the market of its surplus labor and competition is consequently decreased.

But the most important point for the State to consider is, that in order to increase the value of the citizen it is necessary to educate the man, and education can only be obtained when the worker has some time at his disposal for the acquirement of knowledge. The means are provided by our public libraries, mechanical night schools and mechanics' institutes to a considerable extent; but of what use are these means of education so long as the worker has no time to utilize them. When ten hours labor is demanded upon each day of the week the necessary time is not avail-

able. With these hours the man who lives by the toil of his hands has no leisure in which to acquire the knowledge necessary to fit him to become a more useful tradesman, a more valuable citizen, or a more intelligent being.

Some time must be given up to amusement, recreation, and relaxation, and what little leisure the worker finds himself possessed of now is devoted largely to those purposes. Were it otherwise the human frame would be worn out long before the time is reached when the laborer can retire and live on the savings of the years of his more vigorous manhood.

Many employers, also, are now turning their attention to this question as a possible means for the prevention of over-production so frequently complained of. A reduction in the hours of labor would not mean a total loss of production for the whole of the reduced time, as in many occupations the strain is too great to permit of the worker keeping up the tension to his utmost capacity for ten hours. Commissioner Wright says that Massachusetts, with ten hours work per day in its cotton factories, produces as much per man or per spindle as the other States which work eleven or more hours. He also states that the wages are as high, or higher, than in the States where the mills work the long hours. Whether this ratio could be kept up under an eight or nine-hour system is yet to be demonstrated. If, however, a greater steadiness of production could be obtained under the shorter hours system it would be a boon, not only to the employed, but to the employer also. As the Government is vitally interested in seeing that its citizens are able to take an intelligent part in promoting the prosperity of the country—and as, moreover, it is the duty of all Governments to endeavor to secure a happy and contented people, and as nothing in the power of the Government to bestow would tend further in this direction than the shortening of the hours of labor, it might be asked to do something to aid this movement. The Dominion does now provide that some of its servants shall be employed only during a reasonable period of the day. Six or seven hours constitute the day's work for civil servants, and surely those who labor with their hands are deserving of equal consideration at the hands of the Government. While it may be possible that the people of the Dominion, as a whole, would not favor the passage of a sumptuary law, making it an offence to employ work-people longer than nine hours in any one day, yet it might, and should, be possible to do as has been done by the Legislatures of the United States. In all contracts for public works, it should be a condition precedent to obtaining the contract that no workman should be allowed to work more than nine hours per day. The Federal Government might set the example in this matter and there would then be little difficulty in getting the provincial and municipal bodies to do likewise. This accomplished, it would give an impetus to the shorter hour movement, and would tend to the advantage of the Dominion, in that it would be the means of making the toilers more contented, more prosperous, more intelligent and therefore better and more valuable citizens.

TRUCK SYSTEM AND INFREQUENT PAYMENTS.

The evil consequences of payment of employes by the "truck system" has been almost universally condemned, and we find where it has prevailed in England special commissions have reported on its evils, and special legislation has been passed for its removal.

Your Commissioners are pleased to report, judging from the evidence which came before the Commission, that the existence of the evil in Canada is limited and that where it does exist it is in a modified form. The cases which came before the Commission were found principally among miners and lumbermen, although there were a few other isolated cases (page 1,105, Que.) The plea of non-compulsion is generally urged by all making use of the truck system, and that the firm or company deal in store goods solely for the accommodation of their employes, and that the goods furnished by them are as cheap and of as good value as are obtained in other stores.

But in one case we have the testimony of the manager of a large mining store in Cape Breton that the goods which the company furnish to their employes could be given at a cheaper rate. One of the most flagrant instances of this system came to light in Ontario, where cheques and scrip were issued, payable at the company's store in trade, and which, if tendered at any other store, or attempted to be converted into cash, were subject to a large discount, even at the store of the company that issued the scrip. There was one case in which the employer owned all the land in the vicinity and no other store was allowed, thus preventing rival trade and competition.

Nor are the workmen the only sufferers from this pernicious system, but the whole population, both agricultural and commercial, feel its effects. The farmer often finds himself obliged to accept payment in trade from his individual customers, and the supplies required by the company are oftener paid for in trade than in cash.

In this way open competition is frustrated, trade paralyzed, and a certain sort of monopoly created. Take an example from the evidence: A mining firm employs about 600 men and boys. About 300 of these deal in the company's store, under the non-compulsory system. Allow an average of \$20 per month for the supplies of each and we have, during twelve months, the modest sum of \$72,000 monopolized by this firm. We can readily see the effect of this on the trade of the district. And this is not an isolated instance.

Closely allied with the truck system is another evil. Where the system is in vogue it is found that the workman must wait from a month to six weeks for his pay. This length of time is usually longer than the ordinary workman can support his family without running into debt. He must have the necessaries of life, and here comes the advantage to the employers who supply him.

When pay day comes the balance due is paid in cash, but frequently it is small, and often it is found that the balance is against the workman. This process repeated from month to month discourages the workman, and habits of carelessness, extravagance, and dependence, are the result. Very soon, also, will it be learned by the workman, even where no compulsion is used, that he who patronizes the "store" has in many cases the best chance of steady employment and sure advancement.

By means of the truck system, combined with infrequent pay-days, the employer is able to draw a double profit, or more than a double profit, for he has not alone a profit on the man's labor and also a profit on the goods, but he has the use of, and is probably drawing interest on, the money which in all fairness belongs to the employe.

It should be remarked, also, that railroad employes are not paid in truck, but they must wait one month for their pay. These suffer by the monthly system of payment, for they are rendered dependent, to a large extent, on one store for their supplies; are thus deprived of open competition, and are, in a manner, placed at the same disadvantage as the victims of the truck system.

The principal argument advanced by employers for not paying their hands fortnightly is the necessity of employing more clerical assistance, this requiring an extra expenditure of money.

Even admitting the necessity of more office work, it should also be taken into consideration that the benefits which would accrue both to operatives and managers would more than counterbalance this outlay. The hands would be rendered more comfortable and contented, and it would be found that a class of more willing and careful workers would soon offset the expense incurred by extra office work.

Laws have, from time to time, been passed bearing on the truck system. Several of the American States have such Acts in operation; but perhaps the most comprehensive is the English Act, which was passed as far back as 1831. This Act provides:

"That every payment made to an employe by his employer of or in respect of any wages, by the delivery to him of goods, or otherwise than in the current coin of the realm, shall be and is hereby declared illegal, null and void.

"Every employe shall have the right to recover from his employer the whole, or so much of the wages earned, as shall not have actually been paid to him in cash."

If a similar law were in force in this country, and accompanied by an Act compelling employers to settle with their hands at least once a fortnight, it would very soon accomplish the desired end.

Laws requiring weekly or fortnightly payments are in operation in several of the States of the American Union, and it may also be stated that amongst the strikes which have occurred in the United States from 1881 to 1886 no less than seventy-eight were undertaken either against the truck system or for a regular or more frequent pay-day.

Your Commissioners earnestly recommend that some legislation be enacted by the proper authorities for the abolition of the truck system; and also feel convinced that a law requiring the payment of wages at least fortnightly would have the effect of rendering the workmen of the Dominion more willing, more frugal, and more contented.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

With some of the subjects upon which legislation is desired by the working classes there still remains to be settled the question of jurisdiction. While quite satisfied that legislation is desirable, and that they ask nothing more than they are fully entitled to obtain from their chosen representatives, the employés are unable to decide whether it is to the Parliament of Canada or the Local Legislatures that they ought properly to apply. One of these moot subjects is that of an Employers' Liability Act. From the opinions expressed it is clearly evident that an efficient and comprehensive measure holding employers liable in damage for any injury happening to the employé while in the pursuit of his avocation—when such injury was not caused by the carelessness of the employé—is desired, and is looked upon as a simple measure of justice to the wage-earner.

It is also quite clear that a general Act is likely to prove more effectual than a local one, and that—as in the case of the Factory Act—it would be wrong to place an employer in one Province under the operations of such an Act and allow his business rival, across the provincial boundary, exemption. To do so is to provide an inducement to manufacturers to locate their works in the Province which does not feel called upon to legislate in the interest of the working people. But this does not dispose of the constitutional question; that must still remain to be settled by the regularly constituted tribunals. It is considered quite needless here to dwell at any length upon the main point, viz., whether employers should properly be held liable for accidents occurring to their own workmen? Within the past few years that question has been discussed in most constitutionally governed countries, and the principle laid down by the English judge, Baron Alderson, in 1850, in the case of *Hutchinson vs. The York, Newcastle and Berwick Railway Company*—"that a servant when he engages to serve a master, undertakes, as between himself and his master, to run all the ordinary risks of the service; and this includes the risk of negligence on the part of a fellow servant whenever he is acting in the discharge of his duties as servant of him who is common master of both," has now for some years been over-ridden by specific legislation in the mother land. It was felt to be a cruel injustice to allow a chance visitor to a mill or factory, in the event of an accident occurring, such as a boiler explosion, to be able to recover damages for any injury received, while an employé of the works—to whom the fireman might be as entirely unknown as he would, in all probability, be to the visitor—should be debarred from recovery, because of the fallacious doctrine of common employment.

The Act relating to this subject was passed by the British Parliament in 1880 and was to continue in force for seven years. It provides that the employer shall be liable where the accident occurs:—

"1. By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant connected with or used in the business of the employer.

"2. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has any superintendence entrusted to him whilst in the exercise of such superintendence.

"3. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, to whose orders or directions the workman, at the time of the injury, was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed.

"4. By reason of the act or omission of any person in the service of the employer, done or made in obedience to the rules or by-laws of the employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the employer in that behalf.

"5. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive, engine or train upon a railway."

The amount of compensation recoverable under this Act is not to exceed the estimated earnings, during the three years preceding the injury, of a person in the same grade employed during those years in the like employment in the district in which the workman was employed at the time of the injury.

In order to insure themselves against claims made under the Act, employers have, in many cases, formed associations, which undertake, out of funds contributed for that purpose, to defend cases which it may be thought advisable to contest and to pay claims which have been adjudicated upon. In like manner the trades unions of the workmen—notably the United Carpenters and Joiners—for a small sum, payable yearly, undertook to prosecute claims which their members might have to bring before the courts.

In 1886 a Select Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to take evidence upon the operations of this Act. As a consequence of the recommendations of this committee the Act was continued in force, and there was added to it a provision that no contract or agreement made or entered into with a workman should be a bar, or constitute a defence to, an action for the recovery of compensation for any injury, unless in entering into or making such contract or agreement there was some other consideration than that of the workman being taken into or continued in the employment of the defendant. Such consideration, it was pointed out by the committee, should be "the employer contributing to an insurance fund for the benefit of the workman against every accident arising in such employment, and that some authority must certify that the employer's contribution bears full proportion to the contribution of the workman, and that the benefit to be derived by the workman from such insurance is fully adequate to any amount he might recover as compensation under the Act." The Act was also amended so as to hold the employer liable where a workman was injured while in the employ of a sub-contractor, where the plant or machinery causing the accident was owned or furnished by the employer.

In France all questions of this nature were regulated by the common law until 1888. The articles in the Civil Code, under which actions could be brought were:—

"Art. 1382.—Any action whatever of a man which causes an injury to another obliges the person by whose fault the injury has occurred to repair it.

"Art. 1383.—Everybody is responsible for the injury he has caused, not only by his action but also by his negligence and imprudence.

"Art. 1384.—A man is responsible not only for the injuries he causes by his own action but also for that which is caused by the action of persons for whom he is answerable or of things in his charge.

"Art. 1386.—The owner of a building is responsible for the damage caused by its fall, when such fall has taken place in consequence of defective maintenance or faulty construction."

These articles were in operation for nearly a century, forming part of the Napoleonic Code of 1804.

Owing to the enormous number of cases coming before the courts great difficulty was experienced in reaching a conclusion. It is considered that substantial justice was done to the workman under these articles, the only ground of complaint being the want of expedition in trying the cases. Plaintiffs were able to obtain legal assistance, have counsel provided gratis, and all the steps of legal procedure taken free of charge, where they had not the necessary means wherewith to prosecute their suit. Where the sum awarded did not exceed \$300, there was no appeal from the decision of the trial judge, who also settled absolutely the question of responsibility. The judge had also the right to over-rule contracts signed by the workman as a condition to his obtaining employment, in which he contracted himself out of the provisions of the law.

Some specific legislation in connection with employers' liability was passed in France during 1838, but no reports have been published as to the operations of the Act, so far as known.

In Germany there is a law, passed in 1835, which imposes on employers the obligation:

"(a). To compensate workmen injured in his service.

"(b). To pay a pension to the widow of the workmen killed in his service.

"(d). To maintain the children of the workmen killed in his service until they have reached a specified age."

In Germany, as in England, employers have formed themselves into associations to insure against claims under this Act. At first, workmen employed in the post, telegraph, railway and inland navigation service were not allowed to take advantage of the provisions of the Act, but a subsequent amendment has conferred the same rights in their case as had been accorded to other employés. The only cases in which an employer is relieved from responsibility are:

"1. Where the injury suffered by the workman has no connection at all with the execution of his practical work—as, for instance, being injured in a quarrel with a fellow workman.

"2. Where a workman wilfully injures himself, or wilfully causes the accident."

If the accident is caused by gross or criminal neglect of the employer or the working manager the employer is compelled to pay back to the insurance association of which he may be a member the amount received by the workman. Employers are positively forbidden to contract out of the law; any such contract is considered null and void. The liability of the employer only commences after fourteen weeks have elapsed from the date of the accident. For the first thirteen weeks the workman is supported from a sick fund, to which contributions are compulsory. To this sick fund the employer contributes one-third and the employé two-thirds. In case of death the widow and children are awarded a pension proportionate to the wages earned by the husband and father. The law applies to the whole of the German Empire, and over-rides any special laws on the subject in the individual States. It has been too short a time in operation to form any positive opinion as to its operations.

On this continent several of the States of the American Union have passed laws with reference to the liability of the employer. Alabama passed, in 1887, a law which is almost an exact copy of the English Act.

Massachusetts, a State which is always well to the front in labor legislation, had a statute which provided that:

"No person or corporation shall, by a special contract with persons in his or its employ, exempt himself or itself from any liability which he or it might otherwise be under to such persons for injuries suffered by them in their employment, and which resulted from the employers own negligence, or the negligence of other persons in his or its employ."

But this was superceded, in 1887, by an Act framed on the same lines as the English Act, although somewhat differently worded. The amount receivable under the Act is not to exceed \$4,000 in cases of injury, and death claims are to be fixed in accordance with the degree of culpability of the employer or person for whose negligence he is made liable. The minimum amount to be awarded in case of death is \$500 and the maximum \$5,000. The Act is not to apply to domestic servants or farm laborers. The workman is not entitled to recover if he knew of the defect or negligence which caused the injury and failed, within a reasonable time, to give notice thereof.

A number of other States have Acts whose provisions are confined solely to employés of railway companies. As a very large proportion of the accidental deaths and injuries of employés is furnished by these companies, special measures have been passed, or provisions incorporated in general railway Acts, to meet their case.

Thus, the State of Georgia provides that:

"If the person injured is himself an employé of the company, and the damage was caused by another employé, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to the recovery."

Similar Acts are in force in the States of Iowa, Kansas, Rhode Island and Wisconsin, and the territories of Montana and Wyoming.

In our own country, the Province of Quebec having the same Civil Code as that of France, employés have a remedy in the same articles of the Napoleonic Code.

Ontario has an Act, called the "Workmen's Compensation for Injuries Act," which has been in existence since the 1st July, 1886. It is almost identical with the English Act and, although it is as yet too early in its existence to have had a thorough test, it may be considered as fairly acceptable to the working classes. The compensation recoverable under it is likely to prove too small in some cases. Supposing a man to be working for \$1 per day, and in an accident losing both arms or both legs, or entirely losing his sight, and thereby becoming incapacitated from work for life, the sum of \$900 would be a totally inadequate compensation.* There should be a larger discretion left to the trial judge, the maximum amount being fixed, as in the Massachusetts Act, at say, \$4,000. There is also the singularity in connection with this Act, that whereas most of the States of the American Union which have legislated on this matter have done so specially in the interest of railway employés, the Ontario Act expressly exempted, for a considerable period of time, this class of labor, the fact of there being an insurance association in connection with one of the principal roads leading to this exemption. When it is remembered that the company did not bind itself to give any certain amount to this association, and that it was, and is, kept up by the compulsory subscriptions of the men, it cannot be a matter for surprise that the employés of the company were strongly of opinion that they were being unfairly treated.† The railway employés who gave evidence on this subject were entirely opposed to the way in which their money is deducted to keep up a system of insurance over which they have no control. Notwithstanding these draw backs, however, the Act is welcomed by the workers as a harbinger of a yet fuller measure of justice in the near future.

So far as was ascertained, no other Province had dealt with this subject and, as a consequence, the work people of the Dominion, outside of Ontario and Quebec, are still prevented by the doctrine of common employment from obtaining compensation for any injury they may receive while following their avocations. This is a matter sincerely to be regretted, and it will, we trust, not be long before it is rectified and every citizen of our Dominion placed on an equality in this matter, either by means of an Act of the Federal Parliament or by the other Provinces placing upon their Statute-books Acts which, while doing justice to the hard working and careful wage-earner, will not embarrass the employer who exercises proper caution and has a due consideration for the lives and limbs of those who are aiding, by their skill and industry, to build up his fortunes and add to the wealth of the Dominion.

STATIONARY ENGINEERS.

Your Commissioners beg to draw the attention of the Government to the evidence of the many engineers who appeared before the Commission in the various cities visited. Those witnesses were among the most intelligent examined, and the majority of them appeared to be masters of their business and thoroughly conversant with the details of building and managing engines and the proper care of boilers. And while the testimony was obtained in many places there is a unanimity of

* At the 1889 Session of the Ontario Legislature amendments have been introduced, increasing, to some extent, the amount recoverable.

† The time during which railway companies were, under certain conditions, exempted from the operation of the Act, has lapsed, and the law may now be taken advantage of by all classes of workmen.

opinion running all through their statements as to what they consider necessary for the encouragement of this industry, the turning out of skilled workmen, and the protection of employes where steam is used as the motive power for operating machinery. It appears from the evidence that the proportion of skilled mechanics who are in charge of engines and boilers is small, when compared with the number employed at this work; the preference being given to the unskilled or handy man. This is felt to be unfair to the man who has spent several years in learning his trade, and has fitted himself for so responsible a position only to find, when capable of undertaking the charge, that an unskilled man, with little or no previous training, is, by many employers, given the preference, for the reason, apparently, that because of the keen competition in the labor market, and the fact that unskilled labor can be purchased cheaper than the skilled, the profits of the employer are increased; no thought being given to the risk of accidents by explosions, caused through ignorance of the man in charge of engine or boiler. To remedy this state of affairs it is suggested by the witnesses that the Government should pass an Act similar to that governing steamboat engineers, making it compulsory for those in charge of engines and boilers to pass an examination and procure a certificate of competency before being allowed to take the position. This, it is contended by the witnesses, would only be fair to those who have served a regular apprenticeship, and would be the means of stimulating efforts to become thoroughly efficient at the trade by those employed in this industry. It would also add largely to the sense of security of life and limb of other employes in establishments where machinery is used, and while it would thus be a benefit to others would entail no hardship on the engineers, who eagerly desire such an Act. The witnesses were of opinion that the certificates should be graded—first, second or third-class—according to the proficiency shown by the candidate for examination. This would also enable those using small engines, or with small factories or mills, to obtain duly qualified engineers at the minimum rate of wages. The proper care and inspection of boilers is another matter to which attention has been drawn in this connection. It is felt that to have proper care, the man in charge of the boiler should have a practical knowledge of the construction and management of the same, and all boilers should be inspected at least once a year by an inspector appointed for that purpose, who should have power to enforce his orders for repairs when necessary. By so doing the risk of accidents would be reduced to a minimum. The necessity for this is more apparent when it is stated that in many of the cities quite a number of boilers are placed under the pavements of the streets, a practice which is becoming quite prevalent, and one which, in the interests of the public, would seem to call for some attention at the hands of the proper authorities. Objection may be made by employers whose business requires the use of small engines, and those only occasionally, that it would be a hardship to compel them to employ a certificated engineer when they already have in their employ mechanics well qualified (yet without certificates) to run an engine at such times as it may be necessary. To meet such objections it might not be out of place to exempt engines of, say, five or six horse-power, and less, from the operation of such an Act as is here contemplated.

