

REPORTS OF  
THE GAINSBOROUGH COMMISSION.

**Life**

AND

**Labour**

IN

**Germany**

WITH AN APPENDIX  
INFIRMITY AND OLD AGE PENSIONS  
IN GERMANY

—:O:—

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—:O:—

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(1906)

## ERRATA.

Page 33, line 18, for protected tariffs read protective tariffs.

Page 44, line 4, for protection duties read protective duties.

Page 67, line 26, for Upper Siberia read Upper Silesia.

Page 75, line 29, for wave read waive.

Page 80, line 44, for quarelsome read quarrelsome.

Page 88, line 18, for repitition read repetition.

# CONTENTS.

## REPORT I.—CREFELD.

pages

Seat of the velvet and silk industry—  
Elementary Schools—High School for  
textile industry—first power loom  
introduced here—pay days—wages—  
effect of protective duties—trade of  
Leicester and Scotch silk manufacturers  
with Crefeld—workmen's dwellings—  
stop-work unknown here—places of  
Sunday recreation—no unemployed or  
destitute seen in the streets—price of  
bread.....

1—10

Messrs Krahen & Gobbers,  
Crefeld Finishing Works (Cre-  
felder Appretur).

## REPORT II.—RHEINHAUSEN AND ESSEN.

Krupp's Works, 1843—1906—work-  
men's dwellings begun in 1861—sanitary  
arrangements — Margarethenhof at  
Rheinhausen on the Rhine—price for  
board and lodging—young men's barracks  
—no gambling—Alfredshof—Friedrich-  
shof—Altenhof—bath houses—Conval-  
escent Home—loans for workmen in  
distress—pensions to workpeople, their  
widows and orphans—rewards after long  
service—Stores — Workmen's Savings  
Bank—wages given in paper envelopes—  
Circulating Library—the Blast Furnaces,  
Thomas Steel Plant and Rolling Mills  
at Rheinhausen—rate of wages—hours  
of work—no lack of employment at Essen.

—wages increased 278 per cent since 1853 — machine shop, crucible steel foundry and open-earth plant at Essen... Friedrich Krupp's Works 11—12

REPORT III.—BOCHUM AND DORTMUND.

BOCHUM.

No lack of work—propeller shafts sent from Bochum to England and Scotland—wages—4,000 ton hydraulic forging press—rewards for long service —young men's barracks—board and lodging supplied—begun in 1864—workmen's dwellings—Stores—Kindergarten —sick fund—old age and infirmity fund —message to British Workmen..... 23—29

Bochumer Verein — Gusstahl-fabrik.

DORTMUND.

—Rate of wages—spirits not allowed to be drunk on the premises—baths—no gambling — workmen's dwellings — no workhouse to be seen—no lack of employment—all works fully occupied..... 29—31

Hoesch Eisen and Stahl Werke.

REPORT IV.—ELBERFELD.

The centre of the weaving industry— German workmen raising their standard of life and claiming more luxuries than formerly—German industry formerly dependent on England for machinery and several industrial products—Elberfeld's commercial relations with England —all textile industries in Elberfeld must get their yarns from England—wages—the Workhouse, the Poor House and the Elberfeld system—workmen's dwellings Savings Bank—board of arbitration—horseflesh—hours of work—pensions— Continuation schools—feeling of population towards England—the supply of raw material from England—price of bread ..... 32—43

Messrs D. Peters & Co., Ltd.  
Messrs Schlieper & Baum, Ltd.  
Messrs Friedrich Bayer & Co., Ltd.

## REPORT V.—SOLINGEN AND DÜSSELDORF.

## SOLINGEN.

Germany's Sheffield—effects of Bismarck's introduction of protective duties in 1879—increase of wages since 1871—the Savings Banks in Prussia and Saxony—the working classes against high duties on necessaries of life—hours of work—wages—wages paid on Friday's and Saturdays—price of bread and household commodities—workmen's dwellings .....

44—50

Messrs J. A. Henckels.

Messrs D. Peres.

## DÜSSELDORF.

Iron and Steel foundries—no lack of employment—wages—good work, good money—Savings Bank—Municipal Slaughtering Yard—price of meat—the Poor House—workmen's dwellings.....

50—56

Messrs. Haniel and Lueg.

Municipal Slaughter Yard,

Municipal Poor House.

## REPORT VI.—COLOGNE.

Wages—Professor Schmoller and Bismarck's protective policy—Prussia's fiscal policy from 1818 on—municipal insurance fund against want of employment in winter—Continuation Schools—Pension funds—use of American tools—no English agents—workmen's dwellings—prices of provisions—coals and potatoes supplied to workpeople—trade relations with England—hours of work—special rewards—improvement in conditions of workpeople—Agents for opening up fresh markets—pay days—bath-rooms .....

57—73

Gas Motoren Fabrik Deutz,  
(Deutz Gas Engine Works)Messrs J. J. Langen and Sons  
Sugar RefineryKölnische Maschinenbau Aktien  
Gesellschaft (Cologne Engine  
Works)

Messrs J. W. Zanders' Paper  
Factory  
Maschinenbau Anstalt Hum-  
boldt (Humboldt Engineering  
Works)  
Messrs Stollwerck's Chocolate  
Factory

REPORT VII.—THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.  
LEVERKUSEN.

Artificial dyes—development of coal  
tar products—wages comparatively low  
in chemical industry—pensions—work-  
men's dwellings—increase of wages  
during last ten years—Young men's  
barracks—rewards for best kept houses  
—Savings Bank—Stores—rewards for  
long service—contributions to the sick  
—schools of various kinds—Lying-in-  
Hospital—hours of work—mess-room—  
wages—workmen's dwellings—Stores—  
Girls' Home—Handicrafts School—  
Christmas at the Works.....

74—83

Farbenfabriken, Vorm. Friedr.  
Bayer and Co. (The Artificial  
Dye Factories, formerly Friedr-  
Bayer and Co. Ltd.)

REPORT VIII.—THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.  
HOECHST AND LUDWIGSHAFEN.  
HOECHST.

Employment to be had everywhere—  
Christmas in a German hospital—  
Workmen's Insurance Laws—how to  
safeguard the interests of British Work-  
men—no strike ever taken place in these  
Works—wages—trade relations with  
England—whole world supplied with  
artificial dyes—workmen's dwellings,  
first begun in 1875—young men's  
barracks—baths—meals supplied at low  
prices—price of bread—white and  
'black' bread — pensions — special  
rewards.....

84—91

Farbwerke, vormals Meister,  
Lucius und Brüning (Artificial  
Dye Works, formerly Messrs.

Meister, Lucius and Brüning.)

### LUDWIGSHAFEN.

Artificial dyes industry transplanted from Britain to Germany—value of annual production of artificial dyes to Germany—wages—hours of work—great demand for labour—no unemployed—special care devoted to sanitary arrangements and precautions—baths gratis—coffee supplied gratis—workmen's dwellings—mess-room—provision for the sick and those who meet with accidents—insurance fund for workpeople against sickness, founded in the seventies of last century—sanatorium for tuberculosis patients—fund for aged and infirm—care for the families of the workmen—baths — medical assistance — lying-in-hospital—school for domestic economy—library — Savings Bank—gymnasium, where the workpeople can go through gymnastic exercises—price of bread—white bread consumed here—important relations with England — disputes between employers and employed rare—duties on coal-tar products in Germany—no duties on similiar dyes in England—choral society.....

91—98

Badische Anilin und Soda Fabrik  
(Baden Anilin and Soda  
Factory.)

### REPORT IX.—FRANKFORT-ON-MAINE.

First town in Germany to organise a Labour Bureau, in 1895—plenty of employment in Frankfort—administration of the Poor Laws in Germany—insight into the activity of the Socialist party in Frankfort—rent of workmen's dwellings—Socialist Building Society—The Socialist headquarters—beds for journeymen workmen in the "Refuge"—cost of household commodities—price of bread—consumption of horseflesh—Socialists' Stores and Bakery—an

estimate of a workman's household expenses and receipts—the bicycle industry—German competition in this branch with England—no English tools—hours of work—wages.....

99—114

Frankfort Labour Bureau.  
The Headquarters of the Socialists, workmens' dwellings, stores and bakery.  
Adler Fahrrad Werke, vormals Heinrich Klaeyer (The Adler Bicycle Works).

REPORT X.—BAVARIA.

NUREMBERG AND AUGSBURG.

NUREMBERG.

German skilled and unskilled workmen—German workmen in general thrifty but do not excel British workmen—care taken by the State and by employers for workpeople—no 'unemployed' problem—no workhouses—price of bread—wages—hours of work—institutions for benefit of workpeople—price-list of household commodities—price of bread—Building Society—rents—Sick Funds and other Funds—Apprentice Continuation School—baths—board of arbitration for settling disputes—Apprentice Continuation School—Municipal Elementary Schools

115—125

Siemens-Schuckert Werke Electrical Engineering Works).  
Municipal Elementary School.  
Johann Faber's Pencil Works.

AUGSBURG.

Diesel engines—no longer any English machines in the Machine Factory—wages paid once a fortnight, on Fridays—workmen's dwellings—cotton spinning and weaving mills, founded in 1838, the largest in Germany—half the looms from Oldham—a good deal of English machinery in these mills—wages—hours of work—ventilation of the mills—workmen's dwellings—no sympathy here with the organised Trades Unions—



pension fund and sick fund—Savings Bank—reward after five years' service, increasing up to twenty-five years' service .....	125—131
Vereinigte Maschinen Fabrik Augsburg und Maschinen Gesellschaft Nuremberg (The United Augsburg Machine Factory and Nuremberg Machine Company.)	
Mechanische Baumwollen Spinn und Weberei (Mechanical Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills.)	

## REPORTS XI AND XII.—SAXONY.

### PLAUEN IN VOGTLAND.

Germany's Nottingham—relations of Plauen spinners with England in 1790—embroidery machines—trade in plain grey net (tulle) with England—Plauen lace industry—relations between Plauen and England—England and her colonies are Plauen's best customers—wages—cotton-weaving and cotton-embroidery are the two chief branches of the cotton industry in Vogtland—School for industrial drawing—Royal School of Art for the Textile Industry—Museum containing large collection of patterns of lace, curtains, etc—section for wall-papers—hours of work at curtain factory—wages—workmen's dwellings—lace factory—wages—Elementary School—Cookery School—expenditure of the town on education—Plauen's Continuation Schools—Savings Bank for children of Elementary Schools—turret lathe from England—Engine Works—hours of work—wages—Plauen Savings Bank.....

132—145

Königliche Kunstschule für Textil-Industrie (Royal School of Art for the Textile Industry)  
Gardinen Fabrik von Hartenstein (Hartenstein's Curtain Factory)

Spitzen Fabrik, Paul Körner  
 (Paul Körner's Lace Factory)  
 Elementary School  
 Vogtländische Maschinen Fabrik,  
 vorm. J. C. and H. Dietrich  
 Actien Gesellschaft (Engine  
 Works Limd. late J. C. and H.  
 Dietrich).

### CHEMNITZ

Chemnitz metal industry—hours of  
 work—wages—plenty of work—baths  
 and lavatories—hours of work—wages  
 — Christmas gratuities — Elementary  
 school—Municipal Asylum for diseases  
 of the nervous system—Home for aged  
 and infirm working people—institution  
 for the blind and for those of weak  
 intellect—Chemnitz Schools—physical  
 training at Municipal Schools.....

145—153

Messrs J. E. Reinecker-Werk-  
 zeug-fabrik (Factory of  
 machines of precision)

Wanderer Fahrrad Werke  
 (Bicycle Works)

Die Städtische Nervenheilanstalt  
 (Municipal Asylum for diseases  
 of the nervous system)

Altenheim (Asylum for the Blind).  
 Municipal Schools.

### LUNZENAU.

Visit to Herr Geheimrat Hermann  
 Vogel's paper mill and weaving mills at  
 Lunzenau—good sanitary conditions in  
 picturesque country district—wages—  
 competition of German labour with  
 English labour.....

154—157

### CRIMMITSCHAU.

Conditions of labour—textile industry  
 —municipal school of cookery—wages—  
 imitation yarns—hours of work—bright  
 appearance of the children in the town—  
 workmen's dwellings—municipal gas  
 works—price of meat and bread.....

157—161

Städtische Kochschule (Municipal  
 School of Cookery).

Messrs Zeimer and Schumann's  
Spinnerei (Spinning Mills)  
Municipal Gas Works.

## LEIPZIG

Centre of book trade—book-printing  
and book-binding—industrial town for  
machinery, etc.,—Leipzig 'fairs'—wages  
—hours of work—music printing offices  
engine works—prices of provisions—  
price of bread ..... 161—170

Reclam's Printing Offices; Herr  
Oscar Brandstetter's Printing  
Offices; Leipziger Buchdruc-  
kerei Actien Gesellschaft, vor-  
mals Gustav Fritzsche (Leipzig  
Book-binding Company, late  
Gustav Fritzsche)

Karl Krause's Engine Works.

## DRESDEN.

Newspaper printing office—cigarette  
factory—Municipal District School—  
Botanical School garden—Continuation  
Schools—Commercial Handicraft School  
—Building School—Dresden Reading  
Room—Municipal Hospital—Municipal  
Baths..... 170—180

## REPORT XIII.—BERLIN.

National Insurance Department—  
Workmen's Sanatoria — The Berlin  
Labour Bureau—wages—the head-  
quarters of German Socialism—the Club  
House of the Berlin Trades Unionists—  
Home Industry Exhibition—Club House  
of the "German Trades Unionists"  
(Hirsch-Duncker organisations)—Berlin  
Night Refuge—progress of engine  
manufacture in Berlin—ready-made  
clothes industry—the metal industry—  
visit to Ludwig Løwe's Works—School  
for apprentices maintained by the Firm—  
hours of work—wages—the Allgemeine  
Elektricitäts Gesellschaft—Workmen's  
dwellings — household expenditure —  
permanent Exhibition at Charlotten-  
burg of everything connected with the

protection of workmen against accidents	
reception of the delegates by Count	
von Posadowsky—special note on the	
price of bread in Berlin.....	181—208.

#### REPORT XIV.—HAMBURG.

Development of shipping in the port	
of Hamburg during the past twenty	
years—statistics—German shipbuilding	
—industrial development of Hamburg—	
housing question in Hamburg—wages	
for Hamburg harbour workmen—hours	
of work—visit to the docks and shops	
of the Hamburg America Company—a	
tour round the Harbour—the ware-	
houses and fruit-sheds—Hamburg's	
fruit market—wages of men for	
unloading fruit—German freight	
steamers and English tramps—the	
' Volksheim ' (People's Home)—Work-	
men's Home—Municipal Baths—	
Hamburg cigar manufacture—wages—	
sanitary conditions.....	209—228.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.—UPPER SILESIA.

Influence of lessons obtained from	
England—English methods for	
obtaining zinc—Ruhberg's discovery in	
1802—Godulla—Upper Silesia rich in	
mineral treasures, e.g., coal, iron, zinc	
and lead—estimated annual value of its	
industrial products—improvement in the	
conditions of labour—statistics—	
permanent want of workmen in Upper	
Silesia—housing of working classes—	
future of Upper Silesian coal seams—	
visits to mines at Kattowitz and	
Myslowitz—wages—workmen's dwell-	
ings—Gallician and Ruthenian work-	
men—Stores for the use of the miners	
—slaughter yard at Königshütte—	
Russian and German bacon—visit to a	
State coal mine—wages paid twice a	
month—workmen's dwellings—price of	
bread—visit to the Friedens Mine—	
wages—baths—workmen's dwellings—	
tennis ground, football field and play-	
ground for the workpeople—visit	

to the Friedens Works — wages of furnace-men, at the rolling-mills and sheet-rolling mills—wages paid on Fridays instead of Saturdays—public houses closed on wage days at 4 p.m.—Co-operative Stores—prices of commodities—visit to the Donnersmarck-hütte (Donnersmarck Blast-furnaces and Coal Mines) at Zabrze—beneficent funds for workpeople—Insurance Fund against non-employment—school for instruction in house-keeping to girls—Continuation School—library—theatre for workpeople—wages—hours of work—House for the aged—swimming bath—Club House—Choral Society—a visit to Borsig's Works—wages—young men's barracks—rent for workmen's dwellings—visit to the Preussen mine—baths—workmen's dwellings—estimate of expenses of unmarried men—the zinc industry—visit to Lipine—statistics of wages—comparison with England—workmen's dwellings — stores — bath house—library—laundry—visit to the works at Rosdzin—pension fund—hours for work—nature of female labour at these works—wages—excess of drinking amongst workpeople in Upper Silesia...	229—265
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## APPENDIX

Infirmity and Old Age Pensions in Germany, by J. L. Bashford, M.A.,.....	266—286
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In giving the sums of money for wages, rent, cost of provisions, etc., German marks and fractions of marks have been converted into English money throughout this volume on the basis of £1 to Mks. 20·40, fractions being rounded off:—

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Mks. 20} = 19/7 \\ \text{,, 10} \text{ ,, } = 9/9\frac{1}{2} \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{Mks. 15} = 14/7\frac{1}{4} \\ \text{,, 12} \text{ ,, } = 11/9 \end{array}$$

Mk. 1·00.....	=	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	·35 pfennige	=	4 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.
·95 pfennige	,,	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	·34	,,	4d.
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·65	,,	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ d.	·21	,,	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
·60	,,	7d.	·20	,,	2 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.
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·52	,,	6 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.	·15	,,	1 $\frac{5}{8}$ d.
·51	,,	6d.	·12	,,	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
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·48	,,	5 $\frac{2}{3}$ d.	·08	,,	1d.
·46	,,	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	·07	,,	$\frac{7}{8}$ d.
·45	,,	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	·06	,,	$\frac{3}{4}$ d.
·42	,,	5d.	·05	,,	$\frac{5}{8}$ d.
·40	,,	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.			

Weights and measures have been converted as follows (cf Whitaker's Almanack):—

1 German lb.	equals roughly	1 $\frac{1}{8}$ English lb.
1 liter	equals	1 $\frac{3}{4}$ English pt.
$\frac{1}{2}$ liter	equals	$\frac{7}{8}$ English pt.

## PREFACE.

In the Autumn of last year, when the minds of the people of Great Britain were agitated by many kinds of election catch-phrases, the conditions of life of the working-men of Germany were constantly referred to for election purposes in very disparaging terms—terms that displayed a very remarkable want of knowledge of the subject. In the Gainsborough Division, where I reside, I found to my amazement that not a few orators sought to induce the electors to believe that German workmen, as compared with British workmen, lived under social conditions of abject misery, conditions alleged to be due to Germany's policy of protection.

It was repeatedly affirmed that German workmen and their families were constrained to live on dog meat and horse flesh; that they were clad in rags and tatters; and that their habitations resembled pig-stys, rather than the dwellings of human beings. Even Sir William Robson, the Solicitor General, went so far in January last, according to the report of his speech reproduced in a local liberal newspaper, and not since repudiated by him, as to declare on the authority of "Sir Richard Calver" (sic) that the German people were being forced to a condition of distress by the taxes on food. If Sir William Robson really cited a "Sir Richard Calver" he was very badly prompted, or he misunderstood his prompter. Richard Calver, not "Sir Richard Calver" is an able German Socialist writer whose works are cited in the following pages. Those who read the facts contained in this volume, that were collected at first hand by the Gainsborough Commission of British Workmen will comprehend why I submit that Sir William Robson and those who then thought with him must have picked up their information from very questionable and unreliable sources.

In the autumn of last year I found that an entirely false picture of the conditions of life of German workmen was being presented to British workmen, and that this picture was being exploited for political purposes; so I conceived the idea of taking a step which had not been tried before, in order that British workmen should obtain a true notion of the conditions under which their rivals and competitors in Germany live.