RAILWAY EMPLOYÉS.

Careful enquiry was made in the large railway centres into the condition of railway men, with a view to obtaining from them information that would assist in arriving at the best means of protecting the lives of those engaged in the hazardous occupation of trainmen. A perusal of the evidence of railway employes will clearly establish the fact that far too many accidents take place which are of a preventable character, that many lives are lost which would be spared by a comparatively small outlay by the railway companies. It is surprising to notice that, notwithstanding these matters have frequently been brought to the attention of railway managers, so little should have been done in the direction of removing the causes complained of.

The varying width of the running-boards on freight cars is a matter that ought to receive prompt attention. There can be no excuse offered that will justify the continued use of the narrow board, as described by a Grand Trunk Railway conductor on page 516, Ont. The question of expense ought not to be allowed to stand in the way for a moment.

Running boards, according to the testimony given, ought not to be less than 24 inches, and should project beyond the end of the car far enough to reduce the hazard of jumping from one car to another to a minimum. For the better protection of brakemen, railway authorities should be directed to place a guard-rail on the outer edge of the deck of freight cars. The expense would not be great, but the frequent accidents to men point to the necessity of this means of saving themselves when thrown down on the roof of a slippery car.

The want of uniformity in the height of box cars is also a very great source of danger to the brakemen, and one which presents some difficulty of solution, owing to the large number of refrigerator cars now in use. These cars are built much higher than the common freight cars and it is with difficulty that the brakemen can pass from the deck of an ordinary car to that of the refrigerator. Especially at night is this the case. Much of the difficulty might be removed, however, if railway companies had a standing rule, making it compulsory for their employes, in making up trains, to separate one class of cars from the other, so that in trains where both kinds of cars are used they would form separate portions of the train. The use of automatic air-brakes on freight cars would almost entirely remove the danger from the decks of the cars; for, with the adoption of that brake the necessity of the brakeman to be on the decks of the cars would, to a large extent, be done away with. That the air brake can be successfully operated on freight trains seems to be fully established by the statements of practical railway men who gave testimony before the Commission. (See evidence of J. B. Morford, page 555, Ont.; John Hall, page 771, Ont.; and D. Pottinger, page 311, New Brunswick). It has been operated on the Intercolonial Railway for some time, and has given satisfaction; all the new cars that are now built for that road are fitted with air-brakes, and experiments in the United States prove that trains consisting of forty cars have been controlled without any difficulty by this means. The present systems of coupling cars are, however, responsible for the majority of accidents to trainmen. It is satisfactory to know that the various railway companies are making a special study of this subject, and it is to be hoped that before long a coupler, which will replace those now in use, will be adopted. Attention must be drawn to the unnecessary risk which is incurred in coupling with some of the American cars using the Canadian roads, that of the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western being particularly dangerous. (See page 521, Ont.) It is almost impossible to couple these cars without injury to the men who are obliged to go between them in the discharge of their duty. Accidents from frogs are still very frequent, and some stringent measure should be adopted to compel railway companies to fill these parts of their tracks and thus prevent the feet of their employes from being caught when shunting or switching. The usual hours of train men are from eight to twelve per day, though in some instances they are kept on duty for a much longer period without rest, and in a few instances they are worked nearly seventeen hours each day in the week, Sundays excepted. (See page 250, New Brunswick).

A great deal of Sunday work is done on all the lines, and in some yards the men are at work all that day making up trains. Much of this work might be avoided by a little consideration on the part of the railway authorities. (Page 782, Ontario). In the interest of railway men, some steps should be taken to prevent the increase of this work and, if possible, to stop it altogether.

On all the railways the employes are paid monthly, a system which causes a good deal of feeling on the part of the men, nearly all of whom would welcome a change to fortnightly payments as a great boon. Besides having to wait a month for their pay the company retain fifteen days' wages. In consequence of this system much

unnecessary hardship is entailed upon the poorer paid classes of employ es. It is impossible for them to buy for cash, and the pass-book has to be resorted to with all its attending evils. The wages of the men are frequently garnisheed, as a consequence, an event which, if it occurs a second time, invariably brings dismissal from the service. The only plea of any consequence the managers of railways advance in justification of the continuance of this system is that it necessitates the employment of more clerical assistance in preparing pay-lists, a consideration that ought not to be admitted as against the interests of employ es, who are the sufferers under the present rules, and some consideration should be given to their views in this matter.

INLAND NAVIGATION.

BETTER INSPECTION OF VESSELS, ETC.

A large amount of evidence was taken by the Commission in respect to the condition of vessels trading between lake ports, the inspection of same, and the treatment of sailors employed on board. While it is difficult to obtain a statement giving the actual number of sailors employed during the summer season on the great inland lakes of the Dominion, it may be safely said that at least ten thousand men find employment during the period of navigation. Many of these incur great danger and hardships in the performance of their duty, and a large number of lives are annually lost which in many instances might be prevented by a thorough system of inspection. At the present time (except for insurance purposes) there appears to be no proper inspection of sailing vessels, therefore no protection is afforded to the crews who are placed entirely at the mercy of the owners, in so far as the proper condition of the vessels as to sea-worthiness is concerned; and it is stated in evidence that a very large number of craft now trading on the lakes are, for this reason, little better than floating coffins. This is particularly the case during the months of October and November, when, from the inducements offered of high freights for cargoes, a large number of vessels are pressed into service, which, from their age and condition, ought not to be allowed to leave port, at least during this part of the season. This class of vessels are almost invariably uninsured, they have consequently not been inspected, and not a few of them are wrecked and the crews lost. Many vessels are also employed during the latter part of the season which may be termed barges, but which frequently are old vessels partially dismantled that are towed by steamboats from port to port. The evidence points out that these vessels do not carry sufficient sail for ordinary working purposes, and when, as it often happens in case of a storm arising, they are cast off by the steamboat, or break adrift from the same; they are completely at the mercy of the wind and waves; whereas, if they carried enough canvas to work with, the crew would at least have a chance of saving the vessels and their lives as well.

Complaints are made of the insufficient number of crew carried on all classes of vessels. Particularly in the cases of barges is this noticeable as they are, at times, sent on trips with three or four men on board, when twice that number would not be more than sufficient for the ordinary handling of a boat under sail. Many men, also, are shipped as sailors who are incapable, from ignorance, of performing the work required of them. An instance of this is given in the evidence taken at St. Catharines, Ont., where it was stated that a vessel lost on Lake Ontario, in the fall of 1887, had but three men on board, only one of whom (who had charge of her) was a sailor and he was disabled through an accident which had occurred some weeks previous. The evidence of Edward Smiley, marine diver of Port Dalhousie, clearly shows how utterly unfit for service this vessel was. Very serious complaint is also made of the practice of overloading. In some cases to such an extent is this done that it is with great difficulty that the crew can move about the deck to perform their

duty. Not only does this add unnecessary toil to the sailor, but it frequently makes the boat unmanageable. Especially is this so when a high sea is running. Thus a vessel when fairly well laden will have more buoyancy to ride over a sea, and will answer her helm freely, and if her rigging and gear be good there is comparatively little danger of disaster; but, when loaded beyond her capacity the reverse is the case. The same vessel, instead of rising with the sea, plunges into it and labors heavily, making it almost impossible to steer a course. The danger from this source is more apparent during the two stormy months of the season mentioned above than during the fine weather which prevails in the early part of the summer when navigation is nearly always possible under any favorable condition of the vessels employed. The sailors who gave evidence before the Commission were a unit in expressing a desire for the Dominion Government to pass a law regulating the loading of vessels, making it compulsory that every vessel, when her cargo is on board, should have sufficient free board to enable her to weather any storm she might encounter, with tolerable safety, when making a trip. They suggest that a mark be placed on the side of the vessel, in such a position as would ensure a free board of from 2 inches to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches for each foot of depth of draft when loaded, and they believe if this were done the loss of life and property would be very much less than at present. The evidence was also strongly in favor of the appointment of inspectors, with power to go on board at any time during the season of navigation and order all necessary repairs to hull and gear that may, in their judgment, be found necessary to ensure the safety of the vessel and crew. At the present time it appears that inspection for insurance purposes seldom extends beyond the hull, whereas it is claimed by the witnesses examined that the inspection of a vessel should extend from the keel to the truck at the masthead, and should include everything on board used in working the craft, such as canvas, spars, standing and running gear, pumps, anchors and chains, windlass, yawls, etc. Some better provision should also be made for the accommodation of the crew, the forecastles in most of the sailing vessels on the lakes at the present time being not only entirely inadequate, but they are described by some witnesses as being unfit for occupation for want of ventilation and proper fittings. In some cases it is said that the men prefer to sleep on deck rather than subject themselves to the unwholesome atmosphere below. Testimony was given of the want of life-saving appliances. It is not considered a part of the necessary outfit at the present time to have life-preservers for the use of the crews in case of emergency. It is true that each vessel carries one boat of some sort, but experience has shown that it is not safe to depend solely upon this means of saving life. In addition each vessel should have on board at all times a sufficient number of cork life-preservers to supply each member of the crew with one.

It is to be hoped that the Government will see its way clear to act in this matter and by means of necessary legislation protect our people engaged in inland waters; because, if the property of the owner is valuable to him, the lives of the crew are of much more value than the craft.

STEREOTYPE PLATES AND CELLULOID.

Your Commission has taken evidence in the different Provinces which they visited regarding the importation and use of stereotype plates and celluloid in the printing offices, in lieu of set type. One witness in Ontario (pages 925, 926) testifies that in the interest of the Canadian printer and stereotyper a sufficient duty should be imposed to exclude from the Dominion the imported article, and that all matter of this class should be set in Canada by our own mechanics, rather than by those of a foreign country. This can only be accomplished by a high protective duty. Were such a duty imposed it would undoubtedly give more employment to the men in the various branches which are interested in the manufacture of such plate-matter. Another witness (page 323, Que.) testified that imported plate-matter was an injustice to the Canadian workmen. He further stated that an additional injury was com-

mitted by the fact that such matter was exchanged from one city to another in Canada. Such interchange, while being unfair to the public, by circulating stale literature, tended "to take the bread and butter out of the printers' mouths." On pages 165, 166 (New Brunswick evidence) a witness states that plate-matter and celluloid, *alias* "feather weight," when used in newspapers for space-filling purposes, contributed in a marked degree to keep men idle; and further, that "if plate matter were not imported into Canada the position of journeymen printers would be materially improved." The use of plate-matter in newspapers is not considered an evidence of progressive enterprise.

The cost of celluloid, one witness claimed, amounted to only 1 cent per lineal inch, delivered in New Brunswick. The injustice to Canadian printers is thus made apparent. Another reason why American plate-matter should be excluded is upon the ground of immorality. One witness in Ontario (page 1,011) stated before the Commission that to his knowledge plate matter was obliged to be returned on account of its immorality. Literature of an "airy" character, unsuited to the tastes of Canadian readers, is often circulated through the medium of American plate-matter. Your Commission would therefore strongly urge that a sufficient duty be placed on plate and celluloid matter coming into Canada to insure its entire exclusion. If reading matter of this class is absolutely necessary, on account of its cheapness, no valid reason can be advanced why such plates cannot be obtained from Canadian makers.

LONGSHOREMEN AND SHIP LABORERS.

There is one occupation (longshoremen) which has engaged our attention in the principal shipping ports of the Dominion, and a great deal of information was received by the Commission from both merchants and laborers on this subject. It must be remembered that these men, working along shore, exposed as they are to all kinds of inclement weather, toiling from morning until night and, in many cases, from night till morning again, exposed to dangers of every sort at their hazardous work, have many grievances to complain of. For instance, in Montreal, they state that they are sometimes compelled to work continuously thirty-five and forty hours. The remedy for this evil rests in their own hands, for, organized as they are, it is their duty to see that no man should work so long as to injure his physical powers, and the merchant or ship-owner knows that relays of fresh men would do more work in forty hours than one gang could, and both capital and labor would be better satisfied with the change.

In Quebec about 2,000 men are employed during navigation loading and unloading craft of every description, and difficulties have arisen from time to time between the Board of Trade and the Ship-Laborers' Society. But during last season (thanks to the visit of the Commission there previously) several concessions were made by the society, and a better feeling now exists upon both sides.

In St. John, N.B., about 420 men are organized as a union. In former years strikes and disturbances had taken place, but during 1887-88 an agreement was entered into between the merchants and the union (see page 238, N.B. evidence) and both parties have carried out this agreement.

The unnecessary competition of workmen with each other can be seen in the matter of overtime. Every man who works longer than the regular hours of his trade deprives some fellow-workman of his share of labor and adds to the number of men unemployed.

It is admitted by competent judges that in manual labor cheap workmen are unprofitable. It is a great mistake to suppose that the lowest-priced labor is always the cheapest. Sir Thomas Brassey, probably one of the best informed men in the world on that subject, conclusively proves that cheap labor is certainly not the best.

The unions that these men, in the cities named, have formed have certainly aided them to secure better compensation for their labor and more regular payments (see page 1088, Que.); but considering the severity of the work, and the short period during which their labor can be carried on, so far as Quebec and Montreal are concerned, their yearly wages cannot possibly be considered excessive.

INFLUENCE OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Among other matters brought out by this Commission is the interesting and important bearing on the labor question of the influence of workingmen's organizations. Nothing could be more striking than the contrast furnished between organized districts and others where as yet the principles of a trade organization are little known and still less acted upon. And if the progress that has been made towards uniting capital and labor in cities that are comparatively well represented in the ranks of labor bodies is to be taken as a criterion of the usefulness of such societies, we may well believe that they are destined to be a very important factor in the solution of the labor problem. And as the work of consolidating the ranks of labor makes progress, so will its influence extend and its usefulness become more apparent. Slowly but surely are capital and labor becoming drawn more closely together, as the aims and principles of united labor are better understood. In 1887 the President of the English Trades Unions Congress said in his address to that assembly: "The principle of appeal to facts and reason, instead of brute force, is rational, and at once commends itself to the judgment of men." This official declaration is a recognized principle in the operations of labor societies. That great progress has been made in the last few years is evidenced by the fact that a large percentage of the disputes that have arisen between employers and their employes have been amicably adjusted, either by conciliation or arbitration brought about by the efforts of the various trade societies involved. A number of statistics might be quoted from the returns both in Great Britain and the United States, but two or three that have been carefully selected will suffice for the purposes of this report. Thus, Mr. Edward W. Bemis, in the *Political Science Quarterly*, June, 1887, writes of the English trade unions:—

"During the last thirty-five years the percentage of expenditure in trade disputes has been only 3.86 per cent. out of disbursements amounting to \$12,459,000."

Mr. Cadman, in the "Unity of Capital and Labor," page 209, states:—

"It is estimated that 99 per cent. of the union disbursements have in late years been beneficiary and only 1 per cent. has been used in industrial warfare."

And although organization is not so complete in the United States as in Great Britain, the results are in keeping with the progress made. Mr. Powderly, General Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, said on March 8th, 1886:—

"Since the 1st of January preceding, the Executive Board of the Order had settled 350 cases by arbitration, which otherwise would have resulted in strikes."

The President of the Cigar-makers International Union testified before a committee of the United States Senate, "that in the three years preceding 1883 his union had prevented more than 300 strikes."

One of the good results, therefore, of labor organization in other countries has been to place capital and labor in such a position that it is reasonable to expect that in the near future the strike will be a thing of the past and boards of arbitration will have taken its place. That this is also the goal of Canadian workingmen is fully borne out by the testimony of hundreds of witnesses who were examined by the Commission, many of whom were especially appointed by the societies to which they belonged to give evidence bearing on this matter; and it is gratifying to state that in many instances, where labor organizations existed, very many of the largest employers of labor have endorsed what the men have stated in reference to their desires in this respect.

That the wage question is the most prolific source of trouble there can be no doubt, and it is for the removing of this cause of friction in a friendly way that labor bodies have most strenuously persevered. The claim that workingmen do not receive full value for their labor, that they are too frequently unable to make ends meet, and that capital often takes advantage of their necessities to regulate the price of labor, appears to be well founded, when judged by the evidence given before the Commission. This state of affairs is, however, more apparent in the places that are not organized, and where wages are invariably lowered in the winter season. But in cities and towns where labor is organized, higher wages not only rule, but usually remain the same throughout the year. This is to be attributed to the fact that these societies claim an equal right with the employer in determining the amount to be paid for the labor given, the principle laid down being that the minimum rate shall be a living rate of wages for all. And it is noticeable that the report of the Bureau of Statistics of the State of New Jersey shows that where labor is thoroughly organized, both male and female, females receive the same remuneration as the males for the same class of work. It is pointed out that associations of manufacturers and others meet together and find no difficulty in establishing the selling price of goods, thus determining beforehand the profits to be derived. Workingmen ask why should not capital and labor meet together and fix the rate of wages to be paid for the production of the goods. An industrial partnership of this kind would at once settle the wage question, and in like manner dispose of the question as to the length of the day's labor. Labor says: Remove or settle these two questions, and the unity of capital and labor will be an accomplished fact.

The principal objects of labor societies, until recently, were the protection of the worker in his wages and the prevention of undue competition among them by shortening the hours of labor. But these organizations have extended their field of usefulness, and their educational value cannot be overestimated. They have been very beneficial in promoting a spirit of self-control, in instilling a knowledge of parliamentary proceedings and in conducting meetings. A spirit of independence and self-reliance has grown with their progress, looking rather to their own efforts to accomplish their objects than appealing to the Government for assistance. Though much can be done by legislation, they themselves have, and can do, a great deal to better their condition by united action. In a mob men trample on each other, but in a disciplined army they brace one another up. So labor unions prevent disorder to trade. Nor should the character of those who compose these societies be overlooked. In nearly all of them proficiency in their calling, as well as a good character, is made a condition of membership. Mr. Geo. Howell, in the *Nineteenth Century Magazine*, October, 1882, says:—

“Now whatever differences of opinion may be entertained with regard to the particular objects which these men may have in view, or as to the policy of unionism in general, one fact cannot be ignored, namely, that the workmen who constitute this vast industrial army are, as a rule, the picked men of their several handicrafts, and represent the flower and skill of the various trades to which they belong, and of the industries at which they work.”

He points out that formerly meeting rooms were given free in public houses but now, owing to the little money spent for drink, a fixed rent is charged, showing that such societies are conducive to temperance.

Of late years the principles of social and political science have been added to the aims of workingmen's societies. Co-operation, until recently so little understood, is now a cardinal principle in the constitutions of these bodies, and while as yet not much has been done to bring into practice this principle in business in the Dominion, there is not wanting an intelligent knowledge of the subject, both distributive and productive, which knowledge will doubtless bear good fruit in time to come. There are many advocates in the ranks of labor to-day who claim that in the practice of co-operation, or in what is known as industrial co-partnership, involving profit-sharing with the principal features of co-operation embodied in it, is the only basis on which production can be carried out that will be perfectly just to both capital and labor.

That this principle may be carried out with safety to the capitalist is amply attested by experience in other countries.

In France, up to August, 1887, over fifty firms had adopted profit-sharing with success.