The great difficulty I have always experienced when discussing political and social problems with the working classes has been that they will not believe anything, however lucidly explained to them, which does not coincide with preconceived notions and prejudices. I fancy that in this regard they hold no monopoly! As I have always entertained special sympathy for the workmen of Gainsborough since I came to live amongst them, I thought that the best way of counteracting the effects of fictitious anecdotes, such as I have referred to above, would be to offer to send a deputation of them, selected by themselves in open meeting, to Germany, where they could be placed in a position to judge for themselves on the matters at issue and report thereon to their fellow-workmen at home. I felt sure that if the workmen would not listen to me, they would assuredly lend an ear to their own emissaries.

After having placed myself in communication with Messrs. Marshall, Sons & Co., Messrs. Rose, Bros., and Messrs. Edlington & Co., all of Gainsborough; and after having received their approval of my plan and their consent to give leave of absence to those of their men who might be elected, I applied to the Editor of this book who, owing to his knowledge of German conditions, had been represented to me as being in a position to carry out my plan, and made arrangements with him that the men selected should go to the chief industrial districts of Germany under his supervision, and that he should contrive to obtain for them the opportunities desired for studying the conditions of life and labour of German workingmen.

Before undertaking the task, Mr J. L. Bashford obtained such facilities as he deemed indispensable, through the kind and courteous co-operation of the State Secretary of the German Imperial Home Office, of the Prussian Minister of Trade and Commerce, as well as of a large number of manufacturers and of the organising officials of the Workmen's Trade Organisations in Germany. An itinerary was drawn up and the tour lasted for six weeks.

The Reports contained in this book signed by the delegates of the Commission were severally drawn up after careful discussion with the delegates. They contain, as the men have assured me, a faithful reproduction of their own views on all they saw and heard, to which they affixed their signatures. I hope that the information thus collected impartially and with no political bias whatever—information which has been submitted to all parties concerned and declared to be absolutely correct, will prove of permanent value to all those interested in the question of the conditions of labour in this country.

C. ALGERNON MOREING.

Gate Burton Hall, near Gainsborough,  
December, 1906.



## INTRODUCTION.

In November, 1905, a request was made to me to conduct a deputation of Gainsborough workmen through the chief industrial districts of Germany in order that they might obtain for themselves a clear idea of the conditions of life and labour under which German working-men toiled ; and I was explicitly given to understand that the object of the journey was unpolitical, it being intended mainly that certain fallacies prevailing in England concerning the rate of wages and mode of life of German workmen should be rectified. I was informed that the deputation would consist of six employees of Gainsborough Firms, viz. : Messrs Marshall, Sons & Co., Messrs Rose, Bros., and Messrs Edlington & Co.

The necessary facilities for carrying out such a task were most readily and courteously given by the Secretary of State of the German Imperial Home Office ; by the Prussian Minister of Trade and Commerce ; by a number of manufacturers and others connected with industry ; and by the organising authorities of the Social Democratic Party. To all these gentlemen I herewith tender sincerest thanks on my own part and on behalf of the delegates of the Gainsborough Commission. The results of the journey are to be found in the reports published in this book. It was originally intended that the plan sketched out for the delegates should embrace Upper Silesia and some other districts ; but after the lapse of six weeks this part of the plan had to be abandoned. In order, however, that so important a sphere of labour as Upper Silesia should not be passed over, it was subsequently decided that I should go there last Spring accompanied by a gentleman who has been employed all his life in English and German works, and that I should draw up a supplementary report of the conditions of labour in this part of the Empire. This Supplementary Report will be found immediately after the fourteen signed Reports of the members of the Commission. As an Appendix to the Reports is published a paper on ' Infirmity and Old Age Pensions ' that I was asked to

read before the Congress for Home Relief held in Edinburgh in June, 1904 ; it has been revised so as to bring all the statistics up to date, and these statistics which have been tested in the Imperial Home Office by kind permission of Count von Posadowsky can be taken as the latest available information on the subject.

The members of the Commission represented more than one phase of political thought, hence the reports have been drawn up impartially and dealing with the various questions from several points of view. Throughout the tour the men applied themselves assiduously to their arduous task and were determined to carry out their enquiry in as thorough a manner as was possible in the short time at their disposal. After their return to England each delegate handed me a written statement in his own words giving a brief summary of the impressions made upon him in Germany, from which I cite a few sentences :—

MR GEORGE PROCTOR wrote :—

“ At the very beginning of our enquiry we were brought face to face with that economic factor in industry called tariffs and its baneful influence alike on the workers engaged in industry. We found that Germany raised tariffs against every other country and that France, America, Russia, South America, Spain, Italy, Austria, and other countries in Europe raised tariffs against her ; but this did not stop the expansion of her trade with other countries. . . . In my opinion the skilled artisan of Germany is in a worse position than the skilled artisan of England, but the unskilled I thought was better than the English unskilled class. This I have no doubt is due to what the State and employer do for him. . . . The employers do a lot for the workmen that I am persuaded they could do a great deal better for themselves with a little bit of independence and co-operation with their fellow-workmen. I do not like the flat system of dwellings . . . still I think, nay I am sure, that they are better than similar flats in our large towns in England. They present a fine appearance from the outside, much more pleasing to the eye than English flats. In conclusion let me pay my mead of praise to all those I came in contact with during our tour, both employees and employers ; many pleasant memories will linger in my mind of the kind wishes expressed towards England by Germans of every station in life.”

MR H. BEILBY wrote :—

“ The general impressions I made of German working-men far exceeded my expectations. . . . The German working-man is contented with a lower scale of living than an average Britisher : but I have no hesitation in saying that he is at all events nearly equal in working capacity to English working-

men. With respect to provision for old age a German working-man is better provided for. I should greatly like to see the Old Age and Infirmity Pension scheme introduced into England. During the whole six weeks I was in Germany I only came across one case of drunkenness. This state of temperance must I am convinced be an important factor in the prosperity of the country."

MR GEORGE BROWN wrote :—

"There seems to be a closer tie in Germany between the employer and the workmen as the employer does more for the men, viz. in erecting houses, bathing establishments and libraries, and in looking after his comforts generally; and the German employer has a grasp of every detail of his particular business, having learnt as an ordinary workman. I think the Germans are before us in regard to education especially in the Elementary and Technical Schools. The children are all well-dressed and look clean and happy; the baths and gymnasiums in the schools are special features. In some schools food is given to poor children on the principle that it is no good trying to teach a child on an empty stomach . . . . I must say that some of the workmen, especially the unskilled portion, seem to be as well-off as our own; but the skilled portion are not so well-off. The German workman evidently believes in putting his money in the Bank, instead of spending it on food. There is no doubt that the Socialists have done a deal of good through their agitation in Parliament towards bettering the condition of the workers; but there is a growing tendency to aspire more to political power than to do what they were sent to Parliament for. Meanwhile the rank and file will have to watch their own interests and to keep the leaders of the party up to the mark. The German workman seems to be more sober and steady than our own workpeople and he dresses well. When he gets employment he seems to like to stop where he is instead of always changing."

MR J. MANN wrote :—

"I went to Germany with an open mind with regard to tariff reform, but had not gone far before I found that something would have to be done to protect our industry at home . . . . It is reasonable to suppose that when the people of England get thoroughly awakened to the losses naturally incurred by them in consequence of the high tariffs imposed by foreign countries, they will ultimately come to the conclusion that what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander, and will ask that foreigners shall pay for the use of the British market just as foreigners make British

manufacturers through their high tariffs pay for the use of their markets."

MR H. CALVERT wrote :—

"The wages in the weaving industry are not so high as in Great Britain ; but the many institutions founded and endowed by the employers represent payment in kind . . . . The engineering industry furnished me with much good food for reflection. No matter what type of engine is required or whatever its motive power, we find it in course of construction on a large scale . . . . The same remark applies to machinery of all classes, excepting the heavier tools ; and it is generally admitted that in this branch we still lead the way.

I am of opinion that the British mechanic is very superior to the German mechanic, as the latter does not appear to possess the general air of confidence when at work which is characteristic of the former. The greater ability which I claim for the British workman in the engineering industry is hereditary, and is only approached as yet by his German colleague after diligent application . . . . .

The Old Age and Infirmity Pension Scheme impressed me as being perfect in organisation and administration ; and it must be very gratifying to know that when the time comes to cease work, declining years will not be spent within the Workhouse gate. Provision against accidents and sickness, which is also compulsory, is very beneficial, as it enables all workers to become independent of charity, which is always an uncertain quantity.

It cannot be asserted with any degree of truth that the social condition of the German workmen taken generally suffers by comparison with our own, nor can we say that at present there is a lack of employment. . . . .

In the Elementary Schools there is no raggedness nor sign of starvation, as we were led to suppose we should see. This is not to be wondered at when we remember that the Empire is at present subject to a wave of general prosperity.

When we remember the power of our greatest commercial rival, we should take such steps as will limit his power of competition in markets where we should have a general preference."

MR. T. W. MOTTERSHALL wrote :—

"Our signed reports on the general conditions of German workmen in regard to food, work hours, and mode of life must show that the German workman, who is our strongest competitor in the markets of the world, is not the miserable

and badly fed person he is made out to be by some who have evidently much misunderstood the condition of things in the German Empire as it stands to-day. I have derived a great impression from my visit. A citizen of the German Empire is accepted by the State as a responsibility, and is taken in hand from childhood with a view of obtaining from such citizen the best results possible for the benefit of the Empire as a whole. It may perhaps, be said that Germany is overdoing what we are underdoing. . . . It is education that has to a great extent placed Germany in her present position along with the fact that she protects her markets against the intrusion of her competitors . . . In many respects we have gone into some detail about the sanitary conditions of the workshops of Germany. The sanitation of the works is in general excellent, and I think it would be well for some of our manufacturers to copy some of the German ideas on this point . . . . It is reasonable to suppose that when the English people awake to the losses actually incurred by them in consequence of the high tariffs imposed by Germany and other foreign countries, they will come to the only possible conclusions, that it is necessary for the protection of the English workmen that the foreigners should pay for the use of the English market."

Before quitting Berlin for Hamburg, the delegates, being desirous of expressing their thanks personally to the Home Secretary, Count von Posadowsky received them in his private study and retained them in conversation for nearly an hour, hearing from them their impressions of their journey, and asking them for their views on labour conditions in England as compared with those in Germany. His Excellency subsequently referred to this conversation in the German Reichstag in the following words :—

"When the English workmen were with me I was surprised at the positive and searching questions that they put to me, and also to find that they had seen everything with open eyes, and was also astonished at their cool and impartial way of judging things. The gist of this judgment was that they were astounded at what Germany had done for its workmen in the field of social politics. . . . Common international courtesy required that facilities should be given them to see what they wanted to see."

It is with sentiments of gratitude and pleasure that I make mention of the interest graciously shown in the work of the Gainsborough Commission by H.I.M. Kaiser Wilhelm. In an audience accorded to me by His Majesty on March 28th, the Kaiser said :—

"I was extremely interested in the journey you took with Gainsborough workmen. Count von Posadowsky furnished me with full particulars about it, and I was very much pleased to learn that the men had come over to see for themselves the conditions of labour in Germany. You know that everything connected with the conditions of life of the working classes amongst my own people affects me deeply. I showed my keen interest in these matters at the time of the International Labour Conference which you remember I convoked here in Berlin in 1890 quite in the early part of my reign.

"We in Germany have done a great deal for the working classes. My Ministers have always given considerable attention to the subject of how to ameliorate their lot. One of the questions occupying our attention is that of the 'unemployed.' Industry in Germany is now going through a period of unprecedented prosperity, so that the question is not acute with us for the type of workmen employed in industrial works. You in England had to give serious attention to the question of the 'Unemployed' last winter in London. So far, things have not assumed so acute a stage with us in Berlin. But we do not think the question can be solved by almsgiving alone. One has to try to provide the people with remunerative employment. Almsgiving without employment is apt to have a degenerate effect."

The Kaiser asked me to tell him the nature of the impressions that were made by the German workmen on the delegates, and how far they considered the conditions of labour in Germany differed from those in England; and I replied in the terms used by the men when they described these impressions to Count von Posadowsky. His Majesty showed the keenest interest in hearing the Workmen's views and said he hoped that similar Commissions of British Workmen would frequently come over to Germany and that deputations of German workmen would also be sent to England.

"The oftener they come, the better," added his Majesty; "it is an advantage for the two nations that people of all ranks in the two countries should come in contact with one another. Let them come over as often as possible from England: We have nothing to hide from them and shall always be pleased to show them anything we have to show."

In conclusion I take the opportunity for correcting an error concerning German labour conditions which has been utilized in connection with the work of the Gainsborough Commission.

A letter written in a London weekly on this subject contained the following sentence:—"Truck practices are in full swing in Germany over a large district in the heavy iron and chemical industry"—that is to say over the very district where we conducted our enquiries. The writer of these words is ill-informed. The truck system has been illegal for many years in Germany and now belongs to ancient history. Any employer trying to impose it is subject to heavy penalties. It is provided in §115 of the Imperial Trades Act (Reichsgewerbeordnung) that all employers in industrial employments shall pay their workpeople their wages in imperial current money, They are prohibited from crediting them with goods, but may supply them with the necessaries of life at cost price. They are also entitled to deduct from wages the rent of dwelling or land and the price incurred for firing, board, medicine and medical treatment. Contracts running counter to the regulations imposed in §115 are null and void, and those infringing the said paragraph are liable to a fine not exceeding 2,000 Mks. (£100), or imprisonment, in case of inability to pay, up to six months. Complaints of any resort to the truck system only now come from those employed in home industry; very seldom from factory workpeople.

J. L. BASHFORD.

Berlin,  
December, 1906.

# REPORTS OF THE GAINSBOROUGH COMMISSION.

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## REPORT I. CREFELD.

On arriving in Crefeld we were struck by the contents of a paragraph shown to us taken from a London evening paper of December 7th, which ran as follows:—"Prince Bülow was set a hard task in the Reichstag yesterday. He had to convince the representatives of a poor and heavily taxed people that further heavy taxation is absolutely necessary to the welfare of the empire."

We were struck by these words because Germans connected with the industrial districts of the Rhine had already expressed to us their astonishment at what they called the amazing errors current in England concerning the alleged 'poverty' of Germany. We were told that it was strange to talk of the poverty of Germany when the figures relating to the bulk of her trade are accessible; when her power as a commercial rival is acknowledged; when the development of her towns, her industry, and her shipping jumps to the eyes; and when it is no secret that large quantities of the shares in profitable mines and enterprises have of late years passed from British into German hands.

The subjoined quotation from a speech delivered by the Prussian Minister of Finance, Baron von Rheinbaben, last Thursday (December 7th) in the German Reichstag when defending the Government Bill introducing Finance Reform, was also read to us:—

"We have behind us thirty years of peace and a brilliant economical development . . . I must dispute the assertion that



the conditions of life and the wages of the working classes have deteriorated, and I do so supported by official figures. On the contrary they have distinctly ameliorated. The Accidents Insurance statistics gave in 1888 an average wage per annum of Mks. 612, (£30), in 1903 an average of Mks. 890 (£43 12s. 6d.) per annum—in other words an increase of 33½ per cent. The deposits in the Savings Banks in Prussia in 1875 amounted to 1112 Millions of Marks (£54,509,804), and in 1903 to 7229 millions of Marks (£354,362,745). The number of depositors of sums up to 60 Marks (roughly £3) has increased fivefold during this time. I should like to submit the question to arbitration whether the situation of the working classes has deteriorated or improved, and I should like the very reports of the Social Democrats themselves to serve as umpire. Take the protocol of the 5th Congress of the Social Democratic Unions (Gewerkschaften). In referring to the development of the Unions we read that the number of their members increased from 277,000 in 1891, to 1,430,000 in 1904; whilst the receipts augmented from 1,160,000 Mks. (£56,863) in 1891, to 20,100,000 Mks. (£98,295) in 1904. They have a balance in their books of sixteen millions of marks (£789,215)."

From the above we are bound to suspect that some political and economical errors must obtain in Britain concerning German conditions. It will be the business of the Gainsborough Commission to enquire fully and fairly into the subject. The object of this tour is to collect facts concerning the condition of the working men in Germany.

Crefeld, which is the seat of the German velvet and silk industry, is particularly suitable as the starting point for our enquiry. The weavers play an important part in an industrial community; and here at Crefeld they contribute most of all the citizens to the trade and expansion of their town. We shall be able to compare their conditions with those of German weavers in other parts of the empire. Although, according to the latest published statistics of the Crefeld Velvet and Silk Industry—those of 1904—issued by the Crefeld Chamber of Commerce, the general output of velvet and silk had gone back last year, there is at the present moment no sign of a fall in wages or of appreciable want of employment. In fact, the word 'unemployed' conveys no meaning just now in Crefeld as times are good in the textile industry, and wages are fully up to the average and are even above it. In 1893 there was a bad time here; and in 1901 the condition of things was so distressing that work had to be artificially devised for the relief of the suffering weavers.

The population of Crefeld, according to the census taken in December 1st last, is about 112,000. Half a century ago it amounted to 37,000 and in 1880 to 73,000; so that it has been steadily increasing during the last fifty years.

Of the total sale of velvet and silk in 1904—viz., Mks. 74,231,610 (£3,638,805), Mks. 14,556,461 (£713,552) were accounted for in the British market.

The next foreign customers on the list—the United States of America—only took one-third of this amount. The home market consumed the bulk, namely, to the value of Mks. 41,555,704 (£2,037,045).

The number of workmen employed in the mills was 2,659 in 1904 ; 2,753 in 1903. The total wages amounted in 1904 to Mks 2,770,242 (£135,796) ; and in 1903 to Mks. 2,784,560 (£136,498). Poor relief amounted in 1904 to Mks. 503,956 (£24,703), which was less than that expended in 1903 for the same purpose by about £2,700.

The total number of pupils in the Elementary schools amounted in 1904 to 15,526—made up of 12,644 Roman Catholics, 2,788 Protestants and 94 Jews. There were 212 schoolmasters and 98 mistresses—total 310. The pupils were distributed over 311 classes. This condition of things was considered unsatisfactory, because the classes were overcrowded—an average of 50 to a class. The cost of the schools to the town was Mks. 874,116—£42,850.

There is a High School for the Textile Industry here, attended last year by 316 pupils from the National Schools ; and a Weaving School, open in winter, attended last year by 279 pupils.

Until shortly after the Franco-German War the silk industry of Crefeld was a home industry, and the little low houses of the weavers used to extend right away to the Dutch frontier. There existed in those days—i.e., up to only thirty years ago—some 20,000 to 30,000 hand looms in these houses. About forty years ago Messrs Krahn and Gobbers introduced for the first time the power-loom into Crefeld ; there are now scarcely two hundred of the hand-loom left and they are fast disappearing.

We were permitted by Messrs Krahn and Gobbers to inspect their mill on Monday morning last and these gentlemen most kindly conducted us over it in person, explaining every detail connected with the condition of their employees and answering every question we put to them on the subject. Theirs is the largest and most important silk mill in Crefeld. Between 600 and 700 men and women are employed here, and there are 600 looms. In all, the Firm has about 1,200 looms, as they have another up-to-date mill at Wassenberg erected in 1893 near the Dutch town of Rœrmond. The information supplied to us about the wages was interesting and instructive. The average wage for men is 20s to 22s, and they can earn up to 27s, 28s, and even 30s per week—piece work. Thirty shillings, however, represent a figure seldom attained, there being only four or five men in the mill at Crefeld who have received it. The average wage for women is from 15s to 18s, but

they also get as much as 20s, 22s, and even 27s and 28s. Children are not employed under the age of 14; but when the girls enter the mill at this age, after having just completed their compulsory term of eight years attendance at an elementary school, they begin to learn the elements of weaving for three months at 8s per week, and their earnings rise gradually until they receive the full woman's wage.

Some typical wage-books of first-class women-weavers were shown to us—the women receiving 26s 6d, 24s, 23s 6d and 20s, respectively. The average wage for male and female workers at this mill all the year round—all piece work—was declared to be :—

For weavers Mks. 3·67 per day = roughly 3/7.

„ winders „ 3·26 „ = „ 3/3.

„ warpers „ 3·51 „ = „ 3/6.

The best weavers earn more than 4s per day. It is noteworthy that the same rate for piece work is paid to both sexes.

Wages are paid at this mill once a fortnight—on Wednesdays : this day being selected instead of Saturday on the ground that the employees are more likely in this way to keep their money in their pockets than to spend it in a hurry—a view taken in some trades in Scotland.

Whilst going the round of this mill we were specially struck by its sanitary conditions. There is plenty of space; the heating and ventilation are perfect. Special rooms are set apart in which the women change their garments and each has a special peg for her clothes and a locker for her boots; and they take their morning and afternoon refreshments here. Scrupulous cleanliness prevails all over the mill; and no exception can be taken to the attire both of men and women. It is noteworthy of the Crefeld working people that they attach great weight to two things, good substantial food and good and comely clothing. In other respects they are thrifty, orderly, and sober, and do not go in for luxuries.

The meals of the weavers are divided as follows :—Coffee with rolls of white bread is taken at home before they go to the mill; they have their so-called breakfast at 9 o'clock in a pause of a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes, consisting of coffee and bread and butter with slices of meat or sausage on the bread. They take their dinner or mid-day meal at noon—being absent from the mill from 12—2. The women are by law at liberty to absent themselves an hour before dinner if it is necessary that they should be at home to cook the meal, provided they apply for permission to do so. In practice, however, this is not done, seeing that the employers would in that case dispense with their services altogether. They leave for home, however, about a quarter of an hour before the dinner hour. The dinner in a weaver's family consists of soup and meat taken together with vegetables and potatoes, whilst on Sundays they probably have a pudding or stewed fruit. At four o'clock coffee

and rolls of white bread are consumed—the meal being called ‘Vesper,’ and supper is eaten at home after work, the meal consisting of bread and butter with layers of meat or sausage on it and probably beer in bottles.

The hours of work at the mill are 10 hours a day or sixty per week. As half-an-hour is let off on Saturdays, the weekly number of hours is actually  $59\frac{1}{2}$ .

Whilst talking about the new mill at Wassenberg, an extremely interesting economic fact was disclosed to us. The works, as above stated, are within a stone’s throw of the Dutch frontier. We were told that owing to the existing tariff bacon in Wassenberg now costs Mk. 1.40 (1s.  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d) per German lb. i.e. for  $1\frac{1}{8}$ lb. English, this amounts to 1s.  $2\frac{3}{8}$ d. per English lb. ; whilst in Holland it only costs 80 pfennige ( $9\frac{1}{2}$ d.) per German lb., i.e.  $8\frac{1}{8}$ d. per English lb. In order, it was said, that the people be not subjected to the temptation of smuggling, each family after obtaining a special certificate from the mill is permitted to send somebody across the frontier to purchase two pounds of bacon for domestic use. Similar facilities obtain for the benefit of frontier inhabitants on all the German frontiers.

The remarks freely made to us against the protective duties levied by Germany were significant. It must be remembered that the industrial element in Germany was all along opposed to them. It was submitted that both employers and employed suffered from the high protective duties. Necessaries of life were made dearer and consequently wages were higher. If the duties were to be taken off, the conditions of life would improve. At the same time it was emphatically stated that if things went on as they were, the weaving industry in Germany would be crippled and the trade would migrate to Switzerland or Italy, or elsewhere. Lower wages prevailed in Austria and Italy, and consequently Germany’s silk trade was being taken from her. “The protective system will kill us,” was more than once repeated ; and it was added that nowhere were lower prices obtained for Crefeld goods than in England, whilst nowhere were higher profits made than in the United States. No objection whatever would be taken if protective duties were put on in England, because in that case the competition would become less and better prices would be attainable, as there would be fewer competitors in the market. Despite the high duties levied in France good business was done with France. It was an error to suppose that the duty was paid by the importer. Leicester and Scotch silk manufacturers did a good trade with Germany, and Germany could not copy their articles ; nor could England make what was produced in Crefeld. Practically speaking none of the raw material for the mill was subject to duties, as the duties levied are insignificant.

A visit to the designing room was interesting. The head of this

department is a real artist of talent and position, drawing a high salary—some £500. One of the members of the firm is a collector of old patterns from all parts. He has a regular library of them, and recently succeeded in buying an old collection of English patterns at an auction. These old patterns frequently return to public favour.

All the goods supplied to the English market by Messrs Krahn and Gobbers are made up in yards to suit the wishes and habits of their English buyers. English manufacturers do not pay regard to the tastes of their foreign customers by making up in meters.

At the Wassenberg mills, owing to their position away from the recreations of town life, the members of the firm provide means for maintaining a choral society for the men of the mill, and for the women too according to circumstances. Workmen's dwellings have also been constructed there at a cost of £300 for semi-detached villas containing two dwellings—self-contained houses. Owing to their position in the country where bricks at 26s per thousand are obtainable on the spot, the price of erecting these cottages is much lower than would have to be paid in the town where bricks would cost 30s to 35s per thousand.

Through the kindness of the Delegate of the Trade Unions (Gewerkschaften) and a friend of his we were enabled on Sunday afternoon to obtain information on the spot concerning workmen's dwellings and domestic conditions in Crefeld. We were taken to three different flats inhabited by typical families of a good character. The first of these tenements was that of a weaver employed in home industry. The man, who is elderly, lives with his second wife and a daughter by his first wife; a son is now serving his time in the army and serving willingly. He has in all nine children, all at work. The flat consists of two rooms, one of them of good size with a small room in the mansard. All workmen's dwellings here have one or two small rooms in the mansard which are occupied by the children of the family. Questioned as to this separation the answer received was that the custom was preferred—the parents liking to have more privacy in their rooms. The rent of this tenement is Mks. 195, equal to £9 11s. 2d.

The loom used by a home-worker, is his own property but the pattern-cards and materials are supplied by the works. The weaver we visited works by the piece. There is no restriction in the home industry as to the hours of work. This home worker earns on an average 17s.—18s. per week; his wife, who does carding work, as it is called in Lancashire, earns an average of 12s. a week. She works at home also, but the daughter, who is a specially intelligent and skilful worker, is a spooler at a mill, earning special wages. She has earned up to 25s. per week, and is at present in receipt of 21s.; sometimes when business is dull she does not get more than 12s. The

flat was clean and orderly, but the loom and carding machine took up the greater part of the available space, so that there was not much room for furniture. The iron stove which was in the corner of one room heats both rooms and is used for cooking purposes, there being no separate kitchen. It was well polished, without a speck upon it. The stoves in a Crefeld tenement are the property of the tenants. The workmen's dwellings are on the flat system. In the workmen's quarters of the town the houses have two storeys and a mansard. There is no appearance of slum about the streets, and attention is given to the facings of the houses. There are two closets in the court-yard for the common use of all the families in the house, and water for domestic purposes is supplied from a tap on the staircase—one for each flat.

Stop-work is unknown in the Crefeld home-industry, but all ecclesiastical and national holidays are kept as such, and no work is done on such days. The weaver we have referred to can get four meters (60cm wide) done per day if he works hard. The silk is for cravats and scarves. In this case the family is Roman Catholic, and neither Socialist nor Trade Unionist.

The second tenement inspected was that of a weaver employed at a mill. He also has a wife and nine children. All but one of the children are out at work. Two sons are serving in the army. They joined unwillingly but must have comported themselves well, for they have been raised to "Gefreiter," (i.e. Lance-Corporal) rank, which gives them certain privileges over their comrades. The family is a socialist family. The wife no longer works for wages. Two sons, both strapping intelligent fellows, live at home, as well as two daughters. This tenement likewise consists of two good rooms—one of them very large, and two good-sized rooms in the mansard. It was kept very clean and the furniture is good. The rent is Mks. 210 equalling £10 5s 10d.

The father of the family does piece work at the mill and is earning now 21s per week; his wages have varied from 14s to 16s and 18s per week as a rule. He does not like the piece work custom, considering it more advantageous to have settled day work. With piece work the materials are sometimes bad so that the result as to wages is uncertain. The family are earning together from 60s. to 70s. per week.

The third tenement visited was that of a clever cabinet-maker living in a flat of a block of buildings erected by a Workmen's Building Society, Limited. This Building Society is doing well; most of the members are working-men. By the rules of the Association the members cannot become proprietors of their tenement, but can only be ejected if they commit some act of disorderliness. The State advances money to these Workmen's Building Societies at 4 per cent from the Insurance Funds at its disposal. The aim is

to supply an apartment at about 15 per cent. lower rent than what is paid in the town. The occupant of this tenement is also married with a family of nine. He now earns 25s. per week; he has been twenty years with his present employer. Both he and his wife are intelligent and above the average of workpeople. They were for a while in Brussels and both speak French. The average wage of a good cabinet-maker in Crefeld is from 22s. to 25s. per week. Hours of work  $9\frac{1}{2}$ —10 hours per day—57 to 60 per week. This man has a specially good apartment, above the ordinary type—four rooms in the flat and two in the mansard; house three storeys high. Rent 318 Mks. equalling £15 11s. 9d.

In the evening we were taken to one of the places of Sunday resort of the Weavers' Union. The weavers and their families frequent these places on Sundays and holidays and drop in from 5 o'clock in the afternoon, remaining till 10 or 11 o'clock and sit at the long tables partaking of beer. The Crefeld workpeople, compared with those of Saxony and Silesia, have a high standard as regards food. A Crefelder likes plenty of meat and beer. He takes substantial solid food, a fair supply of beer, and both men and women like to dress well. He pays for a half-liter bottle of beer from 12-15 pfennige for home consumption—i.e., for a  $\frac{7}{8}$ th. pint bottle, from  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d.— $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. At the 'Union' Restaurant where he sits with his family on a Sunday evening he will probably consume four glasses containing each  $\frac{2}{3}$ ths. of a liter—thus about three pints—for just under 6d.

There is no penury of any kind to be seen in the streets of Crefeld. The people are not particularly well off, but the extreme poverty observable in large cities is unknown in Crefeld.

It is noteworthy that the children in a Crefeld family always bring their full earnings home to their parents, as is the custom in Lancashire, and the parents give them on Sunday about 3s. as pocket money for the ensuing week. In other parts of Germany the children contribute towards their board and lodging, retaining the rest. The Crefelder men are very fond of smoking, using by preference short German pipes which they light immediately they leave the mill.

As regards household expenses it appears that coffee—almost no tea—is the chief beverage of the Crefeld weaver family, costing 1s. per lb. Lump sugar costs about 3d.; flour  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; petroleum which is burnt instead of gas  $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. per liter, i.e. about  $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. per pint. Clothing can be had at comparatively low prices. Meat is just now exceptionally high in price, and it must be remembered that the meat likely to be within reach of a labourer's purse is of a much lower quality than that consumed by the well-to-do classes. Some attention should be given to the price of bread at Crefeld. Germans of all classes eat rye-bread, which is called black bread.

As a matter of fact its colour is light brown. The 5lb. (Germ. lb.) loaf of rye-bread at Crefeld costs 42 pfennige = roughly 5d. This 5lb. loaf is equivalent to one of  $5\frac{3}{8}$  English lbs.; therefore a loaf of bread at Crefeld weighing 4 English lbs. should cost  $3\frac{5}{8}$ d., or roughly  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. The 4lb. wheaten loaf eaten at Gainsborough costs  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Coal is sold in a measure called a malter, containing 333lbs. at 2s. 9d. to 3s.—i.e. about 1s. per cwt. Briquettes are also much used and cost 85 pfennige per hundred i.e. 10d.—one hundred briquettes go to the cwt.

Taxes are comparatively high at Crefield. A man with an income of 900 Mks., say roughly £45, pays Mks. 20.50, i.e. £1, made up as follows:—

	Mks.
Income tax.....	6.00
Communal duties, i.e. rates : 175 per cent of the income tax	10.50
Church rates .....	4.00
	<hr/>
Mks. ....	20.50

Anyone earning Mks. 1050 (£51 9s. 6d.) pays 28s. taxes, which sum includes each of the three taxes above-mentioned.

On Monday afternoon the proprietors of the Crefelder Appretur. G.m.b.H., i.e. 'The Crefeld Finishing Works, Limited,' conferred a great favour on us by personally conducting us over their Works. This Firm has two mills—one for finishing velvet, and the other, the one we inspected, for finishing silk goods. We spent a long time here. The Firm has no direct business relations with England, as there is no necessity for them. It exchanges views, however, regularly with the Firm of Samuel Laughton, of Middleton, near Manchester, with which Firm it is on excellent terms; and it also exchanges views in the same way with Lyons in France.

In former times there were a number of finishing firms in Crefeld competing with one another. About five years ago a Limited Company was formed by three of the largest of them under the name 'Crefelder Appretur'—'Crefeld Finishing Works,' which does a good business. It has 250 employees, three-fourths of whom are men and one third women. The men earn an average of 23s. a week and occasionally up to 30s., the women receive an average of from 12s. to 16s. The head mechanic in the department for repairing purposes receives 40s. Wages are paid here weekly, the hours being ten hours per day, subject to a fortnight's notice on either side. The hours of work here are 7—12 in the forenoon and 2—7 in the afternoon. Owing to the nature of the business, work continues uninterruptedly during that time, the men and women not being allowed to leave their work for breakfast or afternoon coffee. They have to take it at their places. Only a few children are here:



admitted under 16, and the parents of such children must be of an exceptionally orderly character.

The works here cover 6,000 square metres and are very well ventilated. The sanitary arrangements attracted our special attention, and it was noticed that in the machine-room everything was as clean as in a well-ordered kitchen.

The general condition of the working classes in the industrial town of Crefeld impressed us. Wherever we came into contact with them we were struck by their genial character, general physical health, cheerfulness of demeanour and freshness about their work. No sign of extreme poverty meets the eye; the problem of the unemployed obviously does not weigh upon the municipal authorities at the present juncture.

T. W. MOTTERSHALL.

J. MANN.

G. W. BROWN.

G. PROCTOR.

H. BEILBY.

H. CALVERT.

## REPORT II.

### RHEINHAUSEN AND ESSEN.

### FRIEDRICH KRUPP'S WORKS.

Before leaving Crefeld we were told that arrangements had been made for us for a two days' visit at Friedrich Krupp's Works and that a programme had been kindly drawn up for us by the Managing Director of the Firm. We arrived early on Tuesday morning at the station of Rheinhausen, where the new Friedrich-Alfred Iron Works (Friedrich-Alfred Hütte), are situated, and were met by representatives of the Firm who gave to each of us a "Programme for a visit to the Works and its institutions for the benefit of the working men of the Friedrich-Alfred-Hütte at Rheinhausen and its Cast Steel Works at Essen." From this programme we learnt that we should be conducted to see the Blast Furnaces, Thomas Steel Plant, Rolling Mills, etc., at Rheinhausen; and a machine shop, the Crucible Steel Foundry, and an Open-hearth plant at Essen; and further that we should afterwards be driven to four of the Workmen's Colonies, and be initiated into the administration of the Workmen's Saving Bank, the Circulating Library and the Supply Stores. It subsequently came to our knowledge that the favour conferred upon us was quite unique, as a party of foreign workmen had never before been admitted to the works in this way. Krupp's Works are the largest of the kind in the world. Out of a total number of 62,553 officials and men employed at the various works belonging to the firm, over 35,000 are to be found at Essen, and the testing grounds connected with Essen. At the time we were there the Firm was still applying for more labour.

Nowhere can the effect of the development of German industry be more strikingly witnessed than in Rhineland and Westphalia. The

enormous strides taken by industry in Germany may be partially measured by casting a glance at the figures representing the population of towns like Essen, Bochum, and Dortmund during the last six decades, and by comparing the pictures of these regions with those that were taken half a century ago. But Englishmen, and amongst them the British working-men have been led to believe a number of tales about the animosity, evil intentions, and evil practices of the Germans which we are now disposed to regard as fantastic and imaginary. In our judgment it is to be regretted that our newspapers have not earlier given us some reliable information about the manufacturing districts of Germany, and about the condition of the German working-men, instead of throwing sand into our eyes in the form of anecdotes that do not hold water when subjected to closer investigation. Had this been done we should probably have heard less about the existence of ill-feeling and suspicion between the two countries. We should have had a chance of hearing more of the part played by the employers and the Government in Germany for effecting an amelioration in the conditions of the working classes in that country; and we could have formed an opinion as to whether any part of the German schemes were adaptable to British conditions. Unfortunately we have been encouraged to look down upon foreigners and especially on Germans, to dislike them, and to view with contempt the supposed low conditions of their life. So far the delegates of the Gainsborough Commission have seen nothing to despise; nothing to sneer at; and much to applaud.

We are only at the commencement of our tour of inspection; but we do not anticipate that impressions derived from what we have seen with our own eyes in this part of the Empire can be obliterated or obscured in regard to their main features in other and more distant districts. The district we are now in is of course one where population has enormously increased during the last 35 years; and one to which labour has migrated. It is a part of the country where chimneys have suddenly shot up in scores from soil that was formerly devoted to agricultural purposes. To dislocate conditions such as these would be to spell the ruin of thousands of families and to throw the country back again for generations. Are we to believe that the rulers of Germany would commit this act of suicide of their own free will?

What took place early in the last century in Lancashire, Yorkshire, the Midlands and the North of England, and in parts of Scotland seems to have been repeated in a somewhat similar form amongst a kindred people over here. Essen had a population of 10,500 in 1854. By 1855 the figures had mounted to 12,963; by 1864 to 31,336; by 1873 to 56,396; and by 1885 to 65,074. In the next twelve years the population had increased to 106,867; in 1899 to 116,838; and, according to the census taken the beginning

of this month Essen has gone up as regards population to only about three hundred below 230,000.

The number of workmen employed at Krupp's Works rose from 99 in 1843, to 6,693 in 1864; and to 11,671 in 1873, just after the Franco-German War. Ten years afterwards the number had diminished by about a thousand, only to rise in 1896 to 21,127; in 1899 to 25,133; and the figure now stands at 35,377. By the courtesy of the Firm of Friedrich Krupp we British workmen have been permitted to obtain an insight into the social conditions under which the men work here.

The number of dwellings for working-men did not increase in the same proportion as the number of employees, so that the Krupps of the last two generations were confronted with a vast problem as to how they should in their own interest contribute to the elimination of the scarcity of workmen's dwellings, and consequently relieve their employees from the burden of heavy rents imposed on them by speculators. The task was begun in 1861; and in the seventies it occupied the serious attention of Herr Alfred Krupp. In 1871 and 1872 a simple style of dwelling was erected, but this particular style has been entirely abandoned; and in the latest Workmen's Colonies called Margarethenhof, Alfredshof, Friedrichshof and Altenhof we had presented to us types that in regard to sanitary arrangements, comfort and aesthetic attractiveness can hardly be surpassed. What originally was initiated as an absolute necessity—the housing of the employees—subsequently aroused the personal interest of the heads of the Firm; and the construction of these Workmen's Colonies became a hobby both of Alfred Krupp, and of his son the late Friedrich Alfred Krupp.

It is of course open to detractors of the springs of actions of their fellow men to ascribe to deeds of generosity and liberality motives of pure selfishness and personal interest; but even those who take this line must necessarily recognise the benefits that have accrued to the working men connected with Krupp's works under the management of the proprietors although, when meting out their admiration, they feel that the number of the existing dwellings as not in proportion to the 35,377 persons employed.