In England the first attempt appears to have been that of the Mitchell Hay Co-operative Manufacturing Society of Rochdale, Lancashire; followed at different periods by others, till in 1882 there were seventy-two companies in the same county, with a paid up capital of \$27,806,100, and all were in a flourishing condition. In 1884 the net annual profits of seventy-one joint stock mills in Oldham, Lancashire, were \$1,369,680, or about 9½ per cent. on the paid-up capital. In the United States there are many noticeable instances of the success of this plan. Messrs. Pillsbury & Co., of Minneapolis, Minn., state: "We doubt very much whether we have lost anything by the extra money we have distributed amongst our men. We think we get the best, most loyal and faithful help in the world—that we are getting back largely if not entirely all we pay out to them." (It is understood this firm distributed in three years, besides paying high wages to their employes, over \$100,000). Mr. Nelson, of the N. O. Nelson Manufacturing Company, of St. Louis, wrote, March, 1887: "After one year's experience of profit sharing the experiment has been an entire success." (H. W. Cadman). Thus it appears that merely as a business matter, apart from any other principle, this subject is worthy of consideration of all employers who are desirous of increasing the returns from their capital without injury to their employes. To the persistent efforts of labor organizations may also be traced, very largely, the advanced state of public opinion in relation to the sanitary condition of factories, workshops, and dwellings of the working classes. It is now impossible in organized labor centres to neglect these matters. Employers find it difficult to carry on business where no attention is given to the health and comfort of their employes. In many places where these societies exist there is now an entire separation of the conveniences for the sexes, and care is taken that no corrupt influence shall gain any foothold where males and females are employed in the same building. The shortening of the hours of labor for women and children has for years been kept before the public by labor organizations, though as yet with indifferent success. Much progress has also been made in preventing the sending to this country, by interested people and charitable societies in other lands, an undesirable class of immigrants, and it is due to the reiterated persistency in protesting against this wrong, by organized labor, that the practice of sending the helpless and pauper classes to become burdens on our people and charities has been very much lessened and will, it is hoped, be prevented altogether.

Thus in many ways the influence of labor organizations have had a beneficial effect to those who have taken advantage of the opportunity they afford of discussing the whole labor problem in its economic, social and political aspects.

Some of the especial benefits are better wages, shorter hours of labor, better protection from accident, a more friendly relation to capital, prevention of child labor, higher education, a better knowledge of their trades through the discussion of their wants, voluntary and compulsory insurance, payment of sick and death benefits, and the extension of relief to the needy.

There have been many mistakes in the past; the enemies of labor can point to follies, and even crimes, that have been committed, for which in some cases the organizations were responsible, but the same may be said of all bodies of men, public or otherwise. Even Parliaments are not free from such errors. The late President Garfield said: "All free Governments are managed by the combined wisdom and folly of the people." It would be unfair, therefore, to expect that associations composed of workingmen, often half educated, or not educated at all, would be free from mistaken motives and acts at times. Tracing such societies from their earliest history to the present time and noting the immense amount of good they have conferred on their members, all must admit that the benefits conferred far outweigh the loss. So good an authority as Professor Ely, says, in his *Labor Movement in America*, page 138:

"The labor movement, as the facts would indicate, is the strongest force outside the Christian church, making for the practical recognition of human brotherhood, and it is noteworthy that at a time when the churches have generally discarded 'brother' and 'sister' as a customary form of address, the trade unions and labor organizations have adopted the habit."

To this may be added the fact that where organization has made much progress the moral standing of the people is also high. No one can become a member who is not sober, and, as a consequence, union men and women are temperate and industrious in their habits. The universal testimony of wage-earners is that the money paid by them to support their societies is as good an investment as they have ever made. In some of the States of the American Union a day has been set apart as a general holiday, known as Labor Day. This movement has spread in our Dominion and of late years several of the towns and cities of Canada have proclaimed one day in the year as a municipal holiday in honor of labor. It would be well to make this system a general one—to chose a suitable day, about the 1st of September in each year, and to proclaim it labor holiday, in the same way as Thanksgiving Day is now proclaimed, and made a holiday throughout the Dominion.

IMMIGRATION.

Considerable evidence has been taken on the subject of immigration, but, with the exception of the testimony of one or two witnesses, there was nothing very definite elicited.

Since the 27th of April, 1888, the policy of the Government has been to grant no assisted passages to anyone. Heretofore, in order to obtain assisted passages, immigrants were required to produce a certificate from some clergyman that they were agricultural laborers or domestic servants.

As to whether the rule in this respect has been violated there is some testimony. Mr. Perrault, Vice-President of the Montreal Chamber of Commerce, stated that while at Liverpool he saw a man dressed in the garb of a clergyman on board an Allan Line steamer signing certificates in hundreds—or what he took to be certificates—showing the holders to be desirable immigrants, although it did not appear that the clergyman had had any previous acquaintance with the parties whose fitness as immigrants he was certifying to.

On being questioned about this statement of Mr. Perrault, the immigration agent at Quebec stated that the party who was supposed by Mr. Perrault to be a clergyman was, in all probability, the purser of the vessel, and that it could not have been the certificates entitling the holder to an assisted passage, as these were invariably given up before getting on board the vessel. This witness stated that the demand for domestic servants was far ahead of the supply. This would also hold good as to farm laborers, but only for a limited period of the year, viz., during the harvest season. At other times the supply would appear to be about equal to the demand. It is felt by the working classes that the labor market throughout the Dominion is over-stocked, and that the only kind of immigrant who should be invited to come to our shores is the agriculturalist who is prepared to take up land.

Immigration of a proper character can still be of benefit to Canada. The thousands of broad and fertile acres which remain untilled invite the agriculturalist to take up his abode with us. The immigration to the Dominion of skilled labor—in some cases under contract—of which there is a sufficient supply already, should not, and we are glad to know is not, encouraged by the Government.

There was some evidence on the subject of importing labor under contract before the Commission. A few cases were given where Germans, Frenchmen and citizens of the United States were imported under contract.

The pernicious use which has been made of the power to import labor under contract calls imperatively for the abolition of that power. It is a fitting subject to engage the attention of Parliament, and it will, we trust, very shortly be dealt with.

The injury done to the working classes by the importation of labor under contract is palpable. Instances are not far to seek where the employers in particular lines of trade have undertaken to resist the just demands of their men and to compel them into submission by bringing in from a foreign country workmen to take their places. It is true that such a means of coercing labor is not always successful, but it is an injustice to the men that such a lever should be placed within the reach of the employer.

Parliament in its wisdom has protected the interests of the manufacturer by the safeguard of a tariff, and the citizen whose only capital is his labor should be not less the object of paternal care.

There might be some objection to placing any restrictions upon our fellow subjects from the British Isles, but this could not apply to those who are aliens, and the experience of Canadian workmen is that their business has been disturbed more by foreigners than by those living under the same flag.

The Act dealing with this subject, passed by the Ontario Legislature, provides that contracts made for the performance of labor or service with a person not a resident of Canada shall be void and of no effect as against the migrating party; but this law has been of no assistance whatever in putting a stop to foreign contract labor in that Province. What is required is a penalty to be inflicted upon the resident contracting party, as well as upon the person who undertakes the transport of the contracted laborer into Canada. Only in this way can an effectual stop be put to this system, which is so hurtful to Canadian workmen.

Another branch of this subject has also engaged the attention of the Commission, viz., that of paying a bounty upon the children brought out by philanthropists from Great Britain and Ireland. Although the Commission had not the benefit of the same expert testimony on this point as was given before the Select Standing Committee on Agriculture and Colonization of the House of Commons during the Session of 1888, there was some evidence on the subject, notably that of Mr. W. H. Howland, ex-Mayor of Toronto. Mr. Howland is of the opinion that it is wicked and cruel to send these children here, as they are, in some cases, sent out by the Poor Law Unions, but of those brought here under the auspices of the different homes he speaks more hopefully. There is, however, a strong feeling that these children are not suitable immigrants to bring to our shores.

We would therefore recommend that the \$2 per head, or whatever the sum may be, which is paid for each of these children on arrival in Canada be discontinued, and that no encouragement be held out to immigrants of any kind, except domestic servants, farm laborers, and those who are prepared upon their arrival to take up land.

LAND AND RENTS.

Among the important questions agitating the minds of the workers is that of rent. The outlay for this purpose has been largely increased of late years, as is conclusively demonstrated by the evidence taken at almost every point visited by the Commission. More especially is this noticeable in the larger centres of population.

The tendency of the age in Canada, as elsewhere, is for laboring classes to crowd into industrial centres and the natural consequence has followed: land values have risen and rents have been correspondingly increased.

Whether any practical remedy has as yet been devised for this state of affairs is very questionable. The one certain feature in connection with it is that a very heavy drain is now made on the purse of the artisan and the laborer to meet the demands of the landlord.

The proportion of the income which can be devoted to payment of rent and leave sufficient for procuring the other necessities of life is an interesting study. It varies considerably in different ages and lands. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the proportion of the laborer's income required to provide himself and family with a shelter was one-thirteenth. With the advance of civilization and the demand of the toiler for a better home the proportion has largely increased. In place of the

one-thirteenth, we find it has reached one-fourth and in many places one-third of their total earnings. It may be interesting, for purpose of comparison, to give here the figures of some of the leading cities in Europe and the United States.

In London, Eng., where the enquiry extended over a very large field, and embraced a larger variety of the poorer classes than was the case at any other point, the amount of income required to pay the landlord ranged from one-eighteenth to one-eighth. In Berlin, Germany, it is from one-fifth to one-fourth; in Vienna, Austria, it is one-third; in Paris, France, it is one-fourth; in the city of Edinburgh, Scotland, it is from one-sixth to one-fourth; in Dublin, Ireland, it is somewhat lower, and only required one-seventh of the income; in New York, Philadelphia and Boston, it is from one-fourth to one-fifth, with occasionally an advance to one-third. The cities of our own Dominion show about the same result. In Toronto the rent will average a trifle more than one-fourth of the income; in Montreal, one-fourth, in Quebec city, one-fifth; in St. John, N.B., about one-fifth; and in the city of Halifax, Nova Scotia, one-fourth. In the smaller places the average would not be quite so high.

In the mining districts the land in the vicinity of the mine is usually owned by the company that operates the mine, and in most cases the company have erected on these lands houses for the employés. These houses are, as a rule, cheaply constructed affairs, providing few of the comforts of life, while the rent charged ranges from \$1.50 to \$4 per month. As the total cost of these buildings is only from \$200 to \$400 it will be seen that the interest expected to be derived from money invested in this way reaches a tolerably high rate.

In some cities it is found that a considerable quantity of land is owned by large corporations, and as family estates. These lands are constantly rising in value from the energy, thrift and enterprise of the smaller owners about them. These blocks of land thus held are constantly reaping the harvest of increased value, which their owners have done nothing to bring about. This is one of the reasons for increased rentals. So largely and rapidly have rents increased in the larger cities that it has become a grievous burden upon the laborer. In many of the places visited the increase during the last ten years has been from 20 to 25 per cent. This has been a serious charge upon the purse of the worker, and has, to a certain extent, over-balanced the increase of wages which has been obtained in many lines of industry. It is a cause for regret that no matter how great the increase, how serious the exaction, the landlord is all-powerful; there is no appeal from his decision.

In other lands it has been found necessary to fix a legal rent by the judiciary and if values increase in the same proportion during the next ten years that they have during the past decade it may be possible that some such method will have to be adopted on this side of the Atlantic.

It is difficult to present a practical solution to this problem, but if some means could be provided whereby the rent could be fixed at a fair and legitimate interest on the amount invested it would be a great boon to those who are seriously embarrassed from the high rentals which they are compelled to pay.

If, however, there are dark sides to be pointed out, there is also a bright spot, which may, with some considerable amount of gratification, be alluded to. There is at least one evil from which Canadians are exempt, and that is the tenement-house system, which is so prevalent in the cities and larger towns of Europe and the United States. In few instances that have come under our observation has the number of families in a house been excessive, or beyond what the requirements of civilization and decency would permit of.

And even these few were found amongst the very poorest of our population, and not in the ranks of the industrious workers. Where, in other lands, the crowding together of numerous families in close-confined tenement houses has become an evil of such vast magnitude that legislators have bent their energies to devise some remedy, it is becoming the rule in Canada for each family to be in possession of a house exclusively used and occupied by its own members.

This is a feature of our industrial system which is deserving of special mention and one in which we, as Canadians, may well take pride.

COLLECTION OF SMALL DEBTS.

The addition of excessive costs to the original amount in the collection of small debts "by process of law" is a matter of considerable importance to a large number of artisans and mechanics. In fact it is a matter which affects all wage-earners in subordinate positions, the amount of whose earnings is barely enough to supply sufficient of the necessaries of life for the proper maintenance of wife and family. There is usually little or nothing left to put by for old age or infirmity. If misfortune overtakes them, such as loss of employment, sickness, or which may possibly be brought about by their own neglect to use proper precaution in the distribution of the funds at their disposal, the inevitable result is a debt which hangs over them like a mill-stone. It frequently happens that the employer is primarily responsible for the man getting into debt, because of the long periods of time which elapse between pay-days (see page 778, Quebec.) And in the case of small employers by putting the employé off, on the plea that he has no funds at the time available, but if the unfortunate workman will call around some other time he may, possibly—be told when to call again. That usually ends the matter until the sufferer does call again, or until his services are again required. There is also another cause which tends to the continuous indebtedness of the under-paid stratum of society, and that is the facility with which people in anything like steady employment can obtain credit. This is one of the greatest curses they have to contend against, although it may be looked upon at times as an unmixed blessing. The credit system encourages the consumer to buy many things he would possibly not think of purchasing were he dealing with cash in his hand. The cash would be a fixed quantity, and the individual would feel it his duty to make it reach as far as possible.

The merchant, grocer, huckster or other dealer lays in a stock of goods, and in order to get his profit he must dispose of them as quickly as possible. Knowing his customer to have employment at a certain rate of remuneration, with a responsible party, he presses his wares and the consumer buys the goods, not because he really wants them, but partly because he is proud of having credit and partly because he feels he ought to be a little more liberal in his purchases in order to remunerate the merchant for the extra trouble and cost in paper, ink and book-keeping. It is altogether forgotten for the time being that the dealer will add the value of his labor to the price of the goods and also that the day of reckoning will soon come—this latter the more quickly if the victim of the pass-book should fail to find a market for the labor he has to sell. It sometimes happens that this pernicious system is resorted to in times of misfortune, the workman trusting that the tide of events may soon turn in his favor and place him in circumstances that will enable him to pay his way and redeem himself with his creditor. With this class the resort to the credit system is only a temporary expedient to carry them over a present difficulty. In the struggle that is continually going on in our cities to obtain the bare necessaries of life these people are, through circumstances over which they have no control, compelled by their needs to depend upon the pass-book and the dealer's indulgence, in order to obtain for their families the necessaries of life. It occasionally happens that temporary loss of employment, sickness, or the death of some member of the household, makes it utterly impossible to keep up the payments for food, clothing and rent and then the law, with its enormously disproportioned costs, steps in and completes the ruin which was commenced by some unavoidable misfortune. One such case will be found on pages 88, 602 and 687, Montreal. In this instance the original debt, according to the evidence of the Clerk of the Circuit Court (Montreal, page 602) was \$37.50, and the costs amounted to \$27.50. To satisfy the judgment, furniture, costing originally \$165, but, allowing for depreciation by wear and tear, worth when seized about \$103, was sold at bailiffs' sale for \$29.20, leaving the unfortunate individual still in debt. To satisfy this claim, some six years after his household effects had been sold, his wages, amounting to \$32.85, were also seized.*

*To prevent doubt in their own minds as to the value of the furniture, two members of the Commission, having some knowledge of the cost of such articles as were sold, made an estimate which almost corresponded with that of the witness Greatorex, page 687, Montreal.

Another case, on page 235, Montreal, is a much sadder one. Here a poor family, forced by necessity, had ran into debt to the extent of \$11 for groceries; \$7 of this had been paid when sickness invaded their home. The result was that they were unable to pay the balance and asked for time to enable them to do so, promising to pay as speedily as possible. Time was refused and a judgment for the balance, \$4, was rendered. This, with the costs, amounted to \$15. The wages of the husband were garnisheed, at a time when they were insufficient to meet the pressing needs at home. The sight of a sick wife and a family of small children wanting food; having no hope of being able to satisfy the law, and supply the requirements of his wife and children at the same time, proved too much for the unfortunate man, and in utter despair he took his own life.

Another case will be found on pages 907 and 992, Quebec, where a man working as a tanner, earning \$6 per week, owed \$4.50 for house rent. His wages were seized for that amount, and he was compelled to pay no less a sum than \$13.18. Another witness in Montreal testified that it would be possible to seize, every week, for a small debt, half the wages of a man earning \$7; and that the costs of such seizure would exceed the amount realized, so that the debt would actually be increased instead of being diminished by the process. Such facts as these need no comment. Other cases similar to the foregoing might be cited, but these we feel confident are sufficient to draw the attention of the proper authorities to the unfortunate state of affairs which exists and imperatively call for the enactment of a more equitable scheme for the collection of small debts. The costs of collecting these small debts are, proportionately to the amount involved, enormous and are a source of much suffering to the poorer classes. They are sanctioned by the law, and the unfortunate ones who are hapless enough to come within its clutches may plead in vain for mercy. The majesty of the law must be upheld, regardless of the results which accrue therefrom.

One feature in these cases can not be overlooked. It is one which deserves the severest possible censure. That is the practice that some lawyers have of canvassing dealers for the purpose of getting their accounts to collect (see page 704, Montreal). We feel that too strong language cannot be used in condemnation of this practice. Much of the suffering that is experienced is the direct result of it. These legal harpies make collections for a percentage, and once the accounts are placed in their hands they make the unfortunate debtor pay the full costs allowed by law. The victim is never released until the last cent has been extracted. They have no mercy, but exact the full pound of flesh.

A less costly method of collecting all debts of \$25 and under is imperatively needed, and we would suggest that the recommendation on page 718 Montreal be adopted. It is, that in all actions for sums under \$25 the only costs to be allowed should be the sum of \$1.00; and that the judge before whom such cases are tried should be empowered, "after due enquiry into the circumstances of the debtor," to order such weekly or monthly payments as, in his judgment, the debtor will be able to make, having a due regard to the requirements of his family.

EDUCATION.

Though no special enquiry was made into the working of the various school systems throughout the Dominion, sufficient evidence was obtained to show that in the Provinces visited care is taken to provide a good common school education for all who can make use of the opportunities given. It is gratifying to notice, also, that the facilities given are, as a rule, taken advantage of, the exceptions being chiefly in some of the large manufacturing centres, where children are sent to work at too early an age. Here are to be found far too many who have grown up and are now growing up to manhood and womanhood unable to read or write. This, however, is due rather to the system pursued in factories than to the want of educational facilities.

Very liberal provision has also been made for the higher branches of education. Universities and colleges for the training of professional men appear to be fully up to the requirements of the age, and are thoroughly appreciated by those seeking to enter upon a professional career.

In many places visited by the Commission the desirability of providing all necessary books free of cost to the scholars was urged. It was stated that poor people are unable to send their children to school as long as could be wished, because of their inability to purchase the school supplies needed. On page 202, Ontario, a witness testifies: "Not only should books and everything be supplied, subject to general taxation, but every child should be compelled to attend school." Another, page 280, Ont., says: "Wherever this plan has been tried it has been found that the attendance of the children of the poorer classes has been more regular." It is difficult to see why the school house, teacher, maps, etc., should be provided gratis and a hard and fast line drawn at books. To make our schools really free, all that is necessary to enable a child to prosecute its studies ought to be provided.

The Superintendent of the Public Schools of St. John, N. B., says (page 156 N. B.) that the law of that Province does provide free books in certain cases, presumably where the parents of the scholar are in indigent circumstances. But this would be a species of charity, and the taking of alms in any form carries with it a stigma which neither the parent or the child cares to incur. Some of our Provinces have laws compelling the children to attend school for a certain period of their life, but the law cannot compel the parents to purchase books. As a consequence, where the parents are financially unable to provide their children with the requisite books, the compulsory feature of the law is evaded.

There were complaints, also, as to the monopoly which has been created, whereby the price of the books has been enhanced. A witness (page 113, N. B.,) says: "That were publishers in the Province allowed to print the books they could be furnished 25 per cent. cheaper." In Ontario (page 284) a witness also gives it as his opinion that the publication of school books should be open to all publishers.

No doubt, up to a recent period, the educational systems provided were ample to meet the requirements of our population, but the rapid growth of the industries in the Dominion during the last few years has made it apparent that if we are to become a great manufacturing country more attention must be given to training our people to become artistic and skilled workmen.

There are no adequate facilities provided whereby the workingman can become conversant with that instruction necessary to fit him to become a good artizan, well up in the practice and theory of his business.

The necessity for practical instruction of this nature is more apparent now than formerly, owing to the change in the system of working. The old plan of apprenticeship, by which a young man was taught his trade, has disappeared, and we have nothing in our industrial system to take its place.