We do not want to enquire into motives in a matter of this kind. We are satisfied that the dwellings exist. This is a fact that cannot be contested, and can be dealt with; and we have been enabled to see the dwellings from the inside as well as well as from the outside in order to form an opinion of their value. Moreover, we have conversed with the inmates, and are satisfied that they are content with what they have got. Indeed it would be a matter for surprise if they were not so. Everywhere one notices a disposition to make the house bear an appearance of comfort and homeliness, and to decorate it according to the taste and means of its occupant. The

total number of dwellings for the officials and workmen connected with the Krupp Works amounted last May to roughly 5,934 and they were inhabited by 30,600 persons, including the wives and children.

The latest of the Workmen's Colonies is the Margarethenhof at Rheinhausen on the Rhine where the Friedrich-Alfred Works were erected a few years ago. This is situated in the country. Obviously it was necessary to provide house accommodation for the working men and their families and for the other employees of the Firm. Houses of 3, 4, 5, and 6, and a few of 7 rooms have been erected there and have been in course of building for the last eighteen months. There is nothing monotonous in the aspect of the colony, for it is arranged to please the eye, and about twenty-four different styles of architecture have been selected. The predominant idea is to afford ventilation inside the dwelling and plenty of free and open space between the houses outside, an idea that prevails in all Krupp's newest Colonies. Electric light is provided for the streets, but each family burns a petroleum lamp in the dwelling. The height of the rooms is in general about 9ft. 3ins., and the other dimensions are satisfactory. The sanitary arrangements have been carefully attended to, each house having a separate closet and water-supply of its own. The rent averages about £3 to £3 5s. per annum per room; whilst in the immediate neighbourhood of Essen the price runs to about 5s. to 10s. higher. The dwelling-room and kitchen are on the ground floor, and the bedrooms above; each cottage is provided with a garden just large enough to be conveniently attended to by the tenant, and also with a cellar. In due course trees will be planted along the sides of the streets as in the other Colonies; but as this Colony is built on land that formed part of a former farm, a fair number already exist there.

In all the new Colonies attention has been paid to principles of practical as well as of hygienic nature. Two-room dwellings have been dropped, the minimum of rooms being three, and there is an outhouse attached to each house which can be used according to the taste or requirements of the tenant. All the small houses are built according to the cottage system; and ideas have been freely taken from English and Danish models. The outside walls are of a thickness adapted to the temperature of the locality. There is nothing trashy or second-rate in the style of the building. Economy has been duly observed but without prejudice either to comfort, health or solidity.

Very noteworthy are the mess-rooms for the workmen and the sleeping-rooms for single men. The kitchen adjoins the former; and a substantial, well-cooked meal is provided for those who partake of it for the sum of 45 pfennige—5½d. The meal consists of soup and meat with abundance of potatoes and sauce. Coffee with

bread and butter can be had in the early morning for a little under 2½d. and a supper wholesome and palatable of rye-bread and meat and soup for 4¾d. The lower officials who live here, get their midday meal for 7¾d. The meat used in this kitchen is fresh and of good quality. We saw the food being cooked for the midday meal on Tuesday and witnessed the men at their dinner. The relative high price of meat has weighed heavily on the working classes of Essen as elsewhere in Germany during the past few months. Beef costs 7½d. per English lb. ; veal 7½d. ; bacon 9½d. (cheaper than the price on the Dutch frontier recorded in our last report).

Sleeping accommodation is also provided for those of the bachelor working-men who choose to avail themselves of it. The men can have a single room with board—i.e. dinner and supper—for 1s. 6d. ; a double room with board for 1s. 4½d. ; a room in which four men sleep, with board for 1s. 4d. ; or a cubicle in a dormitory, with board for 1s. 2½d. Bread must be purchased by the men themselves as well as their coffee ; but they can have boiling water to make the coffee. Beer at meals and at any other time is also an extra, at 1½d. per bottle. There is also a common room arranged in a pleasant and solid style where the men can sit and read and chat and smoke and quaff their beer. Two sleeping quarters are already completed at the Rheinhausen Works consisting of 215 beds ; and the new house, which is contemplated will contain 330 more. There is also in the immediate neighbourhood a provisional hospital. We consider that every detail connected with these sleeping apartments is admirable ; that the price taken for what is given is a very moderate one ; and that it would be impossible for a bachelor workman, even under the most favourable conditions, to find a quarter in the crowded town at all approaching in cleanliness and general accommodation to what is given here. Opportunity is also given to the men to take a shower bath after the completion of their work.

To our enquiries as to the prevalence of gambling amongst the men, we were assured that it would neither be permitted, nor was there an inclination for it observable.

Alfredshof, although only twenty minutes distant from the Essen works, is laid out on the cottage system in such a way as to give it a country-like appearance. There are 230 dwellings in the houses here, each of which is provided with a garden through which the entrance is approached. Some of the cottages are intended for only one family, and have five rooms ; others are semi-detached ; some are blocks containing flats for four families with three and four rooms. The erection of Friedrichshof, which was the best Colony constructed before Margarethenhof was thought of, was commenced in 1899. There the flat system instead of the cottage system was selected in consequence of the comparatively smaller space at the

disposal of the Firm, and the greater relative value of the ground. nearly all of the houses have three stories. They are grouped in blocks surrounding spacious court-yards that are provided with gardens and trees, and there are capital playgrounds for the children. There is also a variety in architecture here, and the æsthetic effect of the whole is enhanced by the disposition of the tenants to go in for the floral decoration of their windows, and by the covered balconies with which many of the dwellings are provided. There are about 350 dwellings here, so arranged that in some cases six, in others four have the same entrance to the staircase on the flat system, and two or three families have a common laundry. In other respects however, the apartments are completely separated from one another. The buildings at Margarethenhof are being extended, and on completion there will be about 200 more dwellings.

The bath houses of the Friedrichshof Colony are particularly noteworthy. In the afternoon they can be used by the women. For the shower baths the charge is about  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d, and for the regular bath about  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. They are much used every day, especially in summer.

The Colony of Altenhof is devoted to the older workmen who are pensioned off. The erection of the houses here was commenced in 1892, and is specially noteworthy. The late Herr Krupp set aside a capital of £25,000 for it to inaugurate the Fund for this purpose which, in consequence of subsequent donations has been increased to £100,000. The Colony consists of small self-contained or semi-detached houses containing one to three dwellings of three rooms each. The dwellings are assigned rent-free for life to old employees of the Firm and the old people are enabled, with the help of their old age-pensions derived from the Firm, and from similar pensions received from the State to pass the remainder of their years here in comfort, and without the anxiety incident to penury. We inspected some of these dwellings, and in our opinion there was not only ample provision for the men and their wives; but if anything, we should say that the Firm erred on the other side. For the benefit of those desirous of utilising their time, light remunerative occupation is placed in their way, such as basket-making. This is of course quite voluntary, and the sale price of the baskets becomes the property of the makers, the Firm supplying the instructor under whose supervision the old people work. Two houses in the Colony are set apart for widows and widowers. The old women have two rooms each assigned to them, one of which is arranged as a small kitchen where they cook their own meals, and there is a comfortable fore-room, and a verandah for summer where they can congregate and chat over their knitting. The men have only one room and they get their meals from the Convalescent Home in the immediate neighbourhood. In the Colony are two picturesque Churches, one for the use of the Roman Catholics, and one for the Protestants.

This Convalescent Home hard by is for men belonging to the works who have left the hospital, but are still in need of rest for the purpose of recouping their strength. There is room for forty-four such cases and the patients can remain here from a fortnight to a month. The grounds in front of the home are of the nature of a shady park, and great attention is paid to the cultivation of the flower-garden.

There are workmen's, widows' and orphans' pensions too. Widows receive half of the pension their husbands were entitled to. A workman is entitled to a pension if after 20 years' service he becomes incapable of work ; or if his occupation has been specially heavy, after fifteen years. The right to a pension is calculated from the man's 18th year. When a man is 65 years of age or has been in the service of the Firm for 40 years, he is entitled to an old age pension. After 20 years of service (with a wage of £100) he is entitled to £40 pension ; his widow to £20 ; his orphan child if the mother is alive to £4 and if the mother is dead to £6. After 25 years' service the pension becomes £45 ; after 30 years £55 ; after 35 years £62 10s. ; after 40 years £75 ; in each case the widow receives the half, the child, if the mother is alive, a tenth of its father's pension, and if the mother is dead three-twentieths. Those entitled to a pension but still capable of earning something, get a portion of the pension besides the earnings. The Old Age and Premature Infirmary Fund amounts now to 2,000,000 Mks. i.e. £98,048.

We were assured before reaching Essen that this pension scheme was all very well on paper, but that in practice the old people were almost always dismissed on the verge of the limit of age, and we of course made careful enquiries as to the foundation for such a charge which on the face of it was improbable. We obtained indisputable evidence that the charge was baseless. As in all branches of life it may happen occasionally that dismissals take place under awkward circumstances ; but this charge was without foundation, for nothing of the kind is wilfully done.

There are other funds in existence of large amounts for special relief. The following mode of assistance we think deserves special attention for it is intended to encourage thrift. In cases of unexpected financial distress any workman who has been in the service of the firm for 20 years and is suddenly in need of pecuniary aid on account of unforeseen circumstances, can apply for an advance. The loan is refunded by means of weekly instalments deducted from the wages. When the amount is all but paid off, a notice is sent to the workman asking him if he cares to have the deduction continued and the amount paid to the Savings Bank. This is done in order to encourage him to become thrifty and save for a rainy day instead of having to risk the necessity of incurring another loan later on. In 75 per cent. of the cases the man consents.



The organisation of the Supply Stores and of the workmen's Savings Bank is noteworthy. No charge is made for membership of the Stores, which can be used by all persons in any way connected with the Works. There are several of these store-houses in different parts of the Works and in the Workmen's Colonies. There is no question of profit-making. Books are kept for each purchaser, and entries are made of each purchase. Goods are supplied at the ordinary town price, and after the cost of administration has been deducted, the balance is distributed amongst the purchasers in proportion to the amount of their purchase. The Firm undertakes the management. The girls selected as saleswomen are chosen as far as possible from the families of the workpeople.

It is noteworthy that in the tailor's department, whereas good suits are supplied from cloth made at Gera at from 50/- to 55/-, there is also a demand for English goods. In England quite as good a material as that made at Gera can be obtained at the same price. There is an import duty of about 70 or 80 pfennige on English cloth, 8¼d. to 9½d., and the material costs about 12/- per meter including duty. Indifferent English goods are not sold as it would not be worth while to do so, English cloth being only kept for the use of the higher officials of the Firm. Whereas a good deal of first-class English cloth is imported for the making of suits, Düren sends black cloth, for which it is well known, to England. Much of the Düren cheviots are considered to be nearly as good as those manufactured in England. The retail price of the Düren cloth here is from 65/- to 75/- per suit, whereas a suit of English cloth of first quality would cost about 85/-. A pattern of the latter cloth was shown us costing Mks. 13.20 (12/11¼) per meter; a suit thereof would cost 85/-. A Düren cheviot would cost 10/- per meter.

The management of the Workmen's Savings Bank specially attracted our attention. The objects of the institution are to facilitate thrift, and to afford enticement to regular saving by the distribution of certain advantages, whilst at the same time perfect security is given for the investment. Contributions are made voluntarily; and the Firm bestows special advantages on the depositors. Deposits are accepted from 1/- to £1 on the fortnight's wage; or if paid monthly from 2/- to £2 on the month's wage; as a rule they are made in the form of deductions from the wages. The Savings Bank was inaugurated in 1900. In 1900—01 there were 1228 depositors; now there are about 8,000. In 1900—01 the amount deposited was Mks. 129,876—£6,366. In 1904—05 the amount deposited was Mks. 1,925,721—£94,400. All deposits are placed by the Firm in the Essen Municipal Savings Bank in the name of the Firm on behalf of the depositors. The Savings Bank pays 3½ per cent. interest, to which the Firm adds 1½ per cent., making a total of 5 per cent. interest credited to the depositors. Withdrawals can be

effected at a moment's notice. A depositor coming to the office of the Firm's Savings Bank has only to wait about a couple of minutes in order to get his money. We saw a number coming and going whilst we were in the office and listening to the explanations of the Manager. Over and above the aforesaid  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. addition, the Firm contributes 1 per cent. annually of the total deposits as premium in the form of a lottery. A depositor obtains a ticket for each 25/- deposited. The year is reckoned from April 1st to March 31st. The prizes are as follows:—1st prize, £25; 2nd prize, £15; third prize, £5; and prizes to the value of £2 10s. each according to the amount left. In 1902 fifty of these £2 10s. prizes were given; in 1903, ninety-eight; in 1904, one hundred and seventy-one; in 1905, three hundred.

One feature in this Savings Bank system is noteworthy—perfect secrecy as to the amount saved by the workmen is observed. Only the officials in the Savings Bank Department know anything about it.

Every man receives his wage in a little paper envelope which is folded so as to disclose only the wages with the usual deductions for coal purchased from the Firm; for advances received; for the various insurance funds; for fines; and for rent. On the other side of the envelope is a form to be filled up by those desirous of making a deposit, stating the amount they wish to put by fortnightly or monthly. Nine officials are permanently occupied with the business of the Savings Banks, and there is one Auditor. Should a depositor no longer be in the service of the Firm, his money is refunded at once.

The Circulating Library is another institution of great interest. It was founded about seven years ago. The catalogue contains a list of an exceedingly good variety of books in several languages. This institution can also be used by all persons in the employ of the Firm. The library contains more than 52,000 volumes and is managed by an exceedingly able librarian. It is found that there is an increasing demand on it every year. Whereas, in the first year there were 94,305 books taken out, in 1904 this number had risen to 322,661. Great value is set on the books being returned in a cleanly condition and notes to this effect are kept. On the return of every book it goes through a process of disinfection before it is handed out again. The Librarian employs mostly children for work in the library, one of his reasons being that it is the children who bring the parents to the library.

A notable feature in these institutions for the benefit of the working men was the fact that they were carried out voluntarily by the employers. We have gone into these institutions as brought before our notice at Krupp's Works with great care because they are here administered on a larger scale than anywhere else in

Germany. There are still many that we have not mentioned. It is obvious that they are exceptional in their scope; and that small manufacturers could not even follow the lines here delineated if they were to try to do so. The pinch of competition with others would make it impossible for them to attempt it. Some of the large manufacturers who have tried to carry out a Savings Bank Scheme, have failed to do so successfully. The cost in 1904 of maintaining all the Krupp institutions for promoting the welfare of the workpeople amounted to Mks. 3,205,134 (£157,114). This is exclusive of the contributions required by the State under the head of its Social Legislation (Accidents, Sickness, Premature Infirmity and Old Age Pensions) viz. Mks. 2,489,471 (£122,032.)

We were greatly interested in the Blast Furnaces, Thomas Steel Plant and Rolling Mills at Rheinhausen. Watching the way the ore was brought to the furnaces from the barges in the private harbour adjoining the Rhine by most elaborate machinery we had a most excellent object-lesson of how human labour is ousted by machinery.

The ore from Bilbao in Spain, Sweden, and nearer home in Germany, having arrived at the Harbour, the barges are unloaded by means of buckets which are taken up to an elevation of about eighty feet, and running along the elevators, convey their contents a hundred yards from the Harbour and dump the different kinds of ore into tank-like compartments, whence they are then drawn off through trap-doors from below and filled into wagons running along rails suspended underneath the above-mentioned compartments. Along these rails the wagons are run to form into a little train which is dragged by an electric engine to a sort of funnel into which their contents are dumped, thus obtaining the proper mixture for the charge of the furnaces. The coke which is drawn off in a similar manner from compartments on the other side is also dumped into the funnel and mixed with the different kinds of ore. Part of the coke is made on the premises, there being 120 coke-ovens. The mixture thus obtained is lifted on elevators to the top of the furnace where it is automatically tilted over into the mouth of the furnace. The metal is then tapped from the furnace and flows into a sort of ladle placed on a truck. A crane then takes truck and ladle off on to a platform which is raised by hydraulic power to an upper stage. Here the liquid metal is poured into one of the drums called the mixers (each capable of holding 500 tons) which revolve on rollers moved by electricity. On a lower stage the metal is drawn off through a spout by tilting the drum and flows into a similar ladle holding 25 tons, which forms the charge for the convertors. An electric crane takes it off to the mouth of the convertor where the ladle is tilted by electric machinery, and its contents are poured into the convertor. Here it is changed into steel by the Thomas process. On a stage below is the casting ladle held by an electric locomotive.

crane. The mouth of the convertor need only be lowered to make the finished steel flow into the ladle which then moves off with the crane to the mould. These moulds are combined four and four, and there is a central tube communicating with the four moulds. The metal is poured into this tube simultaneously in the four moulds. When sufficiently cooled the moulds are drawn off by electric cranes. These electric cranes are a sort of claw provided with two fingers, so to speak, that grasp the mould by their lateral ears, and the same cranes having withdrawn the moulds, seize the ingots one after another and place them two by two on to a little car. A small steam engine then comes and takes them off to the rolling mill. Here similar electric cranes grasp the ingots and place them singly into insulated heating pits so as to preserve the heat whereby the whole ingot becomes uniformly white hot on account of its still being almost liquid at the centre. Then after twenty minutes the ingot is taken out again and put under the rollers. It never gets cold until after having passed through a series of mills successively and appropriately arranged in a hall 500 yards long, it comes out as a finished rail, girder or figured steel as the case may be. After having cooled, the product is cut to proper length, straightened, drilled or generally finished and taken out to the depot where a handling five ton crane with a width of about 50in. puts them into the wagons for transport by land or by water. It was remarkable to watch how the whole process was carried out with a minimum of manual labour.

We were also extremely delighted at being permitted to see Krupp's far-famed Crucible Steel Foundry and Open-hearth Plant.

The average rate of wages in 1886 was Mks. 3.71, equal to 3/8; in 1904 it was Mks. 4.88 equal to 4/9 $\frac{3}{4}$ . For this year it is estimated that the average rate will be a little higher.\* Compared with 1853 the wages in 1904 were 267 per cent. higher; with 1871 they were 61 per cent higher; and with 1879 they were 62 per cent. higher. In noting the above average it must be remembered that all kinds of labour are included therein. There is no doubt that for highly skilled labour such as turners, machinists, furnace-men and skilled mechanics 8/-, 10/-, and even 12/- per day are paid. The hours of work at Krupp's Works are ten per day with two hours pause for lunch, dinner and afternoon coffee, etc.,—piece work. The day and night shifts are taken alternately. A general idea of the condition of wages at Krupp's and of the changes effected therein within the last twenty years may be obtained from the following authentic and official figures:—

In 1886 the wages paid amounted to Mks. 68,436,619. 56 equal to £3,354,736. In the same year the average rate of wages at the works was Mks. 973.31 equal to £47 14s. 3d. There was a steady

\* As anticipated, the average rate in 1905, as given in the Report of the Firm recently issued, was Mks. 5.12 (5/-). Compared with 1853 the wages in 1905 were accordingly 278 per cent higher.

increase until 1901 when there was a drop in the total amount paid of about £800,000 and something less the following year, making a fall in the average of about £2. In 1903 the total amount of wages paid did not get back to what was paid in 1900, but the average picked up by about 21s. In 1904 the upward movement was maintained and the sum paid in wages amounted to Mks. 187,160,835 equal to £9,174,550 whilst the average rate of wages was £67.

At the present moment the works could employ more hands, business being good, and notices are hanging out to this effect.

We stated in our last report that there was no sign of slovenliness or penury about the Crefeld working man or his family; and of Crefeld it must be noted that the silk trade is rather on the decline. In Essen, which is in the midst of the heavy iron and steel industries, there is no question of lack of employment for capable and willing workmen; wages are high and the conditions of the working classes appear to be favourable. It is noteworthy that no foreign workman is employed in the Works, doubtless for obvious reasons.

(Signed) H. CALVERT.  
G. W. BROWN.  
J. MANN.  
H. BEILBY.  
GEO. PROCTOR.  
T. W. MOTTERSHALL.

## REPORT III.

### BOCHUM AND DORTMUND.

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#### BOCHUM.

Bochum has a population of a little under 110,000 inhabitants, Dortmund of 175,292.

Six thousand men are employed at the Bochumer Verein "Gussstahlfabrik" (Bochum Association Steel Works) at Bochum and three thousand in their Coal Mines hard by; at the "Eisen and Stahlwerk Hoesch" (Hoesch's Iron and Steel Works) at Dortmund there are five thousand, and three thousand in the mines belonging to the Firm. There are four big firms in Bochum,—the Bochum Association Steel Works, the Westphalian Steel Works, Arthur Koppel's Works, and the Gesellschaft für Stahl-Industrie (Steel Industry Company), the capital of which is controlled by the Bochum Association Steel Works.

Here in Westphalia we are still in the midst of the district of the heavy industry of the German Empire and at the two large works that we were permitted through the courtesy of the Managing Directors to visit, we were again enabled to obtain for ourselves an insight into the life of German working men employed under favourable conditions. There is no lack of work here either; wages are good; and the tales we have been told about the miserable condition of the working-men in Germany do not hold water here. From the first we declared we should be fair; and we were led to expect that precisely in this district prosperity prevailed. Doubtless there will be a different side to the medal somewhere later on. If so, we shall say so; but we should be dishonest chroniclers if we were to belittle the conditions of the German workers in these parts. Widespread pinching poverty in the worst sense of the word does

not exist, and need not exist under the present conditions of the labour-market. There is a demand for labour, not a scarcity; the working classes here are receiving wages which, even if not quite up to our British standard, are not illiberal and are certainly above the standard we were led to expect they were before we left England. The employees of the big works are certainly well-housed and in the towns it appears, as far as we can judge, that there is a tendency to introduce improvements wherever there is room for them. Whereas we have been struck in the town dwellings by an apparent disposition not to pay so much attention to domestic comfort as do the working-classes with us in England; we have been decidedly favourably impressed by the universal attention paid to personal appearance, cleanliness and good clothing. We also note that despite the large consumption of light beer, there is no sign of excess in regard to drink amongst the hands in the works and mills in these parts and that gambling is unknown. Thriftlessness is not the rule; on the contrary, the figures published by the Savings Banks point the other way.

If our Gainsborough fellow-workmen will compare our reports with the speeches of Sir Charles McLaren, M.P., they will find that when discussing the conditions of the German working-men, his remarks did not tally with what we have been able to say about them: and our judgment has been based on ocular evidence. Either he must have been vastly misinformed, or he has not been in this part of Germany and must have been thinking of notoriously less favoured conditions amongst the Saxon weavers or in Upper-Silesia. The industry of Westphalia is of course one of the most important and prosperous in Germany, and the people have always been known to be tenacious, steady, orderly and guided by a sense of justice. Let those who run down the German workman come over and see what he can do and learn what he earns. His detractors stultify themselves. The Bochum Steel Works send plenty of propeller-shafts to England and Scotland of the very best quality. "We have never had a complaint from England about them" was a remark made to us, and we can very well understand this remark which is certainly not couched in bombastic terms. Their exhibits at the Düsseldorf Exhibition in 1902 are a sufficient certificate for the efficiency of their hands. The Bochum Association Steel Works have relations with a number of well-known Firms in England.

We were shown the Düsseldorf exhibits last Thursday, when we were also able to form a good idea of the conditions of the place, for we were conducted round the Works and the workmen's dwellings by some of the officials of the Firm. Opportunities were given us of conversing with the men themselves; and we learnt some interesting facts from the son of a high official of the Prussian Civil Service,

who is employed as a workman in the works receiving wages as such, and is in close touch with his fellow-workmen.

Work goes on day and night at the Bochum Steel Works, except when it is slack; but then also the furnaces are always kept going. The hours of work are ten, from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with pauses, viz., for lunch; an hour and a half—from 12—1-30—for dinner; and a pause for afternoon coffee. The married men go home to dinner; the bachelors are obliged to dine and sleep on the premises. They dine in a dining-hall built for the purpose by the firm.

The average rate of wages at Bochum is Mks. 4.30, i.e.  $4\frac{2}{2}$ , roughly  $25\frac{3}{3}$  per week. A machinist, entering as a boy at fourteen years of age, on leaving the elementary school, goes through three years of apprenticeship from 14 to 17 or 18, according to circumstances and receives about  $2\frac{6}{6}$  wages per day during that time, getting a rise every six months. The minimum wage for a machinist is about  $3\frac{6}{6}$ , and the wage goes up to 5/-,  $5\frac{6}{6}$  and 6/-. There is one exceptionally good machinist in the Works who has very difficult work, and has been in the employ of the firm for a long time. He earns 12/- per day; but of course this is an exception. A foreman's minimum wage is 3/-, which rises to 6/- and 8/-; the average being about  $4\frac{2}{4}$  per day. It seems that the work must be let under different conditions amongst the forgers from what we are accustomed to.

We saw the 4,000 ton hydraulic forging press, and learnt that the Firm has plant sufficient to take 45,000 tons of steel forging. In the turning department were locomotive wheels and propellers. The mechanical shop is 150 meters (492 feet) long and 42 meters ( $137\frac{3}{4}$  feet) broad. We were shown some propeller shafts ready for shipping to Sunderland, and listened to explanations of the process of turning and boring the shafts. Three years ago there was some comment because the Indian Railway Department ordered wheels and rails from these works. Certainly the material of the shafts is very beautiful to work—grand material. We were much struck by a crank of 75 tons finished weight for a double cylinder gas engine, and were also impressed, as above said, by the exhibits of the Düsseldorf Exhibition especially the big shaft for an Italian battle ship.

In general it is quite clear that everything is up to date as regards machinery in these works. Their shops are very fine and we do not hesitate to say that we have seen nothing better in this regard since we left England. Two magnificent coupled engines, 1,200 and 800 nominal H.P. respectively were particularly striking; and we were much interested in the plant for purifying the gas from the Firm's own furnaces, of which process we had already taken notes last Tuesday at Rheinhausen.



Let us now refer to the relations between the Firm and its employees. After 25 years service every employee receives a watch and chain, the officials a gold watch and chain, the workmen the same in silver. Further, at Christmas a gratuity of 50/- for the remainder of his life, his widow receiving a gratuity of 25/- at this time of year. Last year the Firm celebrated its Jubilee, having been founded in 1854. In 1894 when this custom was inaugurated there were a number who had been 27, 29, 33, 37, 39, 41 and 44 years in the service of the firm. In 1904, 1903 and 1902, the list included men who had served for fifty years. Last year there were 1,200 on the list of those who had completed a term of twenty-five years service. This fact assuredly testifies to the existence of good relations between employers and men. And it must not be forgotten that for political purposes the greater number of workmen in this, as in all other works in Germany, vote for social-democracy, there being no other great Liberal Party in Germany that specially advocates the interests of the working classes. When these 1,200 men entered the service of the Firm, there were only about 3,000 men in its employ.

One of the great institutions of the Bochum Works for the benefit of the employees of the Firm is "Stahlhausen," a large edifice erected for lodging and boarding about 1,200 unmarried men employed in the works. The sleeping rooms are lofty, some containing eight, some six beds. Every bachelor in the employ of the works is obliged by his contract to put up and take his dinner and supper here. There is a spacious dining-hall at one end of which is a beautiful organ driven by electricity capable of playing a very large variety of melodies. It is always set going at meal time. It is true that many of the men do not like the clause in their contract compelling them to lodge and board with the Firm; but it is impossible to contest the advantages that accrue to them from the system. There are, however, a good many who have lived here for 30 years and one of them saved during that time £600. From our point of view we should advocate more ventilation in the sleeping-rooms; but the lack of it appears to be due to the fondness of the men for excessive warmth. It is admitted that if the house were built now it would be carried out on a somewhat different principle. It is just over thirty years old. The ventilators are there, but in most cases pictures have been pasted over them.

The price for board and lodging is 70 pfennige—8½d. This includes two meat meals—dinner and supper; the men provide their own coffee and bread and obtain boiling water on the premises for making their coffee. The dinner consists of a plate of meat and as much vegetables and potatoes as the men like. They can obtain beer at meals for eight pfennige—just under 1d. per glass. The kitchen is spacious and scrupulously clean and the same can be said of the pantries, larders, etc. A large staff is kept for the management

of the kitchen at the expense of the Firm. We were invited to partake of the men's dinner which was exceedingly wholesome and good; it was served for us in the men's canteen below the dining hall where they can sit of an evening. In this canteen the men get their beer for 10 pfennige per glass 1½d. The bill of fare for the week for dinner and supper is varied and adapted to the taste of the men. When it is considered that there would be some difficulty for the bachelors employed in the works to obtain suitable lodgings in the town where the price for full board and lodging amounts to at least 1s. 6d. per day, the economical advantage to the workman is obvious. Except that he is obliged to sleep and take his dinner and supper there, a bachelor employee is subject to no further restrictions. There is a nice large open garden in front of the house where the men can sit in fine weather, especially in summer. From the very beginning the Bochum Works provided for the board and lodging of their men. The present edifice "Stahlhausen" was erected at a cost to the Firm of Mks. 1,066,553 (£52,282).

In the dining hall the children from the adjoining workmen's colony are entertained at a Christmas party at this season of the year. A Christmas tree is illuminated. The parents of the children come to the party with their offspring and all the little ones go home with armfuls of Yule-tide gifts. The dining hall is also used during the year for other meetings and social foregatherings connected with the various societies to which the men belong.

We next came to the colony of workmen's dwellings at "Stahlhausen." These houses are in great demand and we entered one tenement of four rooms on the flat system which had been inhabited by the same family for twenty-nine years. The father, who had served thirty-two years in the works, was dead, but the eldest son who is in the service of the Firm was allowed to assume the place of head of the family and to continue in the flat. His mother keeps house for him and some of his brothers and sisters live there. The rent of this flat was exceptionally low—£7 10s. It would be unfair to make a comparison with Krupp's modern dwellings which we saw early in the week. The weather on Thursday was gloomy and at this season of the year the effect of the shady avenues of elms was absent. The Firm are of opinion that the dark colour of the bricks impairs the general appearance of the cottages and it has been determined to face them with cement. In our opinion the dwellings are quite up to the standard of workingmen's requirements and in regard to some of their sanitary arrangements they are highly creditable. There is plenty of air and plenty of room. The houses stand apart and there is no crowding. The rent is less than what is asked in the town. In the town the average price of a flat is calculated at from 76 to 90 shillings per annum per room; whereas in the Colony it is 50/-. No com-

parison between the two sorts of dwellings, however, can be made as regards space and good air and general comforts.

It must be remembered that the erection of these houses was commenced so long ago as 1864 when so much attention was not paid as now to the aesthetic appearance of workmen's dwellings. The majority of the houses of the Colony belong to the type known in Germany as the Mülhausen type. There are at present 1,243 dwellings for workmen's families here, of which

62	contain two rooms, average rent	£5
596	„ three „	do. £7 10s.
445	„ four „	do. £10
94	„ five „	do. £12 10s.
46	„ six or more rooms, rent in proportion	

Each flat has a cellar attached to it and most of them have also a small garden, and a little shed. A special system of ventilation is here used for the closets which answers very well. The Firm has set apart about forty acres of land which is let to the workmen in small allotments as kitchen-gardens for growing their vegetable and potatoes.

The Colony is administered by a special Committee of five officials of the Firm, who meet twice a week to distribute the tenements when any are free, and to discuss amongst other matters any wishes of the tenants that may be laid before them. Every flat has a separate entrance. Some of the blocks contain flats for eight, some for nine families. Only workmen in the service of the Firm can rent the flats and they cannot acquire them by purchase.

The Bochum Works also have Co-operative Stores which are administered pretty much on the same lines as are similar establishments elsewhere. There are seven branches of this establishment.

A Kindergarten is maintained in the Colony for the little children of the Firm between the ages of three and six. The children spend mornings and afternoons there and return home for meals. The school is frequented by about 300 children. It is a great boon to the mothers.

The Firm has a special Sick Fund of its own, besides that instituted by the State to which the employers have to contribute a portion of the weekly subscription. From this fund amounting to about £270,000, widows of deceased members receive support in three fixed payments per year of ten shillings and an allowance for each child of three shillings per year, for the same number of years as their husbands belonged to the fund. About 360 widows are now drawing from this fund.

There are also various funds for Old Age and Premature Infirmary Pensions which are drawn from by employees of the firm. The payments are regulated according to length of service, and amount after

ten years' service to £6 per year; after twenty years' service to £7 4s., and over twenty years' service to £9. This is also over and above the State Allowance for Premature Infirmity or Old Age.

We may add that whilst discussing the various matters connected with the men at dinner after we had been the round of the Works, one of the officials said:—"When you return to England please tell your comrades that here in Germany nobody has any unfriendly feelings towards England."

The Westphalians are a good type of men, as we are given to understand; but there is some reason to believe that rather too much money is put into the hands of the young people, young men and girls, who are apt to yield to the temptation of spending too much on pleasures. There is a tendency also to contract early marriages, but owing to the obligation to serve in the army or navy these marriages are not so early as in England.

## DORTMUND.

Dortmund is a large and comely city. Its population is about evenly divided between Roman Catholics and Protestants, and the town has immensely developed during the last forty-five years. About 12,000 workmen are employed in the various works and mines; and it is a great market for labour. The question of the unemployed does not exist here. We found that an immense number of Polish and Italian workmen flock hither. It is pretty clear that the economical struggle between capital and labour will gradually develop here; and it appears as if the workmen are paying more attention to the economical than to the political side of the movement. The town is the old centre of the coal district where the old German collieries existed. The coal-mining industry tends now to move northwards where the coal is deeper. The mines about Dortmund will be exhausted in eighty to a hundred years.

The three biggest works here—all steel works—are those of "Hoesch," the most modern and best fitted, the "Union," and the "Hoerder-Verein."

The Managing Director of the Firm of "Hoesch" Iron and Steel Works kindly consented to give us the permission asked for on our behalf to visit the Works, and Officials were told off to conduct us round and give us the information we desired. Moreover the Government Inspector of the district, Herr Oppermann, had the great courtesy to come to meet us at the station in order to accompany us to the Works for the purpose of introducing us, and his assistant came for the same purpose, and the information afforded us by both of them was of extreme value.

It appears that amongst the workmen of Dortmund the feeling is not particularly favourably disposed towards the introduction of special institutions for their benefit, although a good deal is done for them in this regard. They are more inclined to live for themselves. For example there are over 4,000 men employed in Hoesch's Works and 3,500 at the mines. There is a dining hall here too, similar to that at Bochum; but attendance is not compulsory and just now only eighty of the men make use of it, although the food is excellent and the price only 35 pfennige—just over 4d. We were shown over the kitchen, saw the food for dinner being prepared, and partook of dinner in the same room as the men, receiving the contents of the bill of fare of the day, very toothsome, namely, meat soup, rissoles prepared from fresh meat, and grated potatoes, and sauerkraut. The arrangements connected with the kitchen are quite admirable.

The minimum wage here is 3/- and skilled work is paid up to 10/- and 12/- per day, all piece work. From 75 per cent to 80 per cent of the miners here are Poles.

In Hoesch's works they make nearly all their own coke, having 190 ovens. The coke is very good; and all the by-products are utilised.

It is noteworthy that there is a relative absence of skilled labour here, machinery doing everything.

The Firm has very excellent bathing arrangements for its men as well as rooms for changing their garments and taking their meals. Each man is provided with a locker for his clothes. They come to work at 6 o'clock. Before taking their meals they must wash their hands. Hot and cold water is laid on for the baths as well as for the basins. We were particularly struck by the care the Firm have shown to make the men as comfortable as possible in this respect. It is impossible to conceive better arrangements for ablutions.

The men in this neighbourhood earn good wages so that it is not necessary for the women to go out to work. The girls here do not like going in to service. There are a good many female hands employed here in the chocolate and cigar factories.

In general, drink is not allowed in any of the works, certainly not spirits; but here at Hoesch's in the neighbourhood of the Rolling Mills there is a place where beer can be obtained. The men are not allowed to remain more than five minutes at the canteen which is only open twice a day. Here also we noticed that gambling does not prevail. Our question even when put elicited some surprise.

The works here also have a special Sick Fund and there are 493 dwellings for their employees belonging to the Firm. The dwellings are good, the rents being about 80/- to 90/- per room, making about £13 per annum for a three-roomed flat. They are on the flat system. The houses are provided with small gardens for each tenant.

It may be remarked that the Firm can generally sell its goods in the foreign market cheaper than in the German market, the difference being the duty imposed by the German tariff. Prices are now about the same for the German and foreign markets. Plates could be sold at better prices in the foreign market.

Here, as elsewhere the working classes, like every other class, are suffering from the high price of meat. All families are constrained to diminish their consumption of meat per day. We could, however, see no trace of want. There is no lack of employment and all the works here are fully occupied.

In a subsequent letter we shall deal at some length on the subject of the workhouse and of elementary education. In those letters that we have hitherto despatched it has been our aim to transmit as many data as possible concerning the actual wages; the real nature of the workman's dwellings; and the extent to which big Firms like Krupp, the Bochum Verein and Hoesch at Dortmund spend money on institutions for the welfare of their employees.

We may briefly state, however, that every child of the land and therefore every workman's child in Prussia must receive elementary education from the age of six to the age of fourteen for which no charge whatever is made. The workman's child is certain to attend the Elementary State School. At the age of fourteen if, as he probably will, he joins some industrial calling in the towns we have gone through, he will be obliged to attend a Continuation School. Most of the municipalities have introduced compulsion as regards these schools which used to be voluntary. This means two attendances, amounting together to six hours a week, the number of days being fixed according to local habits, and the requirements of the locality are mainly taken into consideration. Drawing is a subject of instruction. But of all this later.

As regards the workhouse, we have in vain looked for one; and in very deed the "House" plays no great rôle in these parts. Of this also more later on.

(Signed) G. PROCTOR.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 H. CALVERT.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHALL.  
 J. MANN.  
 G. W. BROWN.

## REPORT IV.

### ELBERFELD.

As we have already stated in a previous report, a good many writers of German conditions have been leading the British working-men to believe that Germany is a "poor" country, with an underfed, ill-clad, miserably housed population of workers. We have not come in contact with the agricultural labourers; but what we have seen of the industrial population at Crefeld, Essen, Bochum, Dortmund, and Elberfeld has opened our eyes. We cannot in common fairness give countenance to the description above referred to. We have seen nothing to justify the statement that the German working-man in these industrial districts is underfed, whilst we most distinctly affirm that it is preposterous to say that he is ill-clad. As regards his home, the general statement that he is miserably housed is worse than a gross exaggeration. A number of large Firms have spent, and are still spending large sums in the erections of good dwellings for their workpeople; and in the towns there is a tendency to provide dwellings for working-people more suitable to the standard of the age. From what we have seen and heard during the short time we have spent in these parts we infer that there are many difficulties to contend with in regard to the solution of this arduous problem, amongst others the high value of the land in the towns and the disinclination of the men to live far from their employment. The population are, as far as our observation goes, industrious and fairly steady; efforts are made to encourage thrift and a desire to save, and the spread of these virtues seems to vary according to the various localities and to exist in a reasonable degree.

The development in the district we are traversing has been immensely rapid, having taken place within the short space of thirty years. With the development of industry the working population of the towns has enormously increased in number, and wages have risen.