To be successful competitors with foreign manufacturers we must have workmen as highly skilled in their respective callings as those with whom they have to compete. To do so, the same facilities must be provided to give the cultivation and training necessary to acquire skill and knowledge as the workmen of other countries have.

The time has apparently arrived when the State should extend the present school system, by providing technical and industrial training schools for the youth of our working classes, where, under competent instructors (who should be practical men in the branches taught), those choosing mechanical callings can obtain a thorough theoretical knowledge of their business, as well as practical skill. A very general unanimity as to the desirability of this training will be found in the evidence in all places visited by the Commission, the manufacturers and the mechanics alike expressing a wish that something should be done to meet this want. There is some difference of opinion as to how these schools can be made effective, some of the witnesses maintaining that the curriculum of the public schools could be altered so as to meet the want and that, after a child has passed the Fourth Book, (page 941,

Ont.) certain subjects might be dropped, others lessened, and more prominence given to free mechanical drawing, modelling in clay, working in wood for boys, and sewing for girls. No doubt these views are worthy of consideration and if adopted would prove beneficial to a limited extent to those who remained at school after reaching the standard indicated; but unfortunately a very large proportion of our young people are, through necessity, obliged to leave school before they could take advantage of such instruction. In 1887 there were over 20,000 children in the public schools in Toronto, and of this number only about 4 per cent. remained at school after the Fourth Book standard was reached. Taking this as a basis of calculation for the Provinces it would appear that very little benefit would result if the course indicated above were adopted.

There were many witnesses who had given very close attention to this subject and who were well qualified to give an opinion on the matter. They stated that some change was imperative, but that the teaching should begin with the lowest classes and be continued right through every grade in the school. One witness (page 280, Ont.) says: "I believe that the proper place for the training of the hand is in the lower classes in schools, where all are attending. What I urge is manual or industrial training, such as the training of the hand to make it expert, and the training of the head to make it clear and definite in controlling the hand, together with some slight training in the use of tools, which should be done without teaching any particular trade." On the same subject another witness (page 228, Ont.), says: "I do not think the aim of industrial education should be to make men skilled mechanics, but to make them see the principles underlying mechanical operations, rather than to perform the operation skillfully. We should not aim at that in school any more than we should teach a boy at the agricultural college to draw a straight furrow with the plough." Another (page 163, Ont.), says: "In the common schools we have no education which is worth anything, which does not educate the boy perfectly. We should train him to use his hand, his mind and his eye together, and when we thoroughly train him to do that, when he is turned out he will be able to learn any trade." A great many others are agreed that a change like the above is a necessity; not alone because of the advantages it would give to those learning trades, but that it would tend to create a desire in the minds of children to select industrial in preference to professional or commercial pursuits. One thing all are agreed upon, viz., that the present system unfits the scholar for mechanical life. As an Ontario witness says: "The fact of the matter is, that to my mind the public school unfits a boy for learning a trade. We are bringing up a nation of shopkeepers. To teach a boy to earn a living by the use of his hands is the proper way in this country." Stronger testimony than this it would be difficult to procure, and it is to be noticed that the witnesses engaged in all mechanical callings, who gave evidence on this subject, strongly corroborated the testimony alluded to. There can be no doubt that the proper authorities must solve this question in a practical manner with as little delay as possible. We must see that the education that the children are receiving is one adapted to our industrial condition. It would be a misfortune to the country at large to continue in the present line. An effort should be made to instil in the minds of the young a preference for industrial avocations rather than the overstocked professional and commercial callings. But while we agree as to the desirability of such a course as is outlined in the evidence referred to, we are of the opinion that in order to obtain the full benefit to be derived from such training it is absolutely necessary that the teaching should be carried on after the pupils leave the schools. It is obvious that the knowledge acquired in the primary schools must of necessity be of the most elementary character, designed rather to create a taste for mechanics in the mind of the scholar than to be of practical use in life. The plan adopted in England, and on the Continent of Europe, of establishing secondary schools, where a full technical course is given, having a direct bearing on the trade selected by the scholar, is the one we would recommend as being best suited to the wants of our people. Very full and complete reports as to the efficiency of this system are to be found in the report of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction in Great

Britain (1881). These schools, besides giving a full science course during the day to those who can afford to attend the classes, provide evening instruction for mechanics and apprentices, and, so far, have been eagerly taken advantage of by those for whose benefit they were established. This plan has the hearty endorsement of the workmen throughout the Dominion, and would be welcomed by them as supplying a want now keenly felt. This Commission, therefore, recommends: 1st. The re-arranging of the curriculum in the public schools, with a view of making the instruction more practical. 2nd. The establishment of technical schools, with evening classes attached—

A. Because children should deal chiefly with real things during the first years of school life.

B. Because using real things is the most certain way of exercising the child's intellectual faculties.

C. Because it is the right of every one to receive such an education as will best fit him for the proper performance of his duties, in whatever sphere he may labor.

D. Because the system of apprenticeship has been discontinued.

E. Because improving the mechanical skill of the industrial classes must add largely to the wealth and prosperity of the nation.

F. Because the great increase in the use of delicate and intricate machinery in manufacturing demands a more thorough industrial and technical training on the part of those who are to use the machines.

G. Because it will increase the prosperity of the working classes and will elevate their social position.

H. Because the moral effects of such training are good. Improving a working-man's position will make him more contented and happy.

BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

The testimony of all the witnesses who appeared before the Commission, who have taken an intelligent interest in the questions at issue between labor and capital, was to the effect that a Bureau of Labor Statistics for the Dominion is greatly needed. There was a practical unanimity of sentiment upon this point.

As described in the declaration of the principles of the Knights of Labor "these bureaus are designed to impart a correct knowledge of the educational, moral and financial condition of the laboring classes," and they are asked for by all intelligent students of the labor problem as an aid in solving the difficulties which will arise from time to time between the worker and the employer.

Where all the witnesses who were interrogated on this point gave identically the same reply, it would be useless to point out any particular testimony as showing the need of a Dominion Bureau.

The evidence, and the action taken by the Legislatures of the different States, as well as by the National Government across the border, proves the necessity which exists, and the want which has, to a considerable extent, been there supplied.

The first of these bureaus to be established was that connected with the Government of the State of Massachusetts. Following this, at intervals, bureaus of labor or industrial statistics have been formed in twenty-one other States, and in 1884 the National Bureau was established at Washington by Act of Congress.

The Acts whereby the bureaus are established are very similar in their terms, nearly all providing that the work to be done shall consist of the collecting of information upon the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the earnings of laboring men and women, their educational, moral and financial condition and sanitary surroundings.

With the National, and most of the State Bureaus, the work to be accomplished was practically a new task, necessitated by the continually changing condition of the relations existing between the laborer and the capitalist. So far as is known the bureau of labor statistics is essentially an American institution. Nothing of the kind has as yet been brought into existence amongst the nations of Europe.

They are designed to—and fairly accomplish the mission—provide for the information of legislators, statistics relatives to the economic condition of the worker, present facts whereon to base such remedial legislation as may from time to time be needed, and generally to enlighten the working classes as to their true condition, and the disadvantage under which they may be laboring in comparison with their brethren in different States and foreign countries.

Incidentally they tend to harmonize the interest of capital and labor, by furnishing facts and figures to the thoughtful minds of both classes, in the careful study of which are frequently found solutions to the difficulties that will arise from time to time between employer and employed.

The statistics furnished by this means, as well as the facts advanced, are of incalculable benefit to the legislator. In this class of literature is found reliable data upon which to frame legislation. Without the information contained in these volumes legislation is, in very many cases, merely a leap in the dark. In our own Dominion this is especially true. By far the larger part of our representatives are returned from and reside in constituencies in which they have no means of studying, by personal observation, the workings of large industrial establishments.

They are consequently not conversant with the wishes and requirements of the workers at the loom and spindle, the lathe, the bench and the anvil. Previous to an intelligent and comprehensive discussion of the labor problem such information is a necessity, and in no way can it be so readily and impartially given as through the medium of a regularly established bureau of industrial statistics. The bureaus already in existence have gathered together and present to the public in a readable form, a vast amount of useful information, upon such subjects as factory laws, shorter hours, co-operation, industrial partnership, apprenticeship, strikes, boycotts, tenement houses, profit-sharing and other kindred topics.

The usefulness of the bureaus is conclusively proved by their rapid multiplication. No less than six States established such offices in 1887. This increase also shows that solicitude for the welfare, morally, economically and socially, of the working classes, is being largely extended, and that the interests of the wage-earner are considered of vital importance to the State. This is a very gratifying feature of the movement in behalf of these bureaus.

As has been pointed out, they are of use not only to the statesman, but also to the worker, in that they disseminate information and figures which are of the very greatest importance to him. By means of the information thus obtained he is able to present his case clearly, forcibly and intelligently, and the study of the questions touched upon in the reports of these bureaus is time well spent, in that it causes reflection in the mind of the worker upon his condition, and practical suggestions for bettering it are the inevitable result.

From a perusal of a number of these reports it becomes clearly evident that in the appointment of the Chiefs or Commissioners care has been taken to choose only such men for the position as would be acceptable to the working classes. A warm and sympathetic desire to be of use to the wage-earner and to promote the success of all legitimate means of improving their condition pervades nearly all of these volumes, and it is only natural that it should be so. If there should arise in the minds of the laborer an idea that the bureau was organized in the interest of the capitalist and the employer its usefulness would vanish. Its success would depend in a very large measure upon receiving full and complete answers to the questions which it would address to the working classes, and as these questions must naturally be of a confidential nature they would not be answered in a very satisfactory way to a man who was known, or even suspected, to be in active sympathy with the employers, or opposed to labor organizations,—or else, that their replies to questions would be used in a manner to injure their cause, would be constantly present, and would impair the good relations which ought to exist between the bureaus and the operatives. Even in the case of some of the offices in the United States it is found difficult to obtain answers from workingmen in sufficient numbers to arrive at an accurate conclusion as to

their condition, because of a feeling of distrust as to the use which the answers will be put to; but as the operations of the bureaus are found to be conducted by men who are thoroughly impartial, greater confidence is manifested. At first all questions to which the bureau required answers were sent out in the shape of blank printed forms, through the mails, but this has not been found to be a success.

In 1879 the Massachusetts bureau sent out 6,000 blank forms to workingmen, but so few were returned filled out that the plan was decided to be a failure.

This experience has been repeated in the case of many of the other offices, and now it is almost universal to obtain the necessary information by means of personal interviews.

The expense is, in this way, somewhat greater, but the results are vastly more satisfactory, and the accuracy and completeness of the details furnished more than compensate for the larger expenditure.

Some bureaus report that the details asked for from workingmen are having a good result, in that it causes a more careful scrutinizing of the yearly income and outlay. Parties who, when first asked to reply to the questions, could not do so, because of a lack of the necessary data, were induced to take pains in future years to make a record of these figures, and thus were enabled to stop up any small leaks which they had not previously suspected the existence of.

In the State of New York the Commissioner is given the power to subpoena witnesses, to examine them under oath, and it is made a misdemeanor not to answer the questions, or to reply untruthfully. The Commissioner reports that this power has been of considerable advantage to him in the pursuance of his enquiries.

Some bureaus present very elaborate statistics of the population, industries and commerce of the State, so complete as to be almost of the nature of a census; while one office (Pennsylvania) has a full description of some of the large industries of the State illustrated by cuts.

Some trouble might be caused here, as it has elsewhere, by several different departments going over much the same ground.

Where manufacturing and industrial establishments are asked practically the same questions—though perhaps in a little different form—by two or three different officials, they are naturally apt to take objections to such demands upon their time.

In Massachusetts, Governor Rice, speaking on this point, said: "The difficulty in our method in this State at present arises from the existence of so many offices, each seeking statistics of various kinds and each making investigations on various subjects, often akin in nature and resulting in two-fold work. I am led to believe that if the kindred work of several of these bureaus were consolidated into one general bureau of statistics, and put under one head, it would result in increased efficiency and considerably diminish expense, as compared with that of separate organizations."

No officer of the Dominion Government covers precisely the same ground as would in all probability be taken by a Commissioner of labor statistics. Care should be exercised to have the Federal bureau work in harmony with any Provincial bureaus that may be organized, so as to avoid the necessity of asking the same parties identically similar questions. Objections would, in that case, be raised by manufacturers and employers of labor at the drain upon their time and clerical assistance which such duplication would cause.

All of which is respectfully submitted. On behalf of the Commission,

JOHN KELLY,
Acting Chairman.

(Attest),

A. H. BLACKBEY,
Secretary.

Ottawa, 22nd February, 1889.

The following letters and documents were received at different times by the Commission:—

“POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, CANADA,

“POST OFFICE, TORONTO, ONT., 25th Nov., 1887.

“SIR,—I have the honor to acknowledge copy of circular issued by the Royal Labor Commission, and your letter of to-day's date, referring to the investment of the savings of the working classes.

“In reply, I would state that the record of depositors' avocations is sent by us, as each new account is opened at the Post Office Savings Bank, to the Head Office at Ottawa. We have only, therefore, a general idea here of the class of people making deposits, whereas the Department at Ottawa can give accurate statistical information. It may be well to add that I can officially give no information on the subject without express permission from the Postmaster-General, to whom your application should be addressed.

“I am, Sir,

“Your obedient servant,

“THOS. C. PATTESON,

“Postmaster.

“A. H. BLACKBEBY, Esq.,

“Secretary Royal Labor Commission.”

“TORONTO TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION, No. 91,

“TORONTO, 26th November, 1887.

“DEAR SIR,—Yours of the 25th to hand, and in reply beg to state that owing to the action of the Trades Council and District Assembly, which I hereby endorse, I cannot appear before your Royal Commission, and therefore beg to be excused.

“Yours, etc.,

“W. H. PARR.

“A. H. BLACKBEBY, Esq.,

“Secretary Royal Labor Commission.”

“32 BROOKFIELD STREET WEST, TORONTO, November 27th, 1887.

“DEAR SIR,—Yours, dated the 25th, to hand. Contents carefully noted. I might just say that at the last meeting of the Moulders Union there was a committee appointed to appear before your honorable body to give such evidence as required by the Commission, but if the Commission insist on my presence, of course I am at their service.

“Very respectfully yours,

“JOHN H. DANCE,

“32 Brookfield Street, west.

“A. H. BLACKBEBY, Esq.,

“Secretary, Labor Commission.”

“BROTHERHOOD OF CARPENTERS AND JOINERS OF AMERICA,”

“LOCAL UNION No. 27.

“68 SCOLLARD STREET, TORONTO, 1st December, 1887.

“DEAR SIR,—According to promise I laid your communication before our union to-night, when they decided that they would allow themselves to be represented at the Royal Labor Commission by Henry Floyd and others, of the joint committees of carpenters and joiners, who have already made application for admission. Personally I would find it difficult to attend to-morrow evening, but if it is deemed necessary, on the return of the Commission I may be able to attend then.

“I remain yours, etc.,

“WM. COULTER,

“Corresponding Secretary.

“A. H. BLACKBEBY, Esq.,

“Secretary Royal Labor Commission.”

CONTINUATION OF EVIDENCE OF THOMAS STEWART.

(See Page 1195, Ontario Evidence).

"In continuation of my evidence, I say that if the Government would establish life assurance, in the same manner as the post office savings banks are, it would be a great benefit to the working classes. Supposing that the officers who now are authorized to receive savings were also to receive the payments for insurance, it would not add very much more to the cost of such office, and people insuring with the Government would have as much confidence as they have now in the savings banks. We having now a superintendent of insurance, who looks after the interest of those who are insured, it would not be a very great extra charge or charge on the country to have a Department of Insurance. By the Government establishing this department, insurance would be obtained at the lowest rates. In the first place, we would not require to have any canvassers, and outside offices or agents to support out of the premiums now paid; besides, those who are unable to pay the whole amount at once, for one year's insurance, could pay it by instalments. Thus, either a pass-book, such as is at present used for the savings banks, or stamps of insurance, like what is used for postage, could be issued, and at the end of the year would be good for the premium on the policy. The Government by adopting some scheme like this, would, in my opinion, greatly benefit the whole country, not only by giving first-class security to the insured, but by retaining in the Dominion the large sums of money now paid as premiums to foreign companies.

"Another thing which, in my opinion, would greatly benefit the working classes, as well as help to build up the country, would be for the Government to grant assistance to those of the working classes at present in the country to enable them to settle on our Dominion Lands. Thus, at present, or at least until lately, a large amount of money has been paid for the purpose of encouraging immigration to Canada. Now, if the Government would apply the whole or part of that sum to this purpose, in something like the following manner, it would be a great success: Let the present Land Commissioners have certain farms improved, by having a house built and enough of land broken up, so that the settler could at once start to put in crops. It might be necessary in some cases to give further assistance until the crops could be harvested—the amount so expended to remain a charge on the farm until paid with interest. Afterwards the settler would get his deed for the land from the Government. This money having to be paid by instalments could then be again used in the same way as required, without any further charge on the country. Now, in my opinion, this would be one of the best ways to encourage immigration of the class required here, as well as being a benefit to those Canadians already here, who have so largely contributed towards making Canada what it is to-day. It would be a means of removing the surplus laborers from the congested parts of the country and placing them where, by industry, they would become able to earn a living for themselves and families, as well as opening up the country with a class of men and women who are already Canadians and understand its institutions. It would also encourage foreigners of that class to come here at their own expense, who, of course, by doing the same, would not, as a great many of them at present do, leave here for the States as soon as they arrive in Canada, even after they were assisted here. As the only advantage they would get by coming here would be having a place ready to live on, which if they left they could not take away with them, therefore the Government would not be paying people to populate another country, but would populate our own, as well as help those already here.

T. STEWART,
Ottawa.

Copy of Correspondence, etc., between the Council of the Quebec Board of Trade and the Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society:

"28th October, 1885.

"To the President of the
"Quebec Ship Laborers' Society,
"Quebec.

"DEAR SIR,—I have been instructed by the Council of the Quebec Board of Trade to convey to you, as president of the society, their wishes, as passed by unanimous resolution at a recent meeting held by that body, as follows:—

"As it has often been stated by our principle exporters of lumber that some of the rules and regulations of your society were injurious to the interests of our port, the Council of the Quebec Board of Trade would be very happy if you and other officers of your society would be prepared to meet, at an early date, a number of merchants engaged in the shipping business, to discuss the matters which are supposed to affect the interests of our port."

"I have the honor to be, sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,

"Secretary."

"OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,

"3rd November, 1885.

"SIR,—At a meeting of the Council of the Quebec Board of Trade held this day, it was unanimously resolved:—

"That the secretary be instructed to call a meeting of merchants and others interested in the shipping trade of this port, to meet this Council at the Board Room, Exchange Building, on Thursday, 5th November, at 10:30 o'clock, a.m., and there to confer with a delegation of officers of the Quebec Ship Laborers' Society regarding the rules and regulations of that society affecting the interests of the port."

"And I am ordered to communicate the foregoing to you, in order that you may make the same known to the officers of your society, respectfully asking their attendance.

I have the honor to be, sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"(Signed),

F. H. ANDREWS,

"Secretary."

"To P. DINAN, Esq., President,

"Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society."

"An arrangement was agreed upon to hold the proposed conference, and the following letter forwarded. The meeting was held on the 5th of November, 1885, as follows:—

"Minutes of meeting of committee named at a meeting of the Quebec Board of Trade, merchants and officers of the Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society, held at the Board room, on the 5th November, inst., for the purpose of considering the rules and regulations of the above society, as affecting the interests of the port of Quebec.

"The meeting of the committee was duly convened to be held (as ordered at the meeting of the 3rd) at the Board room, on Monday, the 5th November, at which the following gentlemen were present:—

"Representatives of the Board of Trade:—

"Joseph Sheyn, President.	} Councillors.
"R. R. Dobell,	
"W. Rae,	
"R. H. Smith,	
"F. H. Duval,	} Members.
"J. Burstall,	
"Hans. Hagens.	
"W. M. McPherson,	

"Merchants represented by F. Carbray.

"The Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society delegates were: P. Dinan, F. X. Dubé, A. Raymond, Joseph Laberge, P. Fitzgerald, M. Grenier and Ed. O'Connor.

"The meeting was called to order by the chairman, Joseph Sheyn, President of the Board of Trade, who explained the object for which they were assembled.