With the increase of wages the requirements of the working-classes have also developed; and it appears that the extreme section of the detractors of German conditions have formed their opinions on what may have prevailed in the past. We learnt from the workmen themselves that they are now raising their standard of life and that in regard to food and clothing they make greater pretensions than formerly. It is doubtless true that there was a time within the last thirty years when the German working-man's condition was not an enviable one. German industry was not then so active as it is now, and Germany as an industrial country now manufactures for the foreign market on a scale formerly not contemplated. She was dependent for most of her machinery and many of her industrial products on England. Since the welding together of the Empire there has been a great change in this regard and employers of labour and the receivers of wages were prepared by their systematic system of education and training to seize the opportunities placed before them. The legislature supported the rising industries by means of protected tariffs, and is still supporting them in this way. It would be idle to try to suppress the fact that the efforts of the people themselves have also greatly contributed to the amelioration of their condition. The social legislation initiated by the Government was admittedly brought into being by pressure from below; and it can be fairly affirmed that but for the interference of the Government, employers as a class would not have been disposed to yield to this pressure with that readiness which has been enforced upon them.

From amongst the working classes it is said that there is much still to be done, and so there is; meanwhile, it seems clear that the struggle to promote ameliorations of social conditions will not cease because all three factors in the work of realising them are co-operating from their own points of view. The State, the employers and the employed are each pushing forward the wheels of progress.

We note that passages in our reports have been taken out from their context and have been utilized for party purposes. We are not enquiring for party purposes; but must lay stress on the fact that Germany's development as an industrial State and the increase of the wages of her working people as well as the continuous improvement of the conditions of life of her working-classes has been going on and is still going on under conditions of industrial protection. This is an indisputable fact. It can be left to him who runs to read!

Elberfeld which together with Barmen is one of the centres of the weaving industry is typical of what German perseverance has done. "If any serious friction were to disturb the relations between Germany and England;"—said one of Elberfeld's leading manufacturers to us a few days ago—"if war were to break out between the two countries, Lancashire and Yorkshire would be almost



brought to a stand-still, for Rhenish Prussia, and Saxony are their biggest customers; and Crefeld, Elberfeld and Barmen would suffer in the same way. Yorkshire would not be able to keep the spinning frames going and the same would be the case for Bolton as regards cotton warps; and Elberfeld would also be shut off from employment. Her trade would cease. England supplies us with cotton and worsted yarn. Yorkshire used to sell quantities of piece goods to Germany; but the sale of this commodity has diminished, and the export of worsted and woollen yarns has greatly increased in quantity."

Elberfeld, the land of the Elfs, as the municipal legend printed on the wall in the Rathaus Chamber tells us, has seen days of storm in the course of its history and was twice burnt down. It belongs to the old Duchy of Berg—the land of Berg—and fell in 1806 into the hands of Napoleon and became a French city. In 1815, it was transferred to Prussia and it is now one of the costliest gems in the Crown of Prussia's King. There is much to be learnt here and all along the Valley of the Wupper.

The inhabitants of Elberfeld have always been diligent people and have had commercial relations with England for centuries. The population of the city which numbered 72,000 in 1870 has been steadily increasing ever since and now amounts to 167,710. As an industrial town it is one of the most important in Germany. Almost a fourth of its inhabitants are connected with industry. It is the chief seat in Germany for the manufacture of woollen and cotton stuffs, buttons, braids, ribbons, trimmings, plush, and furniture and carriage stuffs. It has an important silk industry and stands in the first rank of the cotton-printing industry. Its chemical industry has also acquired world-wide reputation. Elberfeld is noted for turkey-red, and Barmen dyes for Glasgow.

The annual turn-over of the banks is about £400,000,000. The Chamber of Commerce in the town is the second oldest in Germany. Five-sixths of all the Elberfeld working-people are employed in the textile industry at least 20,000 men and 10,000 women. A few years ago the number of unemployed was very great, amounting to many thousands; at the present time the number of workmen out of employment is small, especially as there are looms in the mills lying still for want of men to work at them. We obtained introductions to the Firms of D. Peters & Co., Ltd., Schlieper & Baum, Ltd., and Friedrich Bayer & Co., Ltd.; and visited the mills of the first of these Firms at Neviges, situated about half-an-hour's distance from the town, if you take the electric tramway; and the calico printing works of Messrs. Schlieper & Baum which are in the town.

The firm of Friedrich Bayer & Co., Ltd., invited us to spend the day at their new works at Leverkusen which we will leave for our next report. Arriving early in the morning last Saturday week, at

Messrs. D. Peters & Co's. mill at Neviges, two of the members of the Firm conducted us over it, and also explained to us their various institutions for promoting the general welfare of their employees. As above stated, the greater part of the worsteds used in Elberfeld come from England. The duty on worsted yarns is very little, but on woollens a little more. On worsted it is 3/- per 100 kilogramms, i.e. for 220 English lbs. On woollen yarns the duty\* goes up to 48/- per 100 kilogramms, i.e. nearly 3d. a German lb. The worsted yarns come from Bradford, and the cotton yarns from Bolton and Manchester. The mill we visited pays over a million marks per annum to England for yarns, i.e. about £50,000. All the textile industries in Elberfeld must get their yarns from England.

Information as to the hours of work, and as to wages was readily given us. It may be summed up as follows:—The regular hours for all hands over 16 years of age are 60 for six days—ten hours per day. A year ago Messrs. Peters were working short time, namely 54 hours, because business was bad; now there is no lack of work, so the hours have increased to 60. As there are a good many holidays in the year, including Sundays, the average number of working days per annum is 303.

Very few boys and girls under 16 are employed. Those who are employed from 14 to 16 work 4 hours and 50 minutes less per six days than the other hands, thus their time is 55 hours, 10 minutes, instead of 60 hours for the six days. The mills are closed at Messrs. Peters on Saturday afternoons. Married women are only exceptionally employed by this Firm; and in general it appears that married women's labour is everywhere avoided as much as possible. It has been found by Messrs. Peters, after the experience of many years that in view of the low rents taken in their district and the gardens that they give their men at a very low cost, the income earned by the head of the family is sufficient for its maintenance, and that there is consequently no necessity for the wife to work outside the house. The average earnings of male weavers in the mill in 1904, for a week of 55 hours, was Mks. 21.30, i.e. about 21/-; the average wage in 1905, for 60 hours, has been Mks. 23.10, i.e. about 22/7 $\frac{3}{4}$ .

The average wages for all males over 16 years has been as follows:—1905, January 1st.—September 30th:—60 hours per week.

Weavers, Mks. 23.10 = 22/7 $\frac{3}{4}$ ; men for dressing warps, beaming and looming warps, Mks. 27.30 = 26/9 $\frac{1}{4}$ ; mechanics and stokers for repairing workshops Mks. 23.70 = 23/2 $\frac{3}{4}$ ; overlookers Mks. 26.55 = 26/-. The average for the 218 males over 16 was Mks. 23.90 = 23/5 $\frac{1}{4}$  in 1905; in 1904 the average was for 55 hours per week Mks. 22.45 = 22/-; in 1903 Mks. 23.30 = 22/10 for 59 hours per week. The average wages for the girls over 16 years of age were as follows:—

\* In the new tariff the duty on woollen yarns will be from 8/- to 24/-, i.e. from  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per German lb.

1905, January 1st to September 30th —

Winders, warp dressers and weavers Mks. 15·30 = 15/-. In 1904 they were Mks. 14·60 = 14/3 $\frac{3}{4}$ ; in 1903 Mks 15·10 = 14/9 $\frac{3}{4}$ . Boys and girls under 16 earned in 1905 an average of Mks. 8·85 = about 8/8, the girls earning about 8d more than the boys.

At Neviges the Firm employ 400 hands and 100 in Elberfeld. Very friendly and confidential relations appear to exist between the heads of the Firm of D. Peters & Co. and their employees. The father of the present heads of the Firm was one of the three who created the Elberfeld system for the relief of the poor, established in 1854. A lucid summary of this system is given in Drage's "The Problem of the Aged Poor," one of the features of which is to give all necessary help without in any way encouraging dependence. In this connection it may be briefly noted that the Workhouse in Germany is an institution of a penal nature under the supervision of the Police, to be distinguished from the Poor House or the *shelter for the homeless*.

The Poor House too is intended for old and infirm persons rather than for those that are able-bodied. The nature of this Elberfeld system was investigated by a Commission of Enquiry sent over by the British Government in 1887.

The Firm inaugurated in 1865 a Council for settling the hours of labour, disputes, and other questions, composed of nine employees, four of whom are nominated by the Firm and five are elected by the workpeople. A member of the Firm presides at the meetings but has no vote. It is noteworthy that when a Syndicate was formed by the employers in the neighbourhood to protect themselves against strikes, the Firm refused on the ground that having confidence in their workpeople they would not insult them by joining a Masters' Federation.

The object aimed at by all the German employers of labour who provide funds and institutions of various kinds for promoting the welfare of their employees, is to secure a good and reliable stock of workpeople interested in their occupation who are likely to take root in the place when they are married and settled down.

Amongst the various Institutions connected with the Firm of D. Peters & Co., we may mention the baths erected by a member of the Firm and opened in 1896. They are excellently fitted up with capital accommodation. The shower baths are given free of charge, the other baths cost 20 pfennige = 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Considering that 36,000 baths were taken during the first five years, it may be inferred that the employees are pleased with the luxury. The same appreciation was not at first accorded to the Firm's steam laundry, where the employees can get their linen and that of their family washed for 5/- per quarter! The whole of the washing of the linen

is thereby taken off the hands of the men's wives who otherwise would have to do it at home. How often have our people declared that the most disagreeable day for the British working-man was the washing-day. And yet it was long before the Neviges women would take advantage of this laundry! The system is as follows:—The linen is brought to the laundry in a bag on Monday morning and a brass check is given in return. After being washed and dried it is fetched home on Thursday and ironed at home by Sunday.

We were shown the carpenter's shop for boys up to 14 years of age, sons of the workpeople. They can come here before they leave the National School and learn the elements of carpentry and carving. There seems to be no lack of boys there and they deserve credit for their work. They attend twice a week from 5 to 7 o'clock p.m. Their work is exhibited on Christmas Eve at a Christmas tree entertainment and the articles they have made, which are intended as presents for their parents, are taken home with them.

There is also a school for cookery in which eight girls from the mill are at present receiving instruction in cookery, to train them for domestic work after marriage. The hours of instruction are from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to 7 to 9 on Tuesday and Thursday evenings.

The Colony of dwellings for working men was founded by the Firm with the intention of enabling their employees to acquire a house of their own. The first efforts in this direction were misunderstood and some £650 of the money given for this purpose were untouched. The Firm made another start by offering to secure possession of a house within the space of 17 years to a workman by means of premiums granted to him; and this time they met with success. About a hundred dwellings exist now, more than half of which are owned by the working people themselves. According to the terms of the leases the Firm cannot give notice whilst the tenants are in the service of the Firm, but the tenants can themselves give notice once a year. In 1879, dwellings, most of them semi-detached, were built containing a small kitchen and sitting room below, and two bedrooms and passage upstairs; as well as a cellar and closet. In the newer houses the kitchen is made larger. We entered one of the former which was inhabited by a workman who had been 23 years in the service of the Firm and was earning 5/- a day or 30/- a week. In another dwelling to which we were conducted, the wife was cleaning up (as it was Saturday). Here the tenant earned 28/- per week. The rent in both cases was just under £10 per year. The third dwelling that was shown to us was of the more modern type, containing a good large kitchen and sitting room down stairs and three bedrooms upstairs, inhabited by a man and his family, he earning 28/- per week. The appointments of the houses, which are all well provided with gardens and separate closets, are all that could be desired.

The Firm has also founded a number of funds for the benefit of its employees. For example there is a Savings Bank connected with the Firm which is obligatory, the object of which is to enable the men to amass a small sum which will be of service to them on marriage or in case of some unexpected call on their funds. The weekly deposit must amount to at least 6d, but since 1875 depositors have to pay in five or ten per cent of their wages according as they are married or single. These deposits cannot be withdrawn without the consent of the Council above mentioned, but this consent cannot be refused if the money is connected with the home or with marriage or with the acquisition of a house. At first the fund which was started in 1863 was not obligatory, but has been made so since 1868. Interest at the rate of 6 per cent is paid up to £100.—It is not obligatory to deposit over £100.—If the account amounts to upwards of £100 interest at the rate of 5 per cent is paid up to £200, and for all further savings at the rate of 4 per cent. Should an employee leave the service of the Firm, he gets his total savings including interest that has accrued thereon returned forthwith.

In 1869 Messrs. D. Peters & Co. inaugurated a fund for the benefit of those who became prematurely unfit for work, and for the old people amongst their hands. It was intended to pay a pension only to those who had been at least 15 years in the Firm's service, but practically this restriction has never been adhered to. Ever since the inauguration of the fund nearly thirty-six years ago the Firm has paid all the sums necessary for pensions and allowances. The fund now amounts to more than Mks. 100,000 (about £4,900), bearing interest at 4 p. c. per annum. The pensions paid in 1905 amounted to Mks. 12,000 (about £588), which sum is equivalent to nearly 3 per cent of the wage fund. The Firm pays over to this fund annually double the sum that has to be paid to the State Insurance Fund for the relief of the aged and those prematurely unfit to work. A similar fund was inaugurated a few years ago for the benefit of the Clerks of the Firm, employer and employed paying equal monthly premiums.

In 1905 the total sum expended by the Firm for the special benefit of its employees amounted to Mks. 37,000 (£1,813) equal to about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of all the wages and salaries paid.

A case was mentioned to us of the advantages of the Board of Arbitration above-mentioned which deserves to be recorded. It had been decided by the Firm that in the case of a particular article they could not afford to weave it unless they made a reduction in wages of 25 per cent. for that particular class of goods. The men were at first disposed not to yield, but on enquiry it was pointed out that this would not be an excuse for lowering wages all round, but would only affect the particular class of goods, the manufacture of which

would have to be discontinued if the deduction were not made. The Council above referred to agreed.

It will be interesting to hear that one of the leading manufacturers of Elberfeld remarked to us in the course of conversation:—"If I were an Englishman I should raise duties: I should stand by Chamberlain most decidedly if I were an Englishman." This remark doubtless only carries weight as representing the opinion of the speaker and of those who hold his views of whom there are a good many over here, despite the general hope that England will not impose high duties on imports; but it should be reported just as we report the view of the other side that the high tariff on foodstuffs into Germany raises the price of food for Germans.

In conversation with a member of the Trades Union we were told that the workmen in Elberfeld were opposed to the Institutions provided for their welfare by the employers because there was too much chicanery about the system, a charge which we were bound to say was in all cases that came under our notice wholly groundless. We can conceive workmen fighting shy of them on the ground that their independence was thereby interfered with; but this is a matter of opinion. It is not fair to question the bona-fides of the employers.

The dwellings in the workmen's district of the old part of the town which we visited, were of the usual varied type. The streets are clean and the houses for the most part comely to look at from the outside. Rents are high and the flat system is in vogue. We were not favourably impressed by these dwellings; but must admit that they were in many respects similar to what would be found in the old parts of our towns. The wife of one of the tenants, a tailor with a delicate wife and four children, told us that her type of dwelling was considered "very practical" by the working people in Elberfeld. The rooms were lofty enough, a good sized kitchen and two other rooms; the closet is in the court yard and water is provided on the staircase for each landing. The rooms are here papered by the tenant who also paints or stains the floor. The absence of carpets on the floors in nearly all workmen's dwellings in the towns, strikes us as uncomfortable; but this is not the German view of discomfort for they like to wash their floors continually, and people of higher standing than workmen often use strips of carpet only. The rent in this house is 240 Mks. = £11 15s. 3d. per annum on the first floor; say £11 9s. in the second, and £11 7s. in the third floor. Wages according to our Trades Union informant, were low in the textile industry in Elberfeld, but good in the Iron and Building Trades. Carpenters earn 60 pf. i.e. 7d. per hour; bricklayers 55 pf. i.e. 6½d.; plasterers 60 pf. i.e. 7d. They work 9 to 10 hours in summer and 8 hours in winter, all time work.

The rent of the better workmen's houses runs in Elberfeld from

270 to 300 marks for three rooms say—£13 5s. to £14 14s. The average rent is reckoned at from £4 10s. to £5 per room.

At the present juncture there are a good many unemployed in the Building Trade in Elberfeld and Barmen; otherwise, remarked our Trades Union informant, there was everywhere fair employment in this branch; whereas for two years there had been no "unemployed" in the textile branch. Sempstresses, he said, in the ready-made clothes branch, of whom there were about 3,000, were badly paid; also the men, of whom there are about 1,000. They all work by the piece. Men average 22/- per week, and their wage goes up to 24/-, 26/-, and at most 30/-; women average 8/- and 9/-, sometimes they are as low as 6/- and can go up to 12/- or 15/-.

Talking to our informant, who is a tailor, whose average earnings from tailoring and other work amount to from 34/- to 36/- per week, about the consumption of horse-flesh, he said "Of course I do not eat horsemeat or such things; but there are a good many persons here, not only working-men, who do." We were conducted to a horseflesh butcher, whose shop was exceedingly clean. His wife assured us that her customers came from all ranks of society, and that the average price of the meat was 40 pfennige per German lb., i.e. about 4½d. per English lb. Horsetongue sausage was sold here for about 6½d. per English lb. There are four horse-flesh butchers in Elberfeld. A relative of the one we visited has a restaurant for horse-flesh at Solingen; we shall take a look at it when we get to Germany's Sheffield.

In none of the poorer working-men's families that we came across in Elberfeld was horse-flesh eaten; and there is no doubt that it is only consumed by a small minority of these people.

We met a young agitator who had thrown up his work as a braid-maker because he was dissatisfied with 24/- a week, the rate received by his comrades. He had a wife and two children and a dwelling for which he paid £10 10s. a year in a good house. He had been twelve weeks out of work, being unable to procure any, because he was everywhere known as an agitator amongst the employers. He showed no disposition to yield. The style of his clothing was all that could be desired; but from our British point of view he did not give us the impression of what we should call a "Worker." He told us that his brother, who is a finisher, had married on 16/- a week, and that he now had a wife and five children to support on from 18/- to 20/- per week! Although devoting much of his time and energy to agitation instead of work, this individual was apparently not well-informed, for he included England amongst those countries that imposed high duties on braids, etc.!

In Elberfeld, as above stated, we were also enabled to visit the works of Messrs. Schlieper & Baum, Calico Printers, and Dr. Schlieper, a member of the firm, kindly took us round.

About 600 hands are employed in these works in Elberfeld, the remainder, from 500 to 600, at Laken. They were obliged to erect works at Laken owing to the dirtiness of the water of the Wupper, which is like that of the Mersey. Consequently only printing and engraving is done in Elberfeld; all the wet operations, e.g. bleaching, dyeing, etc., are done at Laken. For this reason their pieces have to be taken two or three times backwards and forwards, thus increasing the cost of production. Force of circumstances has compelled them to do this, as they could not bleach with the water of the Wupper.

Messrs. Schlieper and Baum do business with England and export to South America and other countries via England. They are the only cotton printers in Elberfeld; but a great part of the German cotton printing is done in Elsass. There are several calico-printers also in South Germany, Rhenish Prussia, and Saxony; those in Düsseldorf are not strictly calico-printers but "blue" printers, only using deep indigo. Messrs. Schlieper and Baum do no weaving or spinning, but buy the raw woven cloth and bleach, dye, print and finish it for sale. The duty paid on what they import is repaid when the goods go out of the country again. Most of their material is bought in South Germany, sometimes in England. They do not pay by the piece. There are two seasons in the year and they are very busy from September to Christmas and from April to May. Now they are printing five times as much as they do in summer. In England sampling off goes on all the year round. This Firm only samples in the summer; but they keep on their men all the same, who earn the same wages summer and winter. For example boys begin at 13/- at sixteen years of age and receive 1/- extra every half year until they obtain full men's wages. A man taken from the street starts with 20/- a week: all the hands get this except printers, engravers and foremen. The printers receive from 30/- to 40/-; engravers the same; and the foremen generally somewhat higher wages. The average wages of a machinist here are 24/- and they rise to 25/- to 27/- per week. As he only does the ordinary repairs, these wages must be considered good. It may be mentioned that one of the foremen receives £120 per year and £10 gratuity at Christmas as well as a house on the premises rent free and coals.

The hours of work at the works are from 7—12 with no pause; and from 1-30 to 6-30 also with no pause. Twenty years ago they began at 6 o'clock. In the season they work overtime—up to 8 o'clock at latest. The unskilled hands receive for overtime 80 pfennige = 9½d.—we may say time and a quarter. For one hour they get 6d. The skilled hands are paid in the same proportion.

After 25 years all employees of the Firm are entitled, if unfit for work, to a pension amounting to about half their wages; if they



have served 50 years they retire on full wages. This is the best pension scheme we have so far heard of in Germany. We saw one man of 77 still working and looking very well who will have served his fifty years next year; he has a son and a grandson in the employ of the Firm, both working in the same room as himself. After serving in the army the men are always taken back again on application.

Most of the machinery used by the Firm is now of German make and all colours used are made in Germany, but last year,—as an exception—some came from England. In former times a large part of the machinery was of English make.

Continuation Schools, being now compulsory in Elberfeld the boys employed by the Firm have to attend classes from 4—6 or 6—8 in the afternoon—six hours per week.

The subjoined extract from the report of the Elberfeld Chamber of Commerce for 1904 is noteworthy :—

“Various branches of our textile industry felt themselves injured by the continuation of its Customs-war with Canada . . . We hope that when our Commercial Treaty with Great Britain is revised this question will be regulated and that Germany will be at least placed on an equality with other countries trading with Canada. As matters now stand our industry is carrying on a struggle with unequal weapons, not only in regard to the mother-country, England, but also in regard to France, Switzerland, and the United States.

We have repeatedly laid stress in this place on the harm done by the newspaper war that has been going on between England and Germany. . . . We should like to lay stress on the fact that certain bombastic assertions constantly recurring in the press, according to which our industries are all superior to those of England do not hold good in this general way for our textile industry; such statements can only serve one end, namely to irritate our English competitors. We are by no means in a position to beat the English staple goods in neutral markets in regard to sale-price, which can be understood if the special burdens are taken into consideration that are imposed upon our German industry by our social and fiscal laws. Owing also to the duties that protect our national work the wages of the workmen have gradually sustained a not inconsiderable rise which has rendered competition in our export business more difficult, although the fact in itself is quoted as satisfactory in the interest of our working-men population.”

To this it should be added that there is not the slightest trace of ill-feeling in any sphere of the population of Elberfeld against England. As a matter of fact, as shown above, Elberfeld cannot but desire amicable relations because the prosperity of her trade depends upon the supply of raw material from England.

Meat and bread have become dearer in Elberfeld during the last few months:—meat owing to the refusal of the Government to allow the importation of more than a certain quantity of meat, in the interest of the German agriculturalists, and corn because (according to the Chamber of Commerce) of the disturbance in the market caused by the Russian revolution.

The average price of beef in Elberfeld used to be from 65 pfennige to 70 pfennige per German lb., i.e. 7d. to 7½d per English lb.; it is now 85 pfennige, i.e. 9d. per English lb.; pork used to be about the same, and is now about 9½d. per English lb., whilst bacon costs now 11½d. per English lb., having been formerly 70 pfennige per German lb., i.e. 7½d. per English lb.

The price of rye-bread at Elberfeld is 58 pfennige (=6¾d.) for 7 German lbs. = 7¾ English lbs. Therefore 4 English lbs. of Elberfeld rye-bread would cost a trifle under 3½d. In Neviges the price for the same amount of German rye-bread would be a trifle over 3½d.—being 60 pfennige for 7 German lbs.

G. W. BROWN.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 J. MANN.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHELL.  
 G. PROCTOR.  
 H. CALVERT.

# REPORT V.

## SOLINGEN AND DÜSSELDORF.

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### SOLINGEN.

Whilst proceeding from town to town in this busy and prosperous district of the German Empire, we have been forced to face the fact that it has been during the period following upon the introduction of protection duties by Prince Bismarck in 1879, that Germany has ceased to be poor and has become well-to-do; that her workpeople have received a large increase in wages; that the general social condition of the latter has improved; that Germany's industry has developed; that she has succeeded in extending her foreign trade and in acquiring ready markets for her continuously developing industry.

We showed in our report about Essen that in that district wages had increased by 61 per cent. since 1871, and by 267 per cent. as compared with what they were seventy years ago. If the prices of some of the necessaries of life have augmented during the same period, they have not increased in anything like the same proportion; whereas no comparison whatever can be made between the condition of the German working man of to-day, and his condition even thirty, let alone fifty years ago. Not only has he been enabled to assert his position with greater weight, but he is a long way nearer to the present standard of life accepted in England than was his parent to that already enjoyed by our fathers thirty years ago. Although in the town dwellings that we have seen inhabited by working men we have often missed that inviting smile of comfort as we understand it, it must not be inferred that discomfort reigns, for comfort is a relative idea. The working classes are well clothed and well educated, and their interests are attended to by the State in a

measure unknown in other countries. In sickness they can claim relief at the hands of the State; in old age and when incapacitated for work they have not got the workhouse or the poorhouse to look forward to, but a certain fixed allowance in return for which they are certain to have a refuge for their declining years with their relatives and friends.

The statistics of the Prussian Savings' Banks, just published bear out all that we have been able to notice concerning the improvement in the condition of the working classes. The amount of deposits almost doubled between 1894 and 1904. In 1894 they amounted to 4000.67 millions of Marks (£196,111,275), in 1905 to 7761.93 millions (£380,485,300). The total amount in the whole of the German Empire of the deposits lying in the Savings' Banks is said to be about £598,000,000. The number of Savings' Banks books issued last year is said to have been 1,408,299, and the total amount issued to be 10,211,741. In justification of the popular adage—"Rheinlaender Geld-Verschwender." ("The Rhinelander is a spendthrift")—it appears that the percentage of depositors is lower in Rhineland than in the other chief parts of the Empire except in the East; whilst the percentage from Saxony, where industrial labour is comparatively worse paid—although incomparably better since the consolidation of the Empire—heads the list of all the official districts.

The statistics concerning the income-tax also show that even after making allowance for the increase in the population, small incomes varying from £45 to £150 have very considerably increased.

All these details spell prosperity: and, even though we do not go so far as to say they must be the direct result of the Imperial policy of protection, we are justified in drawing attention to the fact that this auspicious condition of things has been developing parallel to protective tariffs.

On more than one occasion very plain spoken remarks have been made to us by those who are thoroughly initiated in the extent of the prosperity of the German iron and steel trade of this district, to the effect that no small astonishment prevailed that England kept her fiscal frontiers open whilst all her neighbours around her imposed heavy duties on her products!

There is, it is true, a general clamour amongst the working classes against high duties on necessaries of life, but it should not be forgotten that Germany which used to export large quantities of grain—to England amongst other countries—besides supporting her own population, whilst now exporting very little grain, still feeds nine-tenths of her population from what she produces herself. On the other hand the reports of the Chambers of Commerce do not complain so much of the duties on corn, as of the fact that German industry has been of late sacrificed to the interests of the agriculturist section of the community. In other words, foreign countries, such

as Austria-Hungary and Russia, have been permitted to raise the duty on German manufactures in return for a rise on the import duties of cereals into Germany. For example, Solingen complains largely of the duties levied against products of the cutlery industry—knives and scissors—by Austria Hungary, which have increased from 35 to 135 kronen i.e. from 29 Mks. 40 pfennige to 130 Mks. 20 pfennige, whilst the German duty on the same goods is 24 Mks.

On Tuesday of last week we proceeded from Elberfeld to Solingen and had the good fortune in Germany's Sheffield to see its activity to great advantage from three sides. One of the members of the well-known Firm of J. A. Henckels had the courtesy to conduct us over his works and to initiate us into his methods so far as they affect the working men, and he introduced us to a leading member of the Trades Unions, who is also one of the Corporation of the town, and to two of his hands who speak English and were able to enlighten us from their point of view. Herr Daniel Peres, who spent some years in Sheffield serving his apprenticeship with Messrs. Michael Hunter & Sons of whom he still retains pleasant recollections, also had the kindness to conduct us round his works; and we were given an insight into the home industry of Solingen as well. Moreover the Government Inspector of the district, Dr. Czimatis, had the kindness to join our party and to furnish us with a good deal of valuable information.

It was no easy task to grasp in the short space of half of a winter's day the conditions of a seat of industry like Solingen. They are essentially unique, and it is astounding that the old conditions can still continue in force in the midst of a district of industrial activity where everything moves according to up-to-date principles. What we learnt we owe to the courtesy of our Solingen guides.

The population of Solingen is to all intents and purposes considerably increased by its being situated between two other towns which share in the same industry. There are in all some 35,000 workmen engaged in the factories and in the home industry. Those who adhere to the latter, come to the works to fetch materials and bring the articles back again when their particular function has been completed. They have a shop fitted up and attached to their houses, and now use motors and electric power, the latter being supplied by the municipality at the rate of 13 pf. per kilowatt hour ( $1\frac{1}{2}$ d.) instead of at the usual price of 18 pfennige—about  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d.

One of the features of the Solingen Cutlery Industry is that specialisation is carried out here with the utmost refinement and consequently great skill is developed. The Firm of J. A. Henckels attaches great importance to the use of protection guards over the grinding stones invented by the Firm, each of which costs £20, and to the ventilation arrangements for carrying off the dust from the ordinary grinders, the expense of which is £4 daily. We believe

that these are both used in Sheffield. Anyhow no accidents have occurred here in the grindery since the protection guards were used. We noticed that the Solingen grinder grinds from the front whereas the Sheffield grinder grinds from the top. We noted in the wooden-handle department that special ventilators are provided for carrying off the shavings.

The Henckels factory is the only cutlery factory in Germany that makes its own steel. From 700 to 800 hands are employed in the factory and about 1,700 work at home—total about 2,500.

The hours of work are from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with a quarter of an hour's pause at 9 a.m. and 4 p.m. respectively for morning and afternoon coffee and the dinner pause from noon to 1-30 p.m. The young hands have half an hour for coffee pauses instead of a quarter.

Wages are paid on Fridays and Saturdays. The contracts are made subject to a fortnight's notice for the regular employees.

Apprentices commence at 14 years of age after leaving the Elementary School. Hitherto the training of apprentices has been mainly in the hands of the home industry and has been strictly regulated by the prescriptions of the special organisations. In the factory they begin with a wage of 1s. per day. Amongst the engravers a boy was pointed out to us who was already in receipt of 14/- per week; and one exceptionally skilful lad attracted our attention who, as we were assured, although only 14½ years of age, was earning 3/- a day. From 14 to 18 all boys have to attend the four hours a week required by the Municipal Continuation School to be divided between two afternoons in the week. Those who take up drawing for a special purpose have six hours.

The head man in the forge earns 50s. per week; the other men get about 25s. In the knife department where the men do piece work the wages may rise to 60s. per week. Those employed in making scissors, of which 1,500 pairs are turned out every day, can earn up to 30s. per week. The fixed wage in the plating department is 36s. per week. Engravers earn from 24s. to 45s. The grinders earn at piece work from 29s. to 30s. per week and up to 45s., and the razor makers up to 40s. In the wooden-handle department wages run from 10s. to 12s. per week, mainly boys being employed here. There are many in the factory who have been there for 50 years; each is rewarded who has served for a long period.

The factory is well ventilated and well appointed. Each department is provided with separate baths and lavatories and messrooms; and a very good bathing establishment has been erected and special baths have been provided for the use of the boilermen and smelters.

The mother-of-pearl handles for the Henckels knives are made at Sheffield. All the Sheffield Firms have agents at Solingen, and ninety per cent. of the mother-of-pearl handles used at Solingen

come from Sheffield. The Firm of J. A. Henckels has never cut mother-of-pearl, but a Cologne Firm engaged a Sheffield specialist in the pearl-handle branch about two and a half years ago to come over to superintend the making of pearl-handles at their factory. It has always been admitted that the Germans do not show such special capacity for this branch as do the Sheffield specialists. The man selected has settled in Germany with his six sons.

Messrs. D. Peres are very enterprising. No sooner had the King and Queen of Norway been elected by the Norwegian people than scissors were made here for export to Norway bearing the heads of King Haakon and Queen Maud. This Firm has had relations with England for many years. It has supplied millions of small compasses to a London house during the past twenty-three years.

Only about a hundred hands are employed on the premises at this factory, most of the work being given to home-workers, of whom there are from three to four hundred who work for the Firm. These latter fetch the goods in their raw state and bring them back finished.

Herr Peres gave us the subjoined table of wages earned in Solingen for piece work in several branches of specialised work, the figures being taken from his own wage-book:—

		Average day wage.	
Toolmakers...	...	$6/9\frac{3}{4}$	(Mks. 6·95).
Grinder	...	$6/10\frac{7}{8}$	(Mks. 7·05).
Cutler	...	$4/6\frac{3}{4}$	(Mks. 4·65); $5/2\frac{7}{8}$ (Mks. 5·35); $7/9$ (Mks. 7·90) up to $8/8\frac{3}{4}$ (Mks. 8·90).
Razor-maker	...	$5/1$	(Mks. 5·20); $5/7\frac{1}{2}$ (Mks. 5·75); $6/1\frac{3}{8}$ (Mks. 6·25) up to $7/6$ (Mks. 7·65).
Scissors-maker	...	from $4/6$	(Mks. 4·60) up to $9/9\frac{1}{2}$ (Mks. 10).
Etcher	...	from $5/1$	(Mks. 5·20) up to $8/6$ (Mks. 8·70).

Thus it will be seen that a razor-maker at Solingen can earn from £70 to about £136 per annum; a scissor-maker earns a minimum of about £70 and can earn up to about £155; a grinder £105.

The minimum taxes at Solingen for those where income falls in the lowest class (£45 per annum) are:—

Income tax	...	...	...	s. d.
				2 11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Communal dues, 215 per cent. of the				
State Income tax	...	...	...	6 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Church rate	...	...	...	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
				<hr/>
Total...				10 1 $\frac{3}{4}$

For an income of Mks. 2,000 (about £98) the taxes amount to Mks. 31 (30/4); for an income of from Mks. 2,100—Mks. 2,400 (£103—£117 12s.) they amount to Mks. 36 (35/3); for an income of from Mks. 2,400—Mks. 2,700 (£117 12s.—£132 7s.) they amount to Mks. 44 (£2 3s. 1d.)

On an average, as we learnt here, it may be said that a Solingen workman requires about £9 per annum for his clothing; from £9 to £10 for that of his wife, according to her habits; and about £3 to £3 10s. for each child. All the women and children here are invariably well clothed.

Subjoined are the present prices of some household commodities:—

Beef	...	...	9d.	} per English lb.
Pork	...	...	10½d.	
Veal	...	...	9½d.	
Mutton	...	...	8½d.	
Bacon	...	...	9d.	
Flour	...	...	1½d.	
Butter	...	...	1s.	

A 4 lb. (English) loaf of German rye-bread would cost at Solingen 4¾d.

The men working in the home industry for the most part have their own houses. We visited a few of these men in their own homes. One who had formerly worked for Henckels had his own house and yard, which is  $\frac{1}{5}$ th of an acre, the house and land having cost him roughly £500. The fixings of his shop had cost £35. According to the habits of the Solingen men, a couple of songsters in cages were hanging on the wall in the shop. Everything about the man was a credit to him. He is a finisher and his son works with him.

The second house we visited was one built on the flat system. It was owned by a man who had formerly been in the same factory. He and three other families inhabited the house. He is a pocket-knife grinder earning about 30/- per week. The house cost him about £950, and he receives £35 rent from the three tenants.

The third house inspected was that of a fitter, a type of workman who is the worst paid in Solingen. He was also a house-owner, but had built his house with money he had inherited.

Another house was that of a scissors-maker who worked on commission. He had five sons working with him, two of whom are married. Everything was neat and tidy and orderly about the house.

The impression we received was that the wages of the home-workers were very low, which appears to be the case everywhere in the case of home-workers.



In Solingen one of the party went into a horse-meat restaurant where all kinds of people were dining off horse-meat. It was the restaurant we spoke of in our Elberfeld report. The proprietor does a good business; but his clients are not exclusively working men, who indeed form the minority. There is evidently a taste for this meat in Solingen where the meat is declared to be very palatable. We heard of a servant-maid here who exclaimed one day to her mistress, "Can't we have some horse-meat one day for dinner?"

There have always been struggles concerning wages at Solingen and not infrequently they have been of a very violent nature. The Chambers of Commerce have assisted in settling disputes of all kinds. In 1903 two confederations were organised, the federation for the protection of the economic interests of the industry of Solingen, and a confederation of the employers of the district of Solingen.

Their object is to effect a good understanding between employers and workmen and to mediate in case of disputes. Amongst the workmen of the different branches of the industry there are a number of Unions and the Central Committee is very active. The organisation of workmen in Solingen has made great progress.

## DÜSSELDORF.

Düsseldorf, the City of Art and the "Garden City" on the Rhine is surrounded by industry. The factories are all outside the city, most of them being in the east and south-east. Its population increases steadily. In March 1904 there were 236,807 inhabitants; by March of this year (1905) there were 244,499, and now there are 252,600. There has been an increase of 20,000 since 1903. Twenty years ago the population numbered only 110,000.

We devoted our time here to visiting the well-known works of Messrs. Haniel & Lueg, who readily gave us permission to visit their works; we also inspected some workmen's dwelling houses in the town as well as some erected by a Building Society; and we were shown over the Municipal Slaughter Yard and a Municipal 'Poor House' for aged and indigent persons.

The chief industries of this district are Iron and Steel Foundries, the manufacture of all kinds of plates, ship-engines and locomotives, tyres for wheels, pipes of all kinds, wire, boilers, bridges, cannons, mining-plant, pumps, cranes, rollers, gas-motor engines, electric-motors, etc.

The works of Messrs. Haniel & Lueg are fully up-to-date in regard to labour, machinery and comforts for the men. Herr

Geheimrath Lueg's son took us round the works. The Firm pays good wages and is particularly generous; but is strict. The relations between employers and employed seem to be exemplary, and difficulties never arise.

There is no question in this district of want of employment so far as the heavy industry is concerned and this Firm finds a great difficulty in getting men just now. But Düsseldorf being a large and rich city, there is bound to be a certain amount of difficulty here to obtain work amongst the unskilled day labourers, and rent and provisions are dear here.

The lavatories and baths provided by Messrs. Haniel & Lueg for all departments of their works are models of comfort as are also all the other institutions they provide for their men. At the baths soap and towels are provided—all gratis—bath included. The men are compelled to make use of the lavatories in order to clean themselves after work; but the use of the mess room is left to them to take or leave as they like.

All the work done here is special work, hence good wages are given and the Firm expects to have good hands. The directors act on the principle—"Good work, good money."

The men here are supplied with coffee gratis in summer, especially the furnace men on hot days.

In the forging department we saw the big steam hydraulic press at work—2,500 tons—the Firm's own patent. Two of these presses are now working at Sheffield and one at Birmingham. The Firm also supplies a good deal of mining plant to England.

Whilst going round we put the question—How many men absented themselves in the works the day after the Christmas holidays? Special enquiry was made in one of the foundry departments with the result that we learnt that out of the 107 men employed in this department only five were absent, but they put in an appearance in the afternoon declaring that they were late on account of having been away some distance from Düsseldorf.