"The question having been raised as to the necessity of having the press to report the proceedings of the committee, it was decided that, as the discussion that would likely take place would probably be conducted in a very desultory manner, so as to give the fullest freedom in the interchange of ideas between the Society and the Board of Trade and merchants, that it would be better to furnish the press with a full account of the actual conclusions arrived at by the joint committee.

"After a lengthened interchange of ideas and explanations, carried on in the most courteous and friendly manner between the parties representing the various interests.

"The representatives of the Board of Trade and merchants were unanimously of opinion, in order to give Quebec an opportunity of competing with Montreal for the deal trade and induce ships to come to Quebec to load, the following modifications or additions to the rules and regulations of the society should be made, and the same be handed to the president and delegates of the society, with a request that they will lay them before their body as the exact expression of the views held as to what is required to bring back and encourage the trade in the port of Quebec, and that the propositions now submitted being, as is sincerely believed, in the interest of all concerned, should have their concurrence and cordial support—namely:—

"1. That the working day, until the 1st of October, should be ten hours. In Montreal it is ten hours during the whole season, and wages are only \$2. to 2.50 per day.

"2. That work should be allowed on holidays at single wages, when men are themselves willing. That for steamers different rules should be adopted, as their work does not correspond with sailing vessels, the tide having to be studied.

"3. That wages should be 30 cents per hour with 45 cents for overtime, say time and one-half. That men working at steamers should have, without fail, a full hour for breakfast, and the same for dinner and supper, and time to be arranged by the men themselves to suit their own convenience.

"4. That steamers should be allowed to use their steam winches for hoisting timber or other cargo from alongside and lowering it into hold, but not to use steam for stowing or moving timber in the hold.

"5. That in loading mixed cargoes the rule insisting that the men employed in taking in the timber be allowed to continue and finish the ship or cleared, so as to permit them to be paid off after all is in, and only the usual necessary number be kept on to take in the lumber or deals, or if only a small quantity of timber has to be loaded in the ship the stevedore or captain be allowed to take it in with the men who may be engaged to take in the deals or lumber.

"6. That the Ship Laborers' Society do enact a by-law that whenever a captain employs the stevedore at a stated sum for his services, instead of by the thousand feet, the captain shall be at liberty to employ as many men as is deemed advantageous for the proper stowage—say not less than two men for every hundred tons register.

"In conclusion, the merchants present expressed their willingness to use their best endeavors with their trans-Atlantic friends to induce them to discontinue the practice of giving a lump sum for loading their vessels, and on the other hand it was understood that the officers of the Quebec Ship Laborers' Society would, in their turn, do their best at the next general meeting of the society to have the grievances, as put forth by the merchants and others, fully considered, and to have the modifications, as suggested in the above report, viewed favorably.

"The meeting then adjourned.

"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,
"Secretary.

"OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,
"QUEBEC, 12th November, 1885.

"DEAR SIR,—I am instructed to furnish you herewith a copy of the proceedings of a meeting of the committee, held on the 5th instant, embracing the resolutions arrived at by the meeting, and unanimously agreed to by the members of the Board of Trade and merchants present, and would thank you, with your brother officers, to present the same in due form at the first general meeting of your society.

"I have the honor to be, Sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,
"Secretary Quebec Board of Trade.

"P. DINAN, Esq., President,

"Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society."

"OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,
"QUEBEC, 4th March, 1886.

"SIR,—Enclosed please find copy of resolutions and proceedings of meeting of 5th November last, as promised.

"Yours truly,
"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,
"Secretary.

"ANTOINE RAYMOND, Esq., Secretary,

"Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society."

"OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,
"QUEBEC, 23rd March, 1887.

"SIR,—In view of the approaching annual meeting of the Quebec Board of Trade, to take place on the 4th April next, the council of this body has instructed me to enquire of you what decision was arrived at by the general meeting of your society, held 1st May last, regarding the propositions made by the committee of the Board of Trade and merchants to your officers at the joint meeting, held at the Board room on the 5th November, 1885, a copy of which was duly forwarded you for the consideration of your society.

"Yours truly,
"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,
"Secretary.

"P. DINAN, Esq., President,

"Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society, Quebec.

"No reply was received to the above letter."

OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,

QUEBEC, 12th August, 1887.

"SIR.—I have been instructed by the council of the Quebec Board of Trade to ask whether you would, in conjunction with the other officers of your society, be disposed to meet the council at an early day, in order to afford them an opportunity of discussing the advisability of repealing certain existing rules and regulations which, in their opinion, are injurious alike to the interests of your body and to the trade of the port of Quebec.

"I have the honor to be, Sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,

"Secretary.

"To R. LEAHEY, Esq., President,

"Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society, Quebec."

QUEBEC, 25th August, 1887.

"DEAR SIR,—I beg to acknowledge receipt of yours of 12th instant. At a meeting of the Executive of Q. S. L. B. S., held last evening, it was decided that instead of sending delegates from our body to meet yours, as heretofore, that you name the by-laws you want modified, and to what extent, etc., and on receipt of same I will place it before the various sections of this society, and will in due course notify you of the result of their deliberation.

"Yours truly,

"(Signed),

R. H. LEAHEY,

"President Q. S. L. B. S.

"F. H. ANDREWS, Esq.,

"Secretary Council Q. B. T."

OFFICE OF THE QUEBEC BOARD OF TRADE,

QUEBEC, 13th October, 1887.

"SIR,—I am instructed by the council of the Quebec Board of Trade to inform you that a special committee of members of the Board has been named to form a delegation to meet the President and officers of the Quebec Ship Laborers' Benevolent Society, for the purpose of considering the rules and regulations of that society, with a view of proposing certain changes which, in the opinion of the Board, would be in the interest of the port of Quebec.

"I beg to ask you to name a day when this special conference could be held, as early as convenient to your Executive.

"I am requested to add that the council expects a reply to this letter on or before the 25th inst.

"I have the honor to be, Sir,

"Your obedient Servant,

"(Signed), F. H. ANDREWS,

"Secretary.

"R. LEAHEY, Esq., President,

"Quebec Ship Laborer's Benevolent Society, Quebec.

"No reply was received to this letter.

"Correct copy.

"Office of the Quebec Board of Trade,

"Quebec, 29th February, 1888.

"F. H. ANDREWS,

"Secretary."

"FOR THE INFORMATION OF THE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD OF TRADE AND MERCHANTS WHO MAY BE IN UNISON WITH THE BOARD REGARDING THE PROPOSED CHANGES, A COPY OF THE PRACTICAL BY-LAWS GOVERNING THE SOCIETY IS HEREBY GIVEN.

PRACTICAL BY-LAWS OF THE QUEBEC SHIP LABORERS' BENEVOLENT SOCIETY.

"ART. XXXIX.—The following is the tariff rate of wages demanded by this Association, viz:—

"Holders and swingers.....\$4 per day.

"Winchers and watchmen..... 3 "

"Stagers..... 2 "

"Any member of this Association who shall work on board ship for less than the established wages, or more than the established hours for said wages, or giving any of his time gratis, such as putting up gear, on being found guilty shall be fined for the first offence, \$5; second offence, \$10, and for the third offence he shall be dealt with as the Association may determine.

"ART. XL.—The necessary complement of men to form a gang will be the following:—

"1st. Vessels working eight winches shall employ no less than 24 winchers, 6 holders, 3 swingers and 2 taggers.

"2nd. Vessels six hundred tons and over, known as double-ported, that is, having a port on the larboard and starboard sides in one end of the lower hold, or similar in the between decks, said ports placed in the bow or stern shall employ no less than 18 winchers, 7 holders, 2 swingers and 2 taggers.

"3rd. Double-ported vessels under six hundred tons shall employ no less than 12 winchers, 5 holders, 2 swingers and 2 stagers.

"4th. Any vessel having a port in the larboard and starboard sides of her between decks in one end, and one port in the lower hold, or *vice versa*, said ports, if placed as described in the bow or stern, shall employ no less than the gang required for double ported vessels under six hundred tons.

"5th. Single-ported vessels shall employ no less than 9 winchers, 5 holders, 1 swinger and 1 stager.

"6th. Any vessel using more than two winches below for the purpose of heaving timber fore and aft shall employ no less than a 6-winch gang.

"7th. There shall be no less than 3 men at a winch while working.

"8th. Vessels of six hundred (600) tons and above, having no bow or stern port holes, taking a part or a whole cargo of timber, shall employ the same gang as double-ported vessels 600 tons and over.

"Under six hundred (600) tons shall employ the same gang as double-ported vessels under 600 tons.

"Steamships loading or discharging general cargo shall employ no less than 16 men in each compartment. The stevedore having the privilege to discharge the men at the finishing of the said compartment.

"9th. All vessels of 600 tons and above taking a cargo of deals, boards, &c., shall employ twenty (20) men at the loading of said vessel; under 600 tons 16 men.

"ART. XLI.—Eight hours will constitute a day's work, commencing at seven in the morning, one hour to breakfast, the same to dinner, and leave off at five in the evening.

"ART. XLII.—No member of this society will work on board any vessel where a donkey-engine is used in loading or discharging timber, deals, boards, &c., except spool-wood.

"ART. XLIII.—Any member of this society who works with a foreman who is not a member will be fined one day's pay for each day he shall have worked.

"ART. XLIV.—Any member of this society who is discharged without a fault, is obliged to inform the other men who are working in the same ship, and if they do not knock off until such time as such man is allowed to resume his work they will be fined one day's pay for each day they have worked.

"ART. XLV.—No member of this society is to work with an outsider under a fine of one day's pay for each day he has worked.

"ART. XLVI.—All members of this society working overtime, that is before working hours in the morning and after working hours in the evening, shall claim at the rate of time and a-half; and double time for Sundays and holidays, under a fine of one day's pay for each day they have worked.

"ART. XLVII.—Any member of this society working with an outside stevedore and called on by a foreman or stevedore belonging to this association, and refuses to go, shall be fined one day's pay for each day he has worked.

"ART. XLVIII.—All members of this society shall receive their wages on each Saturday, on board the ship; in the event of a vessel finishing on any other day during the week they shall be paid on board also, under the penalty of one day's pay for each offence. Steamships to name a pay-day for each week.

"ART. XLIX.—No members of this society will work in any vessels where the sailors are employed in the capacity of laborers at the loading or taking in broken stowage.

"ART. L.—Any member of this society who may be employed by any stevedore or captain to discharge a vessel, such member will be entitled to work at the loading of same vessel; and it shall be the duty of all members to protect each other in this case, under a penalty of one day's pay for each day he has worked. The same rule shall apply to watchmen.

"ART. LI.—All vessels loading a cargo or taking a portion of cargo of deals, staves, boards or any kind of lumber, must employ four men to stow said cargo, at the rate of \$4 per day; and it shall be distinctly understood that the four men stowing are not to carry, under a penalty of one day's pay for each day they have worked.

"ART. LII.—All vessels loading mixed cargoes of timber deals that the full rate of wages be paid to all hands until such time as the last stick of timber is stowed. The stevedore to have the privilege of selecting four men to stow deals, the balance to do whatever necessary work is required. In case of vessels loading part timber, no matter what time the last piece is taken in, the holders and swingers must be paid the full rate of wages for that day.

"ART. LIII.—No member of this society can take a sailor's place unless employed by the captain or stevedore of the vessel.

"ART. LIV.—No member of this society will furnish labor to the loading of any vessel when the said vessel has been discharged by non-members.

"ART. LV.—If any master undertakes to load his vessel with his crew, a record of such shall be taken and he shall be deprived of labor hereafter by the association.

"ART. LVI.—Any member employed in moving a vessel is duly entitled to one day's pay. In all cases wherein men working on board ships and are engaged to move such vessel, they must be paid \$3 for the tide's work, and if they resume their work they must be paid at their usual rate of wages, and no member shall work on any vessel when the master has employed outsiders (non-members) or crews of other ships to perform tide's work, except for taking a ship in or out of dock or gridiron.

"ART. LVII.—Any member being late for work the stevedore can wait two hours for him, but no longer, and if he desires can hire a member in his place.

"ART. LVIII.—No member of this society shall work with sailors who are not shipped before a duly authorized shipping-master at the port from which she sailed for the harbor of Quebec.

"ART. LIX.—Any member working with a stevedore who has been refused labor from the society will be fined the sum of \$10 for each day he has worked.

"ART. LX.—No man can take a boy's place on the stage to hook on; and in all cases of mixed cargoes the boys on the stage to be kept until the final completion of the vessel at stager's rate of wages.

“ Stagers are not amenable to be fined for the violation of the by-laws by the men on board ships.
 “ ART. LXI.—No member of this society shall work in any vessel where there are two stevedores giving orders, under the penalty of a day's pay for each day he has worked.

“ ART. LXII.—A vessel working shorthanded or otherwise contrary to the rules, any member or members who first claim the place are in all cases entitled to it. But such member or members shall not leave the vessel until the final completion of the work, under a penalty of one day's pay for each day he has been absent.

“ ART. LXIII.—If a master of a vessel keeps members waiting an unreasonable time, say half-past five o'clock on Saturday evening, or a half-hour after the final completion of the job, they shall demand society wages for every hour until paid. Also masters of vessels loading in the stream shall have to provide a boat or other convenience for the laborers employed on board in bringing them to and from the said vessel.

“ ART. LXIV.—Any members working at the loading or discharging of vessels and leaving, such members must be replaced by other members, under a penalty of one day's pay for each member working on board.

“ ART. LXV.—All stevedores must demand the members of their gang for their tickets of membership, and if they neglect to do so or work short-handed, or violate any of the by-laws, they will be fined the sum total that each man has been fined that is working on board ship.

“ ART. LXVI.—That in all cases wherein a suspicion may be entertained that the rate of wages will not be paid to laborers the President and officers have authority from this society to send such vessel a necessary gang of men to load her, to prevent dishonesty of action, captain agreeing thereto; otherwise labor be refused such vessel.

“ ART. LXVII.—That in all vessels wherein members of this society are employed in discharging or loading that they be equally divided as to nationality, and where an odd number of men are employed the stevedore to be entitled to the privilege of placing those men, or selecting the odd man from either nationality he pleases. If there are more of one nationality than the other the stevedore shall have the privilege of discharging any member, except the one who has claimed the work. This rule shall also apply to tide's work, putting up gear, and every place that society labor is employed.

“ ART. LXVIII.—No member of this society shall work on board any vessel wherein a single rope is used to top up timber or sleepers.

“ The foregoing practical by-laws appear as printed in the society's rules and by-laws in 1885—and it is understood that since that date Article 50 has been repealed, and two new articles enacted, which are in effect:—

“ That nine laborers be employed in the hold in discharging coal—and that the sailors may attend to the lines on deck, and that in large ships there be an extra winch-man on the after-winchess.”

RULES OF CLAYTON & SONS.

(Referred to on page 1, Nova Scotia evidence.)

☞ Read these Rules carefully, as they will be strictly adhered to in every instance.

11 Jacob Street18

Mr

No..... St.

We send herewith to be made:—

	COATS.	VESTS.	PANTS.
Pockets.....			
Seamed with.....			
Inside stitching.....			
Tack pockets (outside stitching).....			
Button-holes.....	None.....	None.....	To be worked.
Price of making.....			

They must be well made and pressed. Send one sample first, and then not less than quantities marked on the other side returned at one time.

Count the work and trimmings as soon as received, and if anything is short notify us at once. You will be held responsible for anything short when work is returned, also for bad work.

Work will not be taken unless this paper is returned with it.

CLAYTON & SONS.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

Work will be taken on the following days, and on hours mentioned: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, between 9 and 12 a.m., and between 1 and 4 p.m. No work will be taken on *Friday* or *Saturdays*. No work will be taken after 4 o'clock p.m.

The person who brings the work must wait for the money, or you will be liable to lose it, and be charged with the goods besides.

RECEIPT FOR WORK RETURNED.

DATE.	COATS.	VESTS.	PANTS.	INITIALS.

You are not to call at the shop, or send there for any purpose whatever in connection with work, except on the days and between the hours named above.

"VICTORIA, B.C., 22nd February, 1888.

"HON. J. ARMSTRONG,
"Chairman of the Royal Labor Commission,
"Ottawa.

"SIR,—I have the honor, as secretary of a public meeting held in this city on the 15th inst., to enclose a resolution passed at that meeting, to be forwarded to you as Chairman of the above Commission. The enclosed was printed in the *Victoria Times* of the 18th inst. An account of the meeting appears in the issue of same paper on Thursday, the 16th inst.

"I have the honor to be,

"Your obedient servant,

"F. L. TUCKFIELD."

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED.

"The following resolutions were passed unanimously at the labor meeting held in Harmony Hall, Wednesday night last, the 15th inst., on motion of Mr. F. L. Tuckfield, seconded by Mr. E. Bragg:—

"Whereas, the Executive of the Dominion Government, at Ottawa, has been pleased to notify the citizens of this city interested in the enquiries of the Royal Labor Commission of Canada that any evidence or suggestions relative to labor and its relations to capital sent to the Hon. J. Armstrong, Ottawa, Chairman of said Commission, will receive the fullest consideration; therefore, this meeting, called in the interests of labor, in public meeting assembled, hereby resolves:

"That it is the opinion of this meeting that not another acre of land should henceforth be deeded for railways, or any other purpose whatsoever, and in any case shall never be alienated forever from the Crown; that the basis of sales shall be, in country districts, 160 acres to each person, and that railways, telegraphs, etc., traversing the country, shall belong to the nation.

"That the Chinese evil, now universally reprobated in every civilized country in the world, is a portentous political cloud and a gross social outrage, and should be more definitely legislated upon, both in the direction to prevent further immigration, and as a cure for the existing evils in our midst.

"That governmental enquiries should be instituted to prevent, if possible, terrible coal mining accidents, two of which, during the past year, have startled and horrified the Province.

"That manhood suffrage is the true basis of liberty in a country like ours, in which public schools and newspapers are universal.

"That machinery is the greatest blessing from a social and commercial aspect, when used for the benefit of the employes, and, therefore, the profits should certainly be participated in by them; the capital utilized in manufactories should never receive more than legal interest.

"That the lien law is essential where contracts are permitted; the garnishment of wages is an outrage and is virtually class legislation.

"That the practice of distress for rent is a behest of monopoly, is class legislation, is an encouragement to landlordism, unjust speculation and greed, while it militates against the probability and often the possibility of the poor becoming owners of homesteads.

"That labor organizations are the direct result of bad land laws, and the enormous power of capital uncontrolled by the Government, and that they are necessary in this country, where its great natural resources can be operated and owned (with the consent of the Government) by the capitalistic and monopolistic few.

"That strikes are injurious, and arbitration is the only reasonable mode of obtaining justice, where all laws are in favor of vested interest and labor value is ignored; in a country where labor, the great giant that upholds the world, has virtually no rights but maintenance, while at the same time justice adjudges that both commercial profits and agents should be the servants of the workers.

"That child-labor is a disgrace to civilization, also, that under-pay for female labor is a gross violation of common justice where equal work is performed.

"That all legislation should be based upon the principle of the benefit and assistance of the masses; that capital, so called, if driven from the country thereby, is only an imaginary loss, as it is a mere medium of exchange, and can easily be created by legislation.

"That, finally—The magnificent resources of Canada, under the control of wise laws, formulated according to the light and noble spirit of co-operation, and joint ownership founded upon natural laws, would make this great Dominion the most prosperous association of the world.

"Be it also further resolved that the Secretary of this meeting forward the foregoing resolutions to the Chairman of the Royal Labor Commission, as requested in the communication from the Dominion Government."

ERRATA.—QUEBEC EVIDENCE.

Page 85, Que. (Montreal).—Witness says: "The average pay of a mechanic is now \$3 per day." This should be \$2.

Page 745.—Moulders and swingers, as they are called, should be *holders*, etc. Next line same mistake occurs. Looking on the timber should be *hooking*, etc.

Page 750.—Wincher is *winch*.

Page 754.—Last line, aft should read *raft*.

Page 756.—Have it off should be *heave* it off.

Page 757.—Tubs should be *tons*.

Page 759.—Unloading a vessel should be *coaling*, etc.

Page 795.—Hon. John Hearne should spell *Hearn*.

Page 802.—By the accountant, Mr. Heakes, should be *Mr. Heakes' next question*.

Page 815.—Bargemen should read *batteauman*. M. Buchanan, foreman, should be *forewoman*.

Page 872.—Second last question: do they day, should be, do they *pay*.

Page 888.—Answer to last question: trade hero, should be trade *here*.

Page 916.—Kamouraska, in three places, should be *Rimouski*.

Page 918.—Kamouraska should be *Rimouski*. First question, fourth line, should read *loading*, and not unloading.

Page 925.—Twelfth line: cents for factory printing should be cents for *factum* printing.

Page 1019.—Twenty-seventh line: John Thomas (witness) should be *John Thoms*.

Page 1037.—James McDermott, should be *Joseph McDermott*.

Page 1053.—John Roach should be *John Roche*.

Page 1139.—Steamer Borealis should be *Polaris*.

TORONTO,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYÉ'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Bakers					10 00							
Blacksmiths											2 25	1 25
Box-makers	25	12½										
Box-making, paper; cutters girls			2 00		7 00	1 50						
Bricklayers									50	23½		
Brassfinishers			2 50	2 00								
Girls, core-making					5 00	4 00						
Builders' laborers									18½			
Boot and Shoe Factories—												
Lasters					10 00	9 00						
Cutters					10 50	9 00						
Machinists					15 00							
Pasters and tackers					5 00	2 00						
Women on machines					7 00	4 00						
Carpenters	27½	23½							25	22½		
Carriage-makers			1 50									
Cabinetmakers					12 00	10 00						
Carters							36 00	31 00				
Cigar-makers					9 00	8 00						
" boys and girls					3 00	1 50						
Cork cutting (men)					11 00							
" (boys & girls)					3 00	2 50						
Corset Factory—												
Cutters					15 00							
Ironers					15 00							
Assistants					10 00	6 00						
Females					8 00	3 00						
Coopers											1 80	
Dressmakers					7 00	5 00						
Dry Goods Stores—												
Boys					6 00	2 00						
Salesmen					12 00	10 00						
Saleswomen					8 00	6 00						
Girls					1 50							
Pant and vest-makers					5 00	2 00						
Gentlemen's neck wear					4 00	2 00						
Gilding												
Harness-maker												
Jewellers												
Machinist											2 25	1 50
Moulders—												
General									22½			
Agricultural											3 00	
Stove-plate												
Milliners					9 00	8 00						
Printers												
Painters									20			
Plasterers	30½											
Steamfitters									33	20		

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	¢ c.				
.....	9	M	Given as the average.
.....	10	M
.....	9	M	Journeymen said to average 20 cts.
.....	M
.....	F	49 hours per week.
.....	M	Work 10 months in the year.
.....	10	M
.....	10	F
.....	9	M	Idle 3 mos. in winter. Average yearly earnings, \$275.
.....	M	Males usually work 10 hrs. per day in these factories; females, 9 hrs. Work about 50 full weeks a year.
.....	M
.....	M	Very few of these.
.....	F
.....	F
.....	9	M	27½ p. hour	Average 45 hours per week.
.....	9	M	Half day off Saturday.
.....	10	M	Apprentices get from \$2 to \$3.50 per week.
.....	10	M	Some laid off during January.
.....	M & F	Piece work.
.....	M & F
.....	M & F	Hours vary with season; commence at 8:30 and work till dark.
.....	M
.....	M
.....	M
.....	F	Piece work. Hours—52 in summer; 49 in winter.
.....	M	Piece work. Work very scarce.
.....	9	F
.....	M
10 00	9 00	M	Time is 9 to 10 hours per day; but this applies only to a limited part of the city.
6 00	3 00	M
.....	F
.....	F
.....	F
.....	8	F	Piece work.
10 00	M
10 50	5 50	10	M	Slack time during winter for 3 months.
18 00	7 00	M	Average stated to be 10 hours per week.
.....	10	M
.....	10	M	Work 5½ days in summer.
.....	10	M	Outside city. \$2 to \$1.50 per day.
13 40	M
.....	F	For best workers only. Work only 4 mos. a year.
16 00	13 00	M	Piece work—prices, 30 cts. per thousand ems on morning papers, 28 cts. on evening papers, 33½ cts. in book offices. Women 20 cts. per thousand.
.....	10	M	Half holiday Saturday in some shops. Average earnings \$400 a year; 3 mos. in year very slack.
.....	9	M	33½ cts. per hour
.....	9	M	Half holiday Saturday during 5 months of year. Idle season during Jan., Feb. and March.

TORONTO,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Stationary engineers												
Show-case makers					24 00	12 00						
Street Car Employés—												
Drivers					9 00							
Conductors					10 00							
Stablemen					8 50							
Laborers					8 00							
Overseers					15 00	12 00						
Blacksmiths					10 00							
Saddlers					10 00							
Carpenters			2 75	1 66								
Upholsterers					16 00	14 00						

CORNWALL,

Bricklayers			3 00	1 50								
Builders' laborers			1 25	1 00								
Blacksmiths			2 00									
do helpers			1 25	1 00								
Box Factory Employés—												
Men			1 25									
Boys			0 50									
Cotton Mill employés—												
Weaver			0 90		7 50	5 00						
Carder			1 25	0 90								
Dyer										1 25	0 80	
Slash tender										2 00	1 10	
Spinner										0 80		
Warp dresser										1 75	1 00	
Lapper										0 90		
Women										1 25	0 50	
Engineer										1 25		
Laborer										0 90		
Carpenter			2 00	1 50								
Corporation laborer			1 25									
Millers					10 00	9 00						
" laborers					7 00							
" teamsters					7 00							
" boys			0 50									
Machinists			2 00									
Moulders			2 00									
Plasterers			3 00	2 50								
Pattern-makers					9 00							
Stone-masons			3 00	1 50								
Tailors					9 00	5 00						
Woollen Factory Employés												
Males										1 25	0 50	
Females										0 75	0 40	

ONTARIO—Concluded.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
20 00	13 00			10	M		All work 6 days a week only—except stablemen.
				11 1/2	M		
				11 1/2	M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M	\$12 to \$11	
				10	M	a week.	
				10	M		
				10	M		

ONTARIO.

				10	M		Boys' lowest wages 15 cts per day. \$2 to \$5 per day for overseers; 10 months work in year.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
6 00	5 00			10	F		
				10	M		
				10 1/2	M	\$1.50 per day.	
7 00	5 00			10	F	Work 10 or 11 months in year.	
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				11	M	Half day off Saturday.	
				10	M		
				10	M	Average \$1.75 per day.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	Work all year round.	
				10	M		
				10	M	Apprentices 50cts per day.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				11	M	Half day off Saturday.	
				11	F		

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
12 00	10 00			10	M		Boys get 32 cents per day.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				8 to 10	F		These figures are based on 10 hours work. When employed for longer time earn proportionately more wages. Season lasts but a short time.
					F		
					M		Hours of work not definite. Season for work very short.
					M		
					M	[day \$7 to \$4 a	
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	M & F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M & F		This factory is in Berlin, Ont. Proprietor was visiting Hamilton.
				10	M		
				10	M		With board; yly. hands, \$150 to \$175; \$220 to \$240 without bd. Without, usually get house free.
					F		Children earn 50 cents to 75 cents day. Season 3 or 4 weeks only.
				10	M		Works in Dundas, Ont.
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		Higher rate is for summer (10 hours); lower for winter (9 hours). [\$1.35 a day.
				10	M		General average for city said by workmen to be
				9 to 10	M		Piece-work. About 2 months slack time.
				10	M		9 hours on Saturday.
				12	M		Unskilled men in mills, \$7.50 per week.
				10	M		Boys in works, \$1 to \$1.25 per day.
				10	M		9 hours on Saturday. [1,000 ems.
12 00	11 00			9 to 10	M		Piece-work, 32c. morning, 30c. evening papers, per
				10	M		9 hours per day in winter. Average 8 months work in year. Average earnings about \$360 per year.
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
15 00	10 00			10	M		
9 00	5 00			10	F		9 hours Saturday. Shut down 6 weeks in winter.
				10	M		Av. \$35 month for 7 months. On propellers, \$25.
		55 00	30 00	9	M		Night-work, 8 hours.
		40 00	35 00	9	F		
15 00	12 00			9	M		
5 00	2 50			9	M & F		Employer gave average of whole. A workman says men, skilled and unskilled, will average
11 00	8 40			9	M		\$1.50 per day.

HAMILTON,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYEE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Tailoring (Wholesale)—												
Cutters												
Trimmers												
Women												
Whip factory (skilled men)					15 00	9 00						
do (girls)					5 00	2 50						
Wire Works—												
Machinists			2 00									
Carpenters			2 00									
Wireworkers			1 75									
Weavers			2 00									
Boys						2 50						
Females					6 00	3 00						

PETROLIA,

Carpenters											2 00	1 50
Coopers			2 00									
Bridge-builders			3 00	1 50								
Blacksmiths											2 00	1 75
Engineers (stationary)			1 50	1 25								
Farm hands							23 00	16 00				
Lumbermen			1 50	1 00								
Shoemakers (custom)												
Well-drillers			3 00	2 00								

ST. CATHARINES,

Cigar-makers					10 00	9 00						
Divers (sub-marine)												
Printers (compositors)					10 00							
" (pressmen)					10 00							
Ship-carpenters											2 00	
Sailors											1 75	1 25

ONTARIO—Concluded.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$	c.	\$	c.	\$	c.	\$	c.
15	00	8	00	10	M	
15	00	8	00	10	M	
7	00	2	50	10	F	
.....	10	M	In summer work only 8 hours.
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	F	

ONTARIO.

.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	With board.
.....	M	\$1.50 without board; \$1 with board.
.....	M	Work piece-work; \$1.75 to \$2.50 per pair. Can make about four pairs per week.
.....	M	Season lasts about seven months.

ONTARIO.

10	00	8	M	
.....	200	00	150	00	
.....	10	M	[28c. per 1,000 ems.
.....	10	M	Eight hours on Saturday. Piece-work; price,
.....	10	M	Eight hours on Saturday.
.....	10	M	
.....	16	M	Mates get \$50 to \$55 a month. Season lasts about seven months. Sailors earn during season \$200 to \$250.

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M	9 hours Saturday. Only 2 men on works beside foreman getting \$2.25. [about 7 months.	
				9	M	8 hours Saturday. Earn \$400 to \$500 year. Season	
				9	M	8 hours Saturday.	
				10	M	9 hours Saturday. Average said to be 19c. to 20c.	
7 00	1 50			9½	F	per hour, and earning's \$300 to \$500 year.	
9 00	7 50			10	M	8 or 9 months' work in year. Boys get \$3 to \$2.50 week.	
				10	M	8 hours Saturday.	
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		
				10	F	Piece-work ; packing biscuits.	
				10	M	9 hours Saturday.	
10 00	8 00			10	M	9½ hours Saturday. Piece-workers, \$9 to \$15 week.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	9 hours for some in winter.	
				10	M	Employer's figures are for all classes of moulders.	
				10	M	Men say they average \$10 week. Employers put it at \$15. About 10 months work per year.	
9 00				10	M	For day men. Piece prices are 28c. morning, 25c. evening, 20c. job work, per 1,000 ems. Morning paper men work 14 hours, and earn \$9 to \$12 per week. Females get 15c. per 1,000 or \$3 a week day work.	
				9	M	Short time in December and June.	
				9	M	Average wages of factory hands, \$7.50 a week.	
				10	M	Male and female vest-makers, piece-work, \$6 a wk.	
				10	M	Females, soldering, \$5 to \$3 a week.	
9 00				10	M	9 hours Saturday.	

ONTARIO.

					M		
				10	M		Average wages given as \$1.25 per day.
				10	M		
				10	F		With board. Without board \$1 per day. Hours of work during harvest, 8 or 9 a.m. to sundown.
				10	M		
				10	M		
					M	17¼c. hour	Apprentices, \$1.50 per week.
					M		Close down in winter from 6 weeks to 3 months.
					M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M	\$1.50 day.	
				10	M		9 hours from middle of November to 1st of March.
					M		

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
2 50	2 00			10	M		[week. 5c. per hour at night.
9 00	6 00			9	F	\$12 week	Over \$3 per wk. 10c. per hr. at night. Under \$3 per
				10	M		All night work. Bakers receive \$3 per week and
				10	M		board.
				10	M		
				9	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				9	F		List of prices paid for work: Pants, 25c.; vest,
				9	F		25c.; coat, 65c.; overcoat, \$1; dozen shirts,
				9	F		with collars, \$1.80; dozen shirts, without
				9	F		collars, \$1.50.
				9	F		Apprentices, 1st year, \$1 a week; forewomen, \$300
7 00				10	M		a year.
				10	M		Some \$1.50 to \$2 per day.
				11	M		
				9	F		Night-work, 10c. per hour for wages over \$3 per
							week; 5c. per hour for wages under \$3 per
							week.
				10	M		Work 8 months in the year.
				10	M		Drill-and-hammer men work 10 months in year.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	\$2.50 day	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				9	M		[piece-work.
				9	M		Night-work, \$12.25 per week; 36½c. per 1,000 ems,
				9	M		25c. per hour overtime.
				10	F		Apprentices, \$1.50 per week.
				10	M		
							And board.
				10	M		
7 00				11	M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
		24 00	16 00	10	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		

KINGSTON,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
Blacksmiths.....	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
“ (helpers).....											2 20	1 50
Bakers.....											1 15	1 10
“ (girls, biscuit-making)												
Bricklayers.....											3 00	2 50
“ (laborers).....											1 25	
Cotton Factory Employés—												
Men—20 of these, each.....					20 00	10 00						
“ 16, average.....					7 29							
Boys.....					5 70	1 90						
“ 20, each over.....					6 00							
Women, average.....					5 70							
Girls.....					5 00	1 90						
Carpenters.....											2 00	1 25
Cigar makers (men).....					15 00	12 00						
“ (women).....					5 00	4 00						
“ (girls).....					2 00							
Engineers (steamboat).....								16 00				
Farm hands.....												
Grain shovellers.....	65	60										
Locomotive works.....												
“ (fitters).....			2 25	1 50							2 25	
“ (assistants).....			1 25	1 10								
“ (turners).....			2 50	1 50								
“ (planers).....			1 75	1 50								
“ (drillers).....			2 00	1 00							1 30	1 20
“ (pattern-makers).....			2 00								2 00	1 75
“ (blacksmiths).....			2 50	1 20							1 70	
“ (boiler-makers).....			2 00	1 50							2 00	1 50
“ (moulders).....			2 00	1 40								
“ (carpenters).....			1 35									
“ (laborers).....			1 00								1 20	0 98½
Laborers (builders).....									12½	10		
“ (corporation).....			2 00	0 90							1 25	0 65
Moulders (machinery).....											2 00	
“ (stove-plate).....			1 85	1 60								
Painters.....											1 50	1 25
Polisher (piano works).....											2 00	1 50
Printers.....					10 00	9 00						
Shipwrights.....											2 00	1 10
Servants (domestic).....												
Sailors.....			2 00	1 25							1 75	1 00
“ captains (barge).....							90 00	70 00				
“ (sailing vessels).....												
“ (steamboats).....												
Shoemaking (custom work)					12 00	4 00						
“ females (machine work)												
Transportation Company—												
Engineers.....			2 00	1 75								
Apprentices.....						1 50						
Tinsmiths.....												

NOTE.—A journalist stated that dry goods clerks earned \$5 to \$12 a week, and would average and board; in stores, \$4 to \$5 a week.

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M		[day.
				10	M		9 hours Saturday. Apprentices commence at 35c
10 00	9 00			10	M	\$12 to \$10	9 hours Saturday.
1 50	1 25			10	F	[week.	
					M		Workman who gave this information was also
					M		stonemason. Earnings, \$500 to \$600 year.
					M		Manager who gave this information did not dis-
					M		tinguish between the different branches of
					M		the business.
					F		
				10	M		9 hours Saturday. Shorter time in winter.
				10	M		7 hours Saturday. Can work 50 weeks in year.
				10	F		
		70 00	65 00	10	F		
				12 to 14	M		On tugs, \$60 to \$40 month. [and house.
					M		With board Without board, \$200 to \$250 year
					M		Hours uncertain. Earn \$15 to \$20 a week. Work
					M	\$3 to \$2.25	lasts about 7 months.
				10	M	[day.	9 hours Saturday. Workman says machinists
				10	M		average \$1.60 a day.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		\$1.70 by workman is given as the average. Black-
				10	M		smith's helper (given by workman) \$1.25 to
				10	M		90c. a day.
				10	M		
				10	M		9 hours Saturday.
					M		
				10	M		Employer says average wages \$1.12½ a day.
				10	M		9 hours Saturday.
				10	M		" " work 40 to 45 weeks in the year.
				10	M		" " About 7 months steady work.
				10	M		8 hours Saturday. Piece-work, price 25c. per
				10	M		1,000 ems.
		7 00			F		With board. In country, \$6 a month and board.
		25 00	10 00		M		Employer says average \$52 a month for season. A
					M		sailor says average \$1 per day for season.
					M		\$80 month to \$750 for season (employer's statement)
					M		\$1,000 for the season (employer's statement).
10 00	6 00			10	M		
3 00				10	F		
				10	M		9 hours Saturday.
				10	M		
10 00	7 50			10	M		Idle 2 or 3 months in winter season.

\$400 a year. Female clerks, from \$3 to \$7 a week. Dressmakers in private houses, 75 cents per day.

WINDSOR,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Brassfinishers.....											2 50	2 00
Carpenters.....											2 00	1 75
Coopers.....											1 00	
Cabinetmakers.....												
Grape Sugar Works—												
Engineers.....			1 65									
Millers.....							55 00					
Other hands.....			3 00	1 25								
Laborers.....									12½			
Machinists.....			3 00	2 00								
Printers.....					13 00	10 00						
Stonecutters.....											3 50	3 00
Shoemakers.....											1 00	
Tailors.....									25		1 25	1 00
“ female.....												
Wire Works—												
Men.....			3 00									
Boys.....					5 00							
Watchmen, ferry-boat.....			1 25									
Wood-workers, machinist.....											1 75	

CHATHAM,

Agricultural Impl't Works—												
Skilled men.....			2 00	1 50								
Unskilled men.....			1 50	1 00								
Cabinetmakers.....					12 00	10 00						
Carpenters.....											1 25	
Carriage wood-workers.....											2 00	1 50
Coopers.....					18 00	10 00						
Farm hands.....							18 00	12 00				
Fanning Mill Works—												
Skilled men.....			2 00	1 75								
Unskilled men.....			1 25									
Laborers.....											1 50	1 25
Millers.....					10 00	9 00						
Men in mills (unskilled).....			1 50	1 25								
Printers.....					9 00	8 00						
Planing Mill Hands—												
Skilled men.....					11 00	9 00						
Unskilled men.....			1 25									
Painters.....											2 00	1 50
Woollen Mill Employés—												
Skilled men.....					15 00	12 00						
Unskilled men.....					8 00	6 00						
Boys.....					3 50	2 50						
Weavers.....					6 00	3 50						

ONTARIO.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	Boys start at \$2.50 a week.
.....	9	M	Work about 9 months in the year.
.....	M	Given average for year. Piece-work. Hours not fixed
10 00	10	M	Given as the average earnings.
.....	9½	M
.....	9½	M
.....	9½	M
.....	9	M	This is summer rate. Work 8 or 9 months in year.
.....	10	M
.....	10	M	Piece-work-price, 25 cts. per 1,000 ems.
.....	M	[journeymen.
.....	10 to 16	M	Work piece-work. Given as average earnings of
.....	9 to 12	M	Average given at \$9 a week all the year round.
.....	M	Mostly piece-work.
.....	10	M
.....	10	M
.....	M	Irregular hours.
.....	M	Work about 7 or 8 months per year.

ONTARIO.

.....	10	M	day.
.....	10	M	\$3 to \$2.50	9½ hours on Saturday. Works closed 6 wks. in year
.....	10	M
.....	M	Average wages of factory given at \$1.37½ per day,
.....	10	M	9½ hours on Saturday.
.....	10 to 11	M	9½ hours on Saturday. Work only 9 mos. in year.
.....	M	Many of the men are laid off for 6 months in the year.
.....	M	With board. Hours—Summer, 5 a.m. to 8 p.m.
.....	10	M	9 hours on Saturday; 10 months work in the year
.....	10	M	[per hour.
.....	10	M	Handling lumber on wharf in summer, 20c. to 25c.
.....	10	M	9 hours on Saturday.
.....	M	\$12 week	Piece-work-price, 25c. per 1,000 ems.
.....	M
.....	M
.....	10	M	9 hours Saturday. Boys, \$4 to \$3 per week; 7 or
.....	M	8 months' work in year.
.....	10	M
.....	10	M
.....	10	F

MONTREAL,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Axe-makers			3 00	1 50								
Brass-finishers			3 00	1 50								
Bookbinders					14 00	7 00						
"					6 00	1 50						
Book-rulers					15 00	10 00						
Bricklayers			3 30	3 00								
Bag-makers					10 00	7 50						
"					9 00	2 50						
Builder's laborers			1 75	1 50								
Bakers												
Clerks					15 00	5 00						
"												
Cigar-makers					17 60	8 10						
"					12 00	4 00						
Carriage-makers—												
Blacksmiths					15 00	13 00						
Wood-workers					16 00	7 00						
Upholsterers					18 00	12 00						
Painters					15 00	7 00						
Helpers					8 00	7 00						
Carpenters			2 10	1 50								
Corset-makers					8 50	1 25						
Corporation Employés—												
Guardians							50 00					
Engineers							50 00					
Salvage corps							45 83					
Firemen							41 67					
Coopers										2 00	1 50	
Cotton Factory Employés—												
Men											1 00	0 80
Girls											0 80	0 75
Children											0 30	0 25
Dressmaker's clerks												
Dye-shop clerks												
Express men					9 00	7 00						
Freight-checkers												
Gas company employés											2 75	1 25
Glass-blowers					43 00	2 50						
Harness-makers					15 00	5 00						
Ice-cutters			1 50	0 90								
Joiners									20	13		
Laborers											1 30	0 80
Lumberman's Employés—												
Sawyer			2 00	1 50								
Laborers			1 25	1 10								
Choppers							24 18					
Teamsters							24 18					
Drivers			2 00	1 25								
Leather-dressers												
Longshoremen	22	17							30	20		

QUEBEC.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	Average \$2 per day.
.....	10	M	Experts earn \$5 per day.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M	
12 00	6 00	10 to 18	M	\$15 week	
.....	F	Apprentices: 1st year, \$60; 2nd year, \$80; 3rd year, \$100; 4th year, \$6 per week.
12 00	5 00	M	Some receive \$15 per week.
11 00	4 00	10	M	Work ten months in year. Average \$7 per week.
.....	Piece-work. Apprentices from \$1 to \$3 per wk.
.....	10	F	Piece-work.
.....	10	M	\$25 week	Employer's statement. (Carriage-makers in the Reformatory receive from \$7.50 to \$14 per week.)
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
13 50	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	F	Cutters receive \$60 per month.
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	Hand-work. Machinework, \$1.75 per day.
.....	M	
.....	F	
.....	M & F	
5 00	3 00	10½ to 13	F	
4 00	3 00	12	F	
.....	M	
9 00	M	As many hours, day and night, as required at steamships.
.....	10 to 12	M	Men and boys. Ten months' work.
12 00	4 00	10	M	\$15 week	Apprentices, \$1 per week.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	25c. hour	
.....	M	
.....	M	Six months' work. Boys in saw-mill receive \$1.50 to \$3 per week.
.....	M	Work 6 months in year.
.....	M	And board. Work about 5½ months in year.
.....	M	" " " "
.....	M	Work 5½ months in year.
8 00	5 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	Make from \$200 to \$250 per year. Work about 7 months.

MONTREAL,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYER'S				
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Laundry					10 00	2 50							
Leather-cutters					8 00	4 00							
Milliners													
Mantle-makers					8 00	4 00							
Milliners at trimming					10 00	8 00							
Moulders											2 50	1 40	
Marble-cutters											1 75	1 25	
" laborers											1 15	1 10	
Marble-polishers											1 25	0 90	
Machinists													
Nail-work Employés—													
Skilled hands			6 00										
Laborers			1 45	1 00									
Oil-cloth Manufactory—													
Skilled hands					14 00	10 00							
Unskilled "					8 00	6 00							
Cloth preparers					10 00	9 00							
Printers					25 00	15 00							
Machine tender					14 00	12 00							
Plasterers			2 50	2 00						25			
Pilots (steamboat)													
Printers (newspapers)					16 00	7 00							
" (paper-box)					14 00	7 00							
" (job work)					12 00	9 00							
Paper-box makers					8 00	1 50							
"					11 00	7 00							
Painters and decorators											2 00	0 75	
Railway Employés—													
Freight conductors							80 00	65 00			2 15	1 75	
" brakemen							60 00	30 00					
Engine-drivers													
Gatemen											1 10	0 85	
Coal shovellers											1 25		
Rope-makers—													
Men			3 00	1 20									
Girls					4 80	3 75							
Roofers—													
At metal					10 00	8 00							
At slate					12 00	10 00							
Rubber-worker, (men)											2 00	1 00	
" (girls)													
Street-car Employés—													
Drivers					7 50								
Conductors					8 00								
Sugar Refinery Employés—													
Laborers			3 50	1 20									
Sailors (on steamboats)													
"							25 00	20 00					
"							20 00	16 00					

QUEBEC.—Continued.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
10 00	7 00			10	M & F		About 10 months work in the year.
				10	M		Cutter, \$15 per week. Apprentices work first year
					F		for nothing; 2nd year, \$13 to \$26; 3rd year,
					F		\$52; after, \$5 to \$1.50 per week.
					F		Cutter, \$15 per week; 2nd year, \$13 to \$26; 3rd
					M		year, \$52; after, \$5 to \$1.50.
					M		1st yr., \$1.50 wk.; 2nd yr., \$1.75 wk.; 3rd yr., \$2.25
					M		wk.; 4th yr., \$3 wk.; 5th yr., \$4 week.
10 00	average				M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Out of this amount he pays an assistant.
				10	M		
				10	M		Work about 9 months in the year.
				10	M		Receives \$1,000 per annum.
				12 to 15	M	\$20 week	Females receive \$13.80 per week, highest wages;
					M		males, 32c. to 23c. per 1,000 ems; females, 24c.
					M		to 15c. per 1,000 ems.
					F		
					M		Commencing work, receive \$4 per week.
					M		Work 7 months in the year. Decorator, \$2.50 per
					M		day; 1st class painter averages, \$500 per year;
					M		ordinary, \$250 per year.
					M		Paid on mileage basis.
				12	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		Work 6 to 7 months in year. Boys 1st year, \$1.50
							per week; 2nd year, \$2 per week; 3rd year \$3
							per week.
				10	M		Work 6 to 7 months.
9 00	2 00			10	M		
				10	F		Average earnings, \$4 per week.
				16	M		Work 7 days per week.
				16	M		" "
		15 00	12 00		M		With board.
					M		On Ontario waters, 4 months' work; on Quebec
					M		waters, 7 months' work.
					M		Those men employed in shops during winter at
							\$1.50 to \$1 p. day; helpers, \$1.10 to 80c. p. day.

QUEBEC—Concluded.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
					M		With board.
					M		With board. Earns \$384 in year.
8 00	7 00			10	M		Pay boys in Reformatory 15c. per day; these boys
4 50	3 50			10	F		work first 30 days for nothing.
				10	M		Average 288 days in year.
				10	M		Average \$1.20 per day.
				10	M		
				10			Beginners \$1.50 per week. Men, women and girls
							Apprentices five years \$1.50 per week, and four
							years \$2 per week. [employed.
8 00	3 00				F		Girls average \$4.33½ per week.
15 00	6 00				M		Cutters, \$15 to \$20 per week.
12 00	9 00				M		Summer rate for ten months. In winter \$7.50
5 00	1 50				F		per week.
2 25	1 25				M		
					M		
20 00				9	F		Half time \$12 per month. Five hours' work.
9 00	4 00			10	M		Yearly average \$7 per week.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		

QUEBEC.

					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		

QUEBEC.

					M	} Employed all the year round.
					M	
				8	M	
					M	
					M	
					M	
		40 00		9	M	Contract work.

P. Q.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				9½	M		Ship biscuit only ; work done by machinery.
				11	M	\$10 to \$11	All night work ; 7 to 11 hours in winter ; 8 to 13
					M	per week.	hours in summer.
					M		Winter rates. In summer \$2 per day.
					F		
					M		All year.
					M		5 or 6 months in winter ; get \$2 day.
					M		\$140 to \$200 earned in season ; 5 months work ; \$1 per
5 00	2 00			10	F		Piece-work ; fines imposed. [hundred standard.
				10	F		
					M		Winter rates 12½c. hour.
					M		
				10	F		Summer rates. In winter work 8 hours, with corres-
5 00	4 50			10	M	\$3 per day	ponding reduction of pay. Not paid extra for
				10	M		overtime; fines imposed on women and child'n.
				10	M		Work less number of hours per day in winter.
				10	M		Work less number of hours per day in winter, and
							paid in proportion.
				10½	M		} Work only 7½ hours Saturday. } Girls work in factory; wages not given.
				10	M		
				10½	M		
				10	M		Summer rate. In winter \$1.25 for 8 hours' work.
				10	M		Summer hours. In winter 8 hours.
				10	M		Summer rates. In winter 90c. to 75c. for 8 hrs. work.
7 00					M		4 afternoons and 4 nights off in month ; balance
				24	M		50 men on force. [time engaged.
				24	M		
					M		First-class men.
					M		Second-class men.
					M		
					M		Piece work ; over \$300 paid in one year.
8 00	7 00				M		
				11	M		Work sometimes 16 hours per day ; some clerks
				10	F		receive \$2 per week and board.
				10½	M		Summer rates. In winter 60c. per day. ½
10 00	7 00			9½	M	\$30 p week	January to May, 9 hours; May to January, 10 hrs.
3 00				9½	F	\$27.50 per	Eve of holidays 14 hours employed.
				10	M	week.	Summer rate. In winter 75c. for 8 hrs.
					M & F		
					M		
					M		500 men engaged at this business.
				8	M		
				10	M	\$2.25 per	Summer rate, for 10 mths. of year. Winter, \$1 to 90c.
						day.	p. day. Empl. states men earned \$400 p. year.
				9	F		Winter hours. In summer work 10 hours.
9 00	5 00				M	\$15 p week	Piece-work.
8 00	3 50				F		"
				10	M	\$10 p week	Extra time; one-half.
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		Work all year.
					M		Summer rate. In winter, 90c. to 75c. per day.

QUEBEC,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYEE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Painters												
Printers					8 00							
Pressmen					10 00							
Paper-makers			1 00									
"			0 40									
Roofers	16	15							15			
Railroad Employés (Q. & L. St. J. R.R.)—												
Engineers							60 00	50 00				
Conductors							60 00	45 00				
Firemen							30 00					
Brakemen							30 00					
Ship Laborers—												
Holders											4 00	
Swingers											4 00	
Winchers											3 00	
Laborers											3 00	
Hookers-on											2 00	
Stvedores												
Saddlers											1 25	1 00
Stonemasons	30	25										
Stonemasons' laborer					8 00	6 00						
Stonecutter											2 25	2 00
Street Car Employés—												
Drivers					7 00							
Conductors					7 50							
Stablemen					6 00							
Steamboat Employés—												
Engineers							55 00	36 00				
Deck hands							20 00	12 00				
Steamfitters			2 00	1 50								
Shoemakers—												
Lasters					13 00	8 00						
Peggers					8 00							
Heelers					7 25	7 00						
Finishers												
Girls												
Machine stitchers											0 70	
Tailoring—												
Vest-makers					3 00							
Pants-makers												
Shir-makers												
Vest-makers												
Overcoat-makers					5 00	3 00						
Undercoat-makers												
Tailors					7 00							
Tanner (fur)												
(leather)					8 00							
Tobacco workers					9 00	5 00						
" (boys)			0 50	0 40								
" (girls)			0 20									
" (women)					6 00	5 00						

P. Q.—Continued.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
8 00				10	M		Summer rates. Winter, \$1 to 80c. per day of 8 hrs.
				9	M	\$11 a week	30 cents per 1,000 ems.
					M		
				12	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		Summer rates. In winter, 13½ cents for 9 hours a day; \$300 yearly wages earned.
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
				8	M	\$4 to \$6 per day.	(One-half English and one-half French—employed at all work). 1 month in year.
				8	M		\$300 earned in one year.
				8	M		Great deal of time lost waiting for timber, etc.
				8	M		Earns about \$250 in season.
				8	M		
					M		Contract work.
				10	M		Earns, say, \$150 per year.
					M		Summer rate. In winter 15 cents per hour.
					M		All year.
					M		
				11½	M	\$8 a week in summer	Summer rates. In winter, \$5 to \$4 for 9 hours. Work half day extra on Sunday.
				11½	M		Summer rate. In winter \$5 to \$4 for 9 hours.
				19	M	\$7 a week in winter.	Summer rate. In winter \$5 per week for same hours. Live in stable most of time.
				15	M		Ferry service—work Sunday one-half day extra. Board paid by steamboat owners.
				15	M		
				10	M		
12 00	10 00			10	M		
8 00	7 00			10	M		
				10	M		
8 00	6 00			10	M		
1 25	0 60			10	F		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	F		
5 00				9	M		
5 00				10	M		Summer rate. In winter, \$3.50 per week. Work done with feet.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		No extra time for night-work.
				10	F		

P. Q.—Concluded.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	F
.....	10	F
.....	10	M	\$3 per day
.....	10	F
.....	10	F

QUEBEC.

.....	F	Over 16 years old.
.....	M	Winter season.
.....	M	In summer, \$35 per month. Rates given are winter rates.
.....	10	M	Summer rate. In winter, 80c. per day for eight hours. Average earnings per year, \$162.
.....	18 00	M	Get their board also. Ferry-boat deck hands.
.....	M	Apprentices receive \$1 per week first year.
9 00	8 00	M	Apprentices, 1st six months, 75c. per week; 2nd six months, \$1 per week; 2nd year, \$1.25; 3rd year, \$1.50; 4th year, \$1.75; 5th year, \$2. Sunday work paid for at double time.
.....	10	M	Same wages as in city of Quebec. Average earnings, \$160 per year.

QUEBEC.

.....	M
.....	10	M	Winter. In summer, 70c. for same number of h'rs.
1 50	10	Summer. In winter, \$1.20
.....	10
.....	10	M	Winter. In summer, 80c. per day for same number of hours.
7 50	12	M	Summer rates.

QUEBEC.

.....	M	[day
.....	M	\$2 50 per
.....	M
.....	M	\$3 per day

SHERBROOKE,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Brick-yard Employés—												
Builders			2 00									
Laborers			1 10									
Moulders			2 00									
Bricklayers			3 50	2 25								
Bakers			9 00									
" (confectionery)			1 00									
Cotton factory employés												
(girls)					6 00	4 00						
Corset factory, (women).....					6 50	3 00						
" (men and boys).....					12 00	4 00						
" (children).....					2 50	2 00						
Clothier, (men).....					12 00	10 00						
" (women)			1 00	0 60								
Cellar-man					8 00							
Carpenters.....			2 00									
Cabinetmakers			1 75	1 50								
Cigar factories (boys).....					3 00	1 00						
" (men)					9 00	5 00						
" (girls)					2 00	1 00						
" (shippers, girls).....					1 75	1 00						
Joiners.....			2 00	1 75								
Laborers			1 50	1 00								
Lathers.....												
Lumbermen							20 00	8 00				
Machinists			2 25	1 50								
Moulders (general).....					10 00	7 50						
" (stove-plate).....			2 00	1 50								
Maltsters.....					8 00							
Painters					12 00	7 00						
Pattern-makers.....			2 00	1 50								
Stonemasons			2 50	2 00								
Stair-builders.....			2 00									
Shoemakers					8 00	7 00						
Tailors (men).....			1 75									
" (women)					4 50							
Tinsmiths.....												
Wood workers(mach. hands)			1 75									
Woolen Factory, children...			0 25									
" (spinners, girls).....					2 37	2 00						
" (weavers, men).....												
" (" women).....					6 00	5 00						
" (weavers on flannel)					5 00	3 50						
" (spinners ").....					3 00	2 50						

QUEBEC.

STATEMENT.				Hours per day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M	\$2.25 day.	Sometimes wages run from \$4 to \$4.50 per day, 6 months work in year.
				10	M	\$12 week.	Night work. Boys \$6 to \$3 per week.
				9½	M	\$17 week.	
					F		
					F		
					M		
					M & F		
					M		6 months work in year.
					F		
				10	M		Summer rates. In winter \$1.40 per day for 7½ hours. Apprentices 60c. per day 1st year to \$1 per day 3rd year.
10 00				10	M		
					M		
7 00	6 50				M		\$5 per thousand.
					F		Pasting on labels.
1 10	0 60				F		
					M		7 or 8 months' work. Apprentices 50c. per day 1st year to \$1 3rd year.
					M		
					M		10c to 12½c. per bunch.
					M		Winter season only—say 4 months.
				10	M		
				10	M	\$17.50 wk.	
				10	M		
					M		Work 9 months in year.
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
10 00	5 00			9	M		Cutters, \$18 per week.
				9	F		
10 00	8 50				M		Apprentices start at \$1.50 per week.
					M		
				10	M & F		
				10	F		
9 75				10	M		
8 50	5 50			10	F		
				10	F		
				10	M & F		Boys and girls.

QUEBEC.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	Apprentices commence at \$1 per week for first year and are raised \$1 per week each subsequent year.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
10 00	9 00	10	M	
7 00	6 60	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	F	
.....	11	F	
.....	11	M	
.....	11	M	
.....	10	M	
7 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	

QUEBEC.

.....	M	\$700 to \$450 per year.
.....	M	
.....	M	\$2.50 a day	
.....	F	
.....	F	
.....	8	M	
.....	M	
.....	10½	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	9½	M	
.....	M	

BRUNSWICK.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				9	M		About 9 months' work in year.
				10	M		
				10	M	\$2 per day	
				10	M		
				10	F		Commence at 15c. per day.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
15 00	10 00			10	M		Piece-work.
5 00	3 00			9	F		"
10 00	9 00			10	M		
6 00	5 00			10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		
*8 00				10	M		*Average.
4 00	2 00			10	F		Commencing at \$1.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
9 00	7 00			10	M		10 hours is for inside work ; outside work 9 hours.
				10	M		
12 00	10 00			10	M		
						\$40 to \$10	For self and horse.
10 00	6 00			10	M		per week.
4 00	2 00			10	M		
10 50	3 50			10	M		
6 00	3 00			10	F		
9 00	7 00			10	M		
				10	M		
6 00	1 50			10	F		Average, \$3.
4 00	2 00			10	F		
4 00	1 00			10	F		
4 00	3 50			10	F		Commence at \$2.
8 00				10	M		
6 00	3 00			10	F		Commence at \$1.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		Commence at \$1.50.
				10	M		
				10	M		Mines at Joggins.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Apprentices in all branches, \$4.50 to \$1.50 week.
				10	M		
				10	M		Average \$2.*

ST. JOHN, NEW

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S				
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Carriage-making—													
Wood-workers.....			2 10	1 35									
Cigar-makers.....					20 00	8 00							
".....					6 00	2 00							
" (boys).....					3 50	2 00							
Caulkers.....												2 50	
Car-building.....													
Blacksmiths.....					10 00	7 00							
" helpers.....					6 00								
Carpenters.....					10 00	7 00							
Moulders.....					12 00	7 00							
Machinists.....					12 00	7 00							
Painters.....					9 00	7 50							
Boys.....					4 50	2 00							
Cabinet-makers.....					12 00	7 00						9 00	8 00
" (finishers).....													
" (boys).....					5 00	1 50							
Edge-Tool Works—													
Forgers.....			2 00										
" helpers.....			1 25										
Lathe-men.....					10 00	9 00							
Earthenware Manufactory—													
Skilled men.....					12 00	9 00							
Unskilled men.....			1 00										
Boys.....				0 40									
Engineers (stationary).....													
Harness-makers.....													
Lumbering—													
Raftsmen.....			2 75	1 75								2 25	1 75
Engineers.....					10 50								
Deal-pilers.....			1 80										
Gang-men.....			1 80										
Tail-men.....			1 50										
Middle-men.....			1 60										
Circular-men.....			1 80	1 60									
Lath-sawyers.....			1 80										
Steamboat captains.....							60 00	40 00					
" engineers.....							40 00						
" firemen.....							30 00						
" deck-hands.....							30 00	15 00					
Laborers (corporation).....												1 10	
" (in machine shops).....			1 25	1 00									
Moulders.....					10 00	8 00							
Mantle-makers.....					6 00	4 00							
Milliners.....					8 00	6 00							
Machinists.....													
" (apprentices).....												2 50	2 00
Marble-cutters.....			2 50	2 00									
Marble-polishers.....												1 00	1 00
Nail Works.....													
Machine-men.....					12 00								
Piece-men.....					8 00								
Feeders.....												1 50	1 10
Making horse-nails.....												2 00	
Other hands.....					7 50	7 00							

BRUNSWICK—Con.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M		
12 00	8 00				M		
3 00	2 00				F		Workman says two girls on piece-work earn from
3 00	1 00				M		\$5 to \$6 per week.
				9	M		Make about \$300 per year. Season lasts 4 to 5
						\$13 to \$24	months.
						[week.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Piece-workers, \$10 to \$18.
				10	M		
				10	M		
10 00	8 00			10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Piece-work.
				10	M		
10 00	8 00			10	M		
9 00				11	M		
				10	M		
				8	M	\$2.25 day	About 8 months' work a year.
					M		Winter time, 8 hours; summer, 10 to 12 hours.
					M		Another employer paid his raftsmen \$16 to
					M	\$2.50 day	\$20 per month and board.
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M		7 to 8 months' work.
				10	M		
				9	M		
					F		
					F		For best hands only.
12 00	8 00			10	M		
5 50	1 00			10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Boys commence at \$1.50 per week.
					M	\$2.50 to	
					M	\$3.25 day.	
9 00	8 00			10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		

BRUNSWICK—*Con.*

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	Piece-work, \$3 to \$1 per day.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	[day.	
10 00	7 00	10	M	\$1.75 to \$2	Works close down about 2 months in the year.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
13 00	9 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	Mill at Springdale.
.....	12	M	
.....	12	M	
.....	12	F	
5 00	2 00	9	F	Average, \$3 per week ; commence at \$1.25.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
13 00	12 00	10	M	Day-work.
.....	10	M	Piece-work prices, 30 cts. per 1,000 ems for morn-
.....	1 30	10	M	ing paper ; 28 cts. evening paper.
.....	10	M	
.....	9	F	Average, \$3.50 ; piece-work.
10 00	9 00	10	M	
.....	M	
.....	36 00	M	
.....	60 00	M	
.....	65 00	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	50 00	40 00	14	M	And \$10 per month bonus in addition.
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	\$10 week	
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	About 8 months' work in the year.
.....	8 to 10	M	\$5 to \$4 day	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	9	M	Summer rates ; about 8 months. Winter, occasional
.....	M	work at \$8 per week.
.....	M	About 9 months' work in the year.
.....	M	" " " "

BRUNSWICK—*Concluded.*

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	Shut down about 4 weeks in year. Piece-work. } All piece-work men together average \$8 per week. " } " } " }
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	F	
.....	10	M & F	
15 00	11 00	11	M	
.....	11	M	
.....	9	F	In stores. Piece-work.
.....	10	F	The hours are given as applicable to the larger stores only.
.....	12	M	
8 00	6 00	M [week	
.....	10	M	\$11 to \$10	
.....	M	Work about six and a-half months in year.
9 00	8 00	10	M	Apprentices about \$2 a week first year.
12 00	9 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	Summer rates: \$3 on steamers. \$2.50 on sailing vessels. Winter rates, for eight hours' work, \$2 both sail and steam. Summer rates in force from 1st of April to 1st November.
.....	10	M	Six months' work in year.
20 00	10	M	
7 00	6 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	\$25 week..	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
8 00	5 50	10	M	
12 00	9 00	10	M	
.....	9	M	
.....	9	F	
.....	9	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
11 00	10 00	10	M	

NEW BRUNSWICK.

.....	10	M	Work about eleven months in year.
.....	10	M	50c. first year, \$1 third year.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	Average given by both employer and workman at \$2. Yearly earnings, \$450 to \$500.
.....	10	M	

MONCTON, NEW

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S				
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	
Carpenters					10 42							1 75	1 25
" apprentices.....							4 00						
Coopers			2 50	2 00									
" helpers (young men).....			1 00										
Car-shops—													
Apprentices			1 00	0 50									
Boiler-makers			2 20	1 70							2 20	1 80	
" helpers			1 50	1 25							1 50	1 25	
Blacksmiths			2 70	1 60							2 75	1 50	
" helpers.....			1 35	1 15									
Carpenters			1 85	1 28							1 85	1 25	
Laborers			1 35	1 10									
Machinists			2 64	1 40							2 10	1 50	
Pipe-fitters			1 80	1 50									
Tinsmiths			1 70	1 50									
" helpers.....			1 40	1 25									
Painters.....			2 30	1 35							2 30	1 50	
Cotton Factory—													
Carders.....						7 00							
" (females).....						4 00							
Card-grinders											1 25		
" (helpers).....											1 00		
Girls (in weaving-room).....						2 25	1 50						
" (in cloth-room).....													
Spinners			1 80										
" (boys).....											0 40	0 30	
" (girls).....							1 25						
Throstlers						3 60							
Winding-room						3 25	2 40						
Weavers													
Men in cloth-room.....													
Engineer (stationary).....			1 40	1 00							1 50	0 30	
Fitters			1 50	1 00									
Hosiery works (winders).....						2 50	2 00						
" (other help).....						5 50	3 00						
Laborers (in machine-shop).....			1 20	1 00									
Moulders (stove-plate).....			2 50	2 00									
" (machinery).....			2 00	1 50									
Melters.....			1 50	1 30									
Millers.....								50 00	40 00				
Machinists.....						12 00	8 00						
Plasterers.....													
" laborers.....			1 25										
Pattern-makers			1 40										
Railway Hands—													
Brakemen			1 50	1 25									
Conductors			2 50	1 75									
Engineers			2 75	1 90									
Firemen			1 50	1 30									
Section-men.....			1 15	1 05									
Train-despatchers								50 00					
Yardmen			1 55	1 25									
Sugar Refinery—													
Skilled men			3 00	1 25									
Unskilled men.....			1 20	0 90						11			0 90

BRUNSWICK.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M	\$2 per day	Average pay, \$1.50. About 8 months' work in year. Work about 9 months in year.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
4 50	3 60			10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
3 50				10	F		
10 50	7 00			10	F		
				10	M		
3 60	3 00			10	M		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	F		
7 50				10	F		
10 00	7 00			10	M & F		
				10	M		
				10 to 15	M	30 cents per day for boys running small engines.	
				10	M		
				9	F		
				9	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	Apprentices, \$2 to \$4 per week.	
				10	M	Piece-work, \$1 per thousand.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
					M	Some employes gave testimony, and in all cases corroborated the evidence of the manager.	
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M	\$1.45 to \$1.60 day.	
					M		Up to \$1,000 per year.
					M		
				10 to 16	M		
				10 to 16	M		

BRUNSWICK—Concluded.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				11½			\$208 to \$475 per year. Head clerk, \$720.
					M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M		
				11	M	\$40 month	
				10	M		Boys, \$35 per year
				10	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Piece-work ; about 9 months' work in year.
				10	F		" " "
				10	F		" " "
				10	M	\$2.25 day	Apprentices, \$2 per week.
				10	M	\$2.10 day	9 hours only in winter. Apprentices, \$1 to \$2 week.
				10	M		

NEW BRUNSWICK.

*11 00				10	M		*Average.
				10	M		
*15 00				10	M		Those receiving \$25 are foremen. *Average.
	5 00			10	M		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	M		Apprentices, \$3 per week.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Work about 8 months in the year.
				10	M		
				10	M		
*7 50				10	M		Boys in this room, 65 cts. to 90 cts. per day.
				10	M & F		*Average.
				10	M		
				10	M & F		
				10	F		
				8	M	\$2.50 day	
				8	M		
				8	M		
				10	M		\$1.25 summer; \$1 winter.
18 00	12 00			10	M		Piece-work.
				10	M	\$20 week	
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		Day-workers.
9 00	8 00			10	M & F		Piece-workers.
				10	M		
				10	M		

NEW BRUNSWICK.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M		Apprentices, \$40 per year and board.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
						Earn \$150 to \$175, with about 3 months' work in the year.	
				10	M	Average, \$1.50. Given by workman.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	M		
				10	M	Run about 6 months in the year.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	And board.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
						"	
						"	

NEW BRUNSWICK.

				10	M		Boys in this room, \$2.40 per week.
				10	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F	\$1.50 to \$2	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
10 00				10	M		
				10	F	Average, \$1 per day.	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M	And board.	
				10	M	About 7 months' work.	
				10	M	\$4 per day	

BRUNSWICK.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	Six or seven months' steady work in year.
.....	10	M	
.....	80 00	50 00	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	\$13 week.	Apprentices \$1 to \$3 a week.
.....	10	M	\$1.80 day.	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	Summer rates. In winter, \$1.50 to \$1.40.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	About \$350 for season.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	Branch railway.
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	Six or seven months in summer at these rates. In winter, \$1.30 to \$1.20 a day.
.....	M	About six months work. Earn from \$150 to \$200 in season.
.....	M	
.....	M	
.....	M	Work six or seven months in year.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	\$2 per day	*Average.
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	10	M	
.....	18 00	14 00	10	M	And b. ar'd.
.....	10	M	

FREDERICTON,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYÉ'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Agricultural Impl't Works—												
Machinist.....					9 50	9 00						
Moulders.....					9 50	9 00						
Journeymen (Average).....			1 50									
Apprentices.....					4 00	1 50						
Carriage painters.....					10 00	7 00						
“ blacksmiths.....					10 00	7 00						
“ trimmers.....					16 00	15 00						
Engineers (stationary).....										2 00	1 25	
Laborers.....					7 50	7 00					1 50	
Larrigan-makers.....												
Planing mill.....					10 00	8 00						
“ (boys).....					5 00	2 00						
Small Hardware Works—												
Hames, &c.....					10 00							

HALIFAX,

Box-makers.....							20 00	12 00				
Brass foundry (skilled men).....					12 00	8 00						
Baker & Confectionery W'ks												
Men bakers.....					12 00	6 00						
Biscuit bakers.....					10 00	4 00						
Boys.....					1 50	1 00						
Girls.....					4 00	1 25						
Bricklayers.....			3 00	2 50							2 50	
Boiler-makers.....					10 00							
Broom-makers.....					12 00	7 00						
“ helpers.....					5 00	4 00						
Brewery hands.....					7 00	6 00						
Bookbinders—												
Men.....					12 00	9 00						
Girls.....					4 00	1 00						
Clerks (grocery).....												
Cotton Factory—												
Card-room (females).....										0 94	0 30	
“ (boys).....												
Cloth-room (boys).....												
Children.....												
Foremen.....					15 00							
Reelers.....					2 25							
Picker-room (men).....					6 00							
“ (boys).....					2 50							
Spinning-room (men).....												
“ (boys).....												
“ (girls).....					3 25							
Weavers (males).....												
“ (females).....					5 50	4 25						
“ (boys in weaver-room).....					2 50							
Winders.....					6 00	4 00						
Warpers.....					6 00	4 00						
Twisters.....					*4 25							

NEW BRUNSWICK.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	10	M	\$3 per day	
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
.....	12	M		Summer rates. In winter, \$6.50 to \$6.
.....	10	M		Boys in works, \$2.50 per week.
.....	10	M	\$10 week	Idle 6 weeks in year.
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		

NOVA SCOTIA.

.....	M	With board. Work out of city.
.....	M	Boys earn \$1 to \$1.50 per week.
10 00	5 50	11 1/2	M	\$12 week.	Men say they occasionally have to work from 3 a.m. to 6 p.m.
.....	10	M		
2 75	1 00	10	M		
.....	10	F		
.....	9	M		Season lasts 5 to 8 months.
.....	10	M		Boys get \$3 to \$2 per week.
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		During about 3 months of year work only 8 or 9 h'rs.
.....	10	M		Boys, \$1.50 to \$1 per week.
.....	M		
.....	F		
.....	M		\$400 to \$800 a year. Book-keeper, \$500 to \$1,000.
.....	10	F		
2 62 1/2	1 50	10	M		Manager says men average \$7.50 per week.
4 50	3 00	10	M		Women average \$3.90, and children \$1.25.
.....	1 00	10	M & F		
.....	10	M		
2 14	1 16	10	M & F		
.....	10	M		
.....	10	M		
11 00	10 00	10	M		
1 50	1 25	10	M		
3 40	1 50	10	F		
8 25	4 00	10	M		
4 75	4 25	10	F		
.....	10	M		
3 50	1 75	10	F		
.....	10	F		
.....	10	F		

*Average.

HALIFAX,

OCCUPATION.	EMPLOYER'S STATEMENT.								EMPLOYE'S			
	Per Hour.		Per Day.		Per Week.		Per Month.		Per Hour.		Per Day.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	cts.	cts.	\$ c.	\$ c.
Carpenters.....			2 00	1 25							1 75	1 40
Carriage-makers—												
Wood-workers.....					15 00	9 00						
Blacksmiths.....					11 00	8 00						
Painters.....					10 50	6 00						
Upholsterers.....					9 00							
Boys.....					3 00	1 00						
Coopers.....			1 70	1 20								
Distillery Hands—												
Still-men.....					7 00							
Mash-men.....					8 00							
Engineers.....					11 00							
Carpenters.....					8 00							
Laborers.....					6 50	6 00						
Coopers.....					11 00							
Electric Light Company's												
Employés—												
Skilled men.....					10 00	8 00						
Unskilled men.....			1 40	1 10								
Firemen (drivers).....					8 00							
Fishermen.....												
Hatters and furriers (girls).....					4 00	1 50						
Longshoremén.....			1 50									
Laborers—												
Corporation.....			1 25	1 00								
In machine shop.....			1 50	1 25								
Builders.....			1 25	1 10								
Drying fish.....			1 25									
Lobster Packing—												
Men.....							40 00	25 00				
Women.....							12 00	8 00				
Can-makers.....			2 00									
Machinists.....			1 75									
Miners (gold).....			1 50									
Pattern-makers.....					15 00	12 00						
Plumbers.....					10 00	6 00						
Plasterers.....			2 75	2 50							2 50	
Painters.....					11 00	10 00						
Printers.....												
Policemen.....												
Sergeants.....												
Deputy marshals.....												
Detectives.....					10 50							
Sail makers.....					10 50							
" (boys).....					3 00	2 00						

NOVA SCOTIA—Continued.

STATEMENT.				Hours per day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M	\$2 per day	Winter work only 8 hours. Boys commence at \$1.50 per week.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Foreman gets \$10.50 per week.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				9	M		Piece-work.
				12	M		} Half holiday Saturday.
				12	M		
				12	M		
				12	M		
				12	M		
				12	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
					M		
					M		On bankers, \$175 to \$400 a season. Inshore fishermen, \$400 to \$600.
					F		Season lasts 4 or 5 months.
				10	M		Working day work. Night work, 25c. per hour; day work, 20c.
				10	M	\$10 week.	Idle large part of time in winter.
				10	M		
				9	M		
				10	M		
							With board. Season lasts from May to October.
							\$12 without board \$8 with board. Season lasts from May to October.
							Employed all year.
				10	M		Average \$10 per week. Boys commence at \$1.50 per week.
				10	M		Average \$1.30 per day. Outside city.
				10	M		
				10	M		Nine hours in winter.
				10	M		About six months' work in year. Lathers get \$1 to \$1.25 per thousand, piece-work.
10 00	8 00			10	M		Half the men in this trade are idle in the winter season, say three months; \$8 for eight hours, \$10 for ten hours' work. Boys get \$1 to \$4.
11 00	9 00			10	M		Saturday half holiday. Piece prices: Morning paper, 30c. per thousand ems; average wages earned, \$15 to \$18 per week. Evening paper, 25c. per thousand ems; average wages earned, \$10.50 to \$13 per week.
							\$480 per year.
							540 "
							740 "
							740 "
					M		
					M		

NOVA SCOTIA—*Concluded.*

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
					M		} Ordinary seamen about \$2 less.
					M		
					M		
				8 to 10	M		
				10	M	\$1.50 to \$1.60 day.	
				10	M		
7 00	6 50			10	M	\$8 week	
				10	F		
4 00	1 50			10	M		About 6 months' work in the year.
				9	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				9	M		
					M		
					M		
					F		
				10	M		With "B" certificate, \$300 to \$450 per year; with "C" certificate, \$250 to \$400. If in charge of schools, \$500 to \$750. Average, \$460.
				10	F		
							Mostly piece-work.
				10	M		
				10	F		Average, \$7 to \$9. " 3 to 4.
				10	M		
13 00				10	M		
10 00	9 25			10	M		
				10	M		

NOVA SCOTIA.

				8	M	Manager gives average wages for mines \$2.02, and number of days worked in year 279.
				8	M	
				8	M	
				8	M	
				8	M	
				8	M	
				8	M	
				8	M	
						Average \$1.40 to \$1.65 per day—\$300 to \$400 per year.

NOVA SCOTIA.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10 to 11	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10 to 11	M	\$12.50 w k	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
10 00				10	M		
				10	M		
*14 00				7½ to 9	M		Works close down 5 weeks in summer. *Average.
				"	M		
				"	M		
				"	M		
				"	M		
				9	F		
				10	M		
				7½ to 9	M		
				5 to 7	M		With board. Works out in the country. Average, \$2.
				"	M		
				"	M		
				"	M		
15 00	12 00			10	M		
6 00	3 00			10	M		When working day's work, \$2 per day.
3 25	3 10			10	M		
2 25				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Tannery at Pictou.
				10	M		
				10	M		Summer hours. In winter only work 8 hours.
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	F		
				10	F		
				10	M		Only one at \$2. Mill 7 miles from New Glasgow.

NOVA SCOTIA.

STATEMENT.				Hours per day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M		
				10	M		
					M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
					M		
					M		
					F		
					M		
					M		
					M		
					M		
				10	M		Hours in winter, 7 to 9.
				10	F		Piece-work.
7 00	6 00			10	M	\$9 a week	
				9	F		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		Have to pay boy out of this amount.

NOVA SCOTIA.

12 00	10 00			10	M		
12 00				10	M		Boys, \$3 per week.
					M		With board, or free house and firewood.
					M		And board. Work about 3 months in year.
				10	M		For summer. In winter work 9 hours, at proportionate pay.
12 00	10 50			10	M	\$18 a week	
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
5 00	2 50			10	F		
				10	M		
9 00				10	F		
12 00	9 00			10	M	\$11 a week	
8 50				10	M		
				10	M		
10 00				10	M	\$2.50 to \$3 [per day]	Beamster, \$12 per week. Average wages given by employer at \$9 per week.

NOVA SCOTIA.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10 to 16	M		Piece-work.
					M		"
					M		
				9	M		
				12	M		
				12	M		
				10 to 16	M		
				"	M		
				"	M		
				10	M		
				9	M		
				9	M		Miners working by piece average \$1.50 per day.
		20 00	15 00	9	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				9	M		
				10 to 16	M		Night-work, week about; night-shift work 12 hours.
		60 00	45 00	"	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		
				10 to 16	M		
				10	M		
				10	M		

NOVA SCOTIA.

				10	M		
				9 to 10	M		
				"	M		
		40 67	22 50	"	M		\$250 to \$350 per year. Pay out of this for oil and powder. Employers give yearly earnings at from \$290 to \$460.
				"	M		
				10	M		

NOVA SCOTIA.

STATEMENT.				Hours per Day Employed.	Sex.	Pay of Foremen.	REMARKS.
Per Week.		Per Month.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.	\$ c.				
.....	9 to 10	M	\$300 to \$350 per year.
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	

NOVA SCOTIA.

.....	10	M	In summer. Mens say they average from \$12 to \$36 a month in winter, and \$30 to \$40 in summer. Employers say they average \$1.68 per working day for the year.
.....	8 to 12	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	"	M	
.....	10 1/2	M	

In winter.