Although things are not done here on so large a scale as at Bochum, there is no doubt that everything in the way of machinery and fittings is quite up-to-date—every machine is electrically driven. The Firm does big heavy work—machinery, gas motors, material for ship-building and mining, shafts, cranks, etc. The workpeople are of a smart, good, hard-working type, as good as we have seen anywhere in Germany so far. To speak of want of food in connection with them would be an absurdity!

As regards wages, the boys receive 9d. per day to commence with as apprentices and their wages rise gradually. They are subject to the same rules in regard to attendance at the Continuation Schools as elsewhere. Moulders receive from 4/- to 7/-, 8/- and 10/-, and

even up to 12/- doing piece work. Their wages are good. The average day wage earned is 4/6 in the works. In the Forging Department a whole gang works together, the Firm supplying the foreman. The first man earns from 10/- to 11/- per day, the others at the rate of 40pf., about  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d per hour, together with from 15 to 20 per cent for piece work. At the lathes, quite a number earn 55pf. ( $6\frac{1}{2}$ d.) per hour. This is heavy labour which is paid accordingly, and if the men work through, the time is counted as 12 hours, so that they earn from 7.50 to 7.80 marks ( $7\frac{1}{4}$  to  $7\frac{3}{4}$ .)

If a man spoils his piece he does not lose his wages—he gets the wages but not the extra addition; only, if he spoils his piece two or three times it is inferred that he must be incapable, and he is therefore removed. But he is fined, if he spoils the piece out of wilful malice.

It is the principle of the Firm never to lower wages, but always to keep them at the same level, not raising and dropping them according to the amount of work in hand. Wages are now higher than six months ago. For the last ten years wages have been continually rising.

Amongst the beneficent arrangements for the workmen there is a plan for granting gratuities after a certain number of years. For example, a book is supplied to each man after ten years' service, containing an entry of a gratuity, and this gratuity is repeated on the expiration of every succeeding five years. After twenty-five years the last donation amounts to £5. They are not allowed to withdraw any part of this money unless they leave the Firm, when it is paid out together with the interest. The interest given is five per cent.

The men are also allowed to make deposits in a Savings Bank kept by the Firm and are given five per cent up to £50 after which four per cent. If they subscribe regularly every month, they get a premium at the end of the year. Absolute secrecy is observed concerning the deposits in the bank. Certainly the Savings Bank is appreciated, for in 1904 there were 449 depositors as against 143 in 1894. The total amount deposited is 182,225.86 Mks., equal to £8,900.

The hours of work are from 6.30 a.m. to noon with a pause of a quarter of an hour for coffee from 8.15 to 8.30; and from 1.30 p.m. to 6.30 p.m. with a similar pause from 4.15 p.m. to 4.30 p.m.

The Firm has no Board of Arbitration, as they want none; but six men are elected in connection with the Sick Fund to examine into applications concerning sickness and their advice is sometimes taken in squaring differences between the Firm and the men.

A garden is kept in order for the men in the summer where they can take their dinner in the open air and have their wives and

children to sit with them. Not a flower is picked, nor the slightest damage done.

The Firm supplies a bicycle shed for the men to stand their bicycles in during working hours, and no charge is made for this, but, of course, there is no responsibility taken by the Firm. As a matter of fact the bicycles are quite safe there.

We hear a good many complaints about German food amongst Englishmen. People always judge in these matters from habit and prejudice. In going through the erecting shops we were told that the Firm sometimes sends an erector over to England to erect a machine. The German workmen do not like English food as a rule. They like neither the whisky nor the beer, and on their return from England they declare that the food with us has upset their stomachs. One of them said to us "The English take a great piece of beef and roast it to-day and take some pieces off it and then they roast it again to-morrow and take some other pieces off it. I don't like this." On the other hand, an Englishman does not like the constant use of boiled beef. i.e. beef from which soup has been made; but it is a favourite repast for Germans.

Beer is allowed to be taken at the canteen—not more than two lasses—at 5 pf., equal to about  $\frac{1}{4}$ ths of a penny.

In the mess room, which is a very good one, 300 workmen can dine; and there is a dinner-warmer for those who bring their dinner with them. A library is also provided for the use of the men. It contains 3,000 volumes, which cost about £500. On Saturdays, at 6-30 p.m., new books can be taken out. About 300 persons use the library, and there are about 90 changes of books every week.

The Municipal Slaughtering Yard or Abattoir is built outside the precincts of the city on land which some twenty years ago was under cultivation forming part of a country commune. Nearly all the cattle imported here comes from Denmark. When we were there we saw some Danish beasts looking very miserable. They had only just come, after passing through a fortnight's quarantine on the frontier. No live cattle come from Holland as the frontier is closed in the interests of German farmers. Slaughtered beasts, in halves, are imported but only after stringent inspection. The duty on imported meat is  $\frac{7}{6}$  per 110 English lbs., i.e. about  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb.

The price of meat is high in Düsseldorf as well as elsewhere in Germany. But there is a department on the premises of the slaughtering yard called the "Freibank" or "Free bench" which is of interest. Meat of inferior quality, not sold in the Market is here sold to the very poor. It is perfectly sound meat that has been examined by the Municipal Meat Examiner. This so-called free bench is an institution founded by the city.\* Beef here is now

\* There is a "Free Bench" in other towns also.

obtainable at  $5\frac{1}{3}$ d., veal at 3d., pork at  $5\frac{1}{3}$ d. Quantities not exceeding  $6\frac{3}{4}$  lbs. can be purchased; but not by any dealer, only by poor people. This sort of meat was formerly purchased at the butcher's, and the people had then to pay higher prices for it.

The prices of good meat at Düsseldorf are now

Beef	...	$7\frac{1}{3}$ d.	} per English lb.
Pork	... 1s.	$0\frac{1}{2}$ d.	
Veal	...	$10\frac{1}{2}$ d.	
Mutton	...	$7\frac{1}{3}$ d.	

In all cases the price is from  $2\frac{1}{3}$ d.— $2\frac{7}{8}$ d. higher than this time last year.

Beasts may only be slaughtered by the butchers, their owners, at the slaughter house. Every effort is made to avoid torturing the animals, all of which, except those slaughtered according to semitic rite, are killed in a painless manner. A 'mask' is affixed to the head over the eyes and a cartridge, which is then driven into the brain, explodes, causing immediate death.

Thirty-five certificated officials are constantly employed here to examine the meat to see if it is free from trichinosis.

We saw here a number of slaughtered horses. Two thousand horses per annum are slaughtered for food in Düsseldorf. The cost of the meat is from 35 pf. to 45 pf. per lb, i.e.,  $3\frac{3}{8}$ d. to 5d. per English lb. Fillets of horse cost 60 pf. i.e. about  $6\frac{3}{4}$ d. per English lb. Tripe is sold here at  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d. per English lb.

From 75—80,000 pigs are killed at Düsseldorf in a year—about 1,500 per week.

At the Poor House or rather the house for tending the poor which was opened in 1892, we saw an institution erected by the Municipality for tending those who are absolutely destitute, most of whom would inevitably perish but for the asylum afforded them. It is not a Workhouse in the English sense, but each inmate has to do some work according to his or her abilities. The sexes are separated, but man and wife, if orderly, can see one another.

Those only who besides being indigent have absolutely no relatives and stand alone in the world and are homeless are admitted here. The home has a good influence, for sometimes really bad characters and drunkards come in and become reformed through the influence of the place. The Home is administered by Franciscan Sisters from Aachen; but it is undenominational, men, women and children being admitted regardless of creed. Children are taken in here, many of them epileptic, and babies also—foundlings or infants that their mothers cannot support. Each inmate costs the Municipality 84 pfennige,  $9\frac{7}{8}$ d., i.e., almost 10d. per day. They receive meat three times a day, i.e., a regular dinner with soup, meat and vegetables and potatoes; and in the morning and evening for lunch

and supper sausage meat made on the premises or slices of meat with their bread and coffee. The institution keeps its own pigs and grows its own vegetables and has its own cows for milk. It also bakes its own bread. There are 700 men, women and children taken care of here. The sisters are paid 5/- a month as clothes money, otherwise nothing more.

The number of unemployed in Düsseldorf at the present time is small; but three years ago the Municipality had to find relief work in the streets, etc., for them. "We have had to deal with the unemployed," remarked a Düsseldorfer who was with us, "under Protection as well as under Free Trade."

In Düsseldorf we were able to compare some of the worst type of workmen's dwellings situated in the town with those built by the "Düsseldorfer Spar und Bau Verein," a Building Society to which working-men belong as shareholders. Rents in this city are high. The flats we were taken to by a very intelligent member of the Trades Unions, (Gewerkschaften), their delegate in Düsseldorf, were not remarkable for comfort. Our guide himself occupied a couple of attic rooms together with his sister, who is too delicate to work, which were miserable to behold. He paid, it is true, only 12/9 a month for them—£7 13s. per year. The average rent of flats in Düsseldorf for working men is calculated at 10/-, 11/-, and 12/- per month per room, i.e. £6 to £7 4s. per room per annum.

Another flat to which we were taken was that of a former angle-iron smith who had previously earned 10/- a day. Having overstrained himself he got heart disease and is now occupied with sponges. He manages to put together about 20/- per week only. There are eight families in the old house where he lives with his wife and four children; one closet is used by five families. They have two rooms and a mansard (attic) room; and pay £12 a year.

In one case we found that a tenant let one of her rooms, into which she had placed three beds with some difficulty, to three workmen at 2/- per week per bed. It was a wretchedly furnished room.

The Building Society mentioned above, numbers 700 members. It has a capital of 180,000 Mks. (£8,823) composed of shares and deposits, of which workpeople own to the value of 130,000 Mks. (£6,372). It was founded some six years ago, and since then 39 houses have been built, containing 274 dwellings, 100 of which have three rooms, and 161 two rooms. Each dwelling has further a cellar and an attic room for drying linen. The total cost of these 29 houses was Mks. 1,653,178 (£80,917), upon which the National Insurance Society for the Rhine Province (Landes-Versicherungs Anstalt Rhein-Provinz) advanced Mks. 1,250,000 (£61,185) on mortgages. The Society still has land for building purposes valued at £6,811.

The rents of these houses are high, viz.:—27/- per month for a three-roomed flat, and 18/- for a two-roomed flat; but, as above stated, these rents are lower than in the town. Each flat has a scullery and a balcony, and the houses are exceedingly well-built, comfortable-looking, and attractive for town dwellings.

(Signed) H. BEILBY.  
J. MANN.  
H. CALVERT.  
G. PROCTOR.  
G. W. BROWN.  
T. W. MOTTERSHALL.

## REPORT VI.

### COLOGNE.

It was pointed out by us in our last report that the prosperity of the last twenty years of German Industry has been running parallel with protective duties. Wages have also risen; and the tendency of the day is that they will rise still higher. This, indeed may be taken as certain. Germany is becoming well-to-do, and whilst the richer Germans spend much more money than in former times, the same inclination to spend money obtains amongst the working classes, who are determined to assert their claims to a greater share in the modern luxuries of life and are organising more and more in order to be able to carry their point.

Germany's general exports have steadily increased during the past decade, and so have her exports to the United Kingdom and the British Colonies. It is noteworthy, too, as pointed out in the last report of the British Consul-General at Frankfort-on-Maine that "the progress of German export chiefly extends to such goods for the manufacture of which particular skill, taste or knowledge is required, and which therefore presupposes a class of qualified workmen."

In this connection it may be well to refer to some interesting remarks made in a public speech by the German economist, Professor Schmoller, on April 21st, 1879, when Prince Bismarck introduced his new Fiscal Policy of Protectionism and threw Free Trade overboard. He said—"I do not think that absolutely free competition exercises a beneficial effect everywhere; I think that everywhere where the pressure of competition is felt beyond a certain point it creates more harm than blessing; I think that the free and unimpeded struggle of interests often has the effect of exploiting and destroying the weak. Our great jurist Ibering is, in my opinion, right when he laughs at the theory of absolute Free Trade in the following words—'It is quite natural that wolves



clamour for freedom ; but when sheep do so they simply show that they are sheep.' . . . Sure and certain progress has always been found where the right moment was seized for being in favour of Free Trade or of Protection. This is why we have always seen that a temporary change of Fiscal system in England, France, or North America has acted beneficially, although bitterly complained of at the time by doctrinaires and the opposite Party. Prussia was not always in favour of Free Trade during the 19th Century."

When Prussia adopted protective duties in 1818 it was stated in the Act of Parliament that this was done in order to give native industry an advantage over that of foreign countries. On looking back to the history of Prussian and German Fiscal Policy during the last Century, we find that from 1818-1833 there was a policy of Protection ; that immediately afterwards and up to 1842 there was a tendency to Free Trade and to a diminution of duties ; whilst after 1842 protectionism was revived, and then from 1870 to 1873 Free Trade again asserted itself both in theory and practice.

Professor Schmoller submits that these changes from one system to another were not due to a mere love for change or to the whim of some particular minister, but to internal necessary causes. He says that from 1818-33 it was necessary owing to the pressure of bad times, to raise a certain number of duties, e.g., those on iron goods, cotton and worsted yarns, silk goods, wall-papers, porcelain, fine leather goods, grain, cattle, hops, etc.

When in 1833 some important duties were lowered at the invitation of Saxony and South Germany, it was submitted that the Prussian Government was seriously alarmed as to the probable results. Then came a period of prosperity in the thirties and duties were again lowered. This was followed by a period of depression, and from 1842 to 1855, the King, the Finance Minister, the Council for Trade and the other Ministers became Protectionists. Some fresh duties were introduced and other existing ones raised. From 1836 on, England's competition was so severely felt that public opinion demanded these changes. "And the change undoubtedly had a good effect" says Schmoller. "The majority of the industries that were hard pressed from 1840-45 recovered under Protection, flourished again, trained better workmen and collected fresh capital. Germany's most important export industries showed a much higher percentage of exports under the old Tariff from 1850-1860 than under the Liberal Tariff from 1860-1870."

The Professor then asserted that English competitors dumped their goods on to the German market, and that none of the nations with which Germany competed were willing to make any concession to Germany's export industry. "For we have nothing more to offer" he said ; and continued lower down :—"Our factory laws and their successive amendments are impossible under complete Free

Trade. Absolute Free Trade involves extreme pressure on wages, speculation and starvation wages."

Professor Schmoller concluded his address with the words :—" I am convinced that many of to-day's bitterest opponents will say thirteen years hence that Bismarck was right in 1879 to commence a new national commercial policy just as he was right from 1862-66 with his policy with which he commenced to found the German Empire."

Certainly when he re-introduced higher customs duties Bismarck had the support of the iron industry, or rather he acted in conformity with the wishes of that industry. And it has been openly admitted to us that in the beginning of the iron industry in Germany the duties most certainly assisted it because England could then produce cheaper than Germany. England, moreover, it is further admitted here, can still produce cheaper than Germany because the iron and the coal of England are close together whereas a large quantity of the ore used by Germany comes from Spain and Sweden. In Rhineland they are not together ; in Westphalia and Upper Silesia only to a small extent.

Of course the case as represented by the Prussian economist, Professor Schmoller, is not endorsed by the party of the people in Germany. They declare emphatically that the result of the very *high* German Tariff on food-stuffs is to make living dearer for them, and that the general tariff interferes with the competition of German industry with foreign countries. They submit that the majority of the working classes in Germany are Free Traders. How far their views can be made to tally with our descriptions of what we have actually seen we must leave to the judgment of our readers

The subjoined summary concerning the metal industry of Germany is given by Mr. Consul-General Oppenheimer of Frankfort-on-Main :—

Value in 1,000,000 Mks. £49,020.

Articles.	1903.	1900.	1896.	1892.
	Mks.	Mks.	Mks.	Mks.
Metal and metal goods.				
Iron and iron goods.....	634.4	479.6	337.5	234.4
Of which				
Pig iron.....	23.9	10.2	7.7	9.7
Angle iron.....	39.6	30.8	18.6	9.7
Rails .....	34.5	19.6	12.4	10.2
Bar iron .....	35.2	25.4	28.7	21.4
Plates and sheets, raw.....	31.6	27.7	17.5	9.7
Iron wire, raw .....	18.9	15.0	13.5	12.5
Iron wire coated with copper.....	13.0	14.8	14.0	13.0
Coarse iron goods .....	172.0	129.1	94.5	60.9
Fine iron goods.....	88.5	71.1	36.8	27.4
Locomotives, locomobiles .....	24.3	15.7	13.0	5.4

Machines and parts thereof .....	168.4	186.2	87.0	49.0
Copper and copper goods .....	156.4	137.4	88.7	56.2
Of which				
Telegraph cable .....	25.2	20.0	9.1	1.9
Fine copper wire.....	9.0	5.0	1.8	10.0
Fine brass goods.....	29.0	28.1	18.0	.6
Nickelled brass goods.....	11.9	10.4	7.8	6.6
Wire and fine goods .....	42.4	33.9	29.1	32.9
Tin and tinware .....	12.7	11.3	5.2	4.4

Cologne, which, now that it has incorporated some of the neighbouring towns, has a population of over 425,000 inhabitants, is the most important city in the Rhine Province. It has greatly increased both in size and wealth.

We were enabled through the courteous assistance of Herr Paul Steller, Secretary of the Association of Manufacturers of the Government District of Cologne, to visit the following typical factories in and around Cologne:—the Gas Motoren Fabrik Deutz (Deutz Gas Engine Works) at Cologne—Deutz; Messrs. J. J. Langen & Sons' Sugar Factory in Cologne; the Kölnische Maschinenbau Aktien Gesellschaft (the Cologne Engine Works); Messrs. J. W. Zanders' Paper Factory at Bergisch-Gladbach; the Maschinenbau Anstalt Humboldt (Humboldt Engineering Works, Limited) at Kalk; and the Chocolate Factory of Messrs. Stollwerck at Cologne.

There is no doubt that the conditions of existence of the working men in these factories and in the Cologne district generally are favourable. It cannot be said that the municipality is troubled here with an "Unemployed" question on a large scale.

But there exists in Cologne a municipal fund for insuring work-people against want of employment in winter. The subjoined details connected with it cannot fail to be interesting. The administrators of the fund work in connection with the General Labour Bureau trying thereby in the first instance to secure employment for their clients; and, failing this, the insured receive allowances for those days on which they were out of work. The period during which these allowances are given extends from December 1st to the following March 1st; and it must be shown that the men seeking assistance have not been placed out of work through any wilful fault of their own.

Contributors to the fund are private persons interested in the scheme; workmen who insure; the municipality of Cologne; employers of labour; associations, etc. According to the conditions of membership any workman of 18 years of age and upwards can join, provided he have resided at least one year within the bounds of the city and be not permanently incapable of work. Those who within the year have been away on military service and have con-

sequently only actually resided in the city for six months are admitted as members. The Fund is not intended for those who have no regular occupation. Application for membership cannot be entertained after the first Friday in June, but contributions date from April 1st. Every member is required to pay 34 weekly contributions, viz.:—unskilled workmen pay 35 pfennige (4 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.) per week; skilled workmen 45 pfennige (5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.). No member is allowed to be more than four weeks in arrears, otherwise he forfeits all rights, unless it can be shown to the satisfaction of the committee that his non-payment was not due to his own fault.

Every workman thus insured is entitled if without work during the period from December 1st to the following March 1st, to an allowance from the fund in so far and for so long as work is not assigned to him; but he must give satisfactory proof that he is not out of work wilfully. Those in receipt of an allowance must report themselves, if required, twice a day at the office of the fund. If work be obtained for a workman conformable to his calling and to the rate of wages he is accustomed to work for, he must take it; but he is not obliged to fill a vacancy caused by a strike. Unmarried men who have no relatives dependent upon them must accept work outside Cologne if it be offered them; and a return ticket to the place of work is paid for.

The allowance is paid to the insured from the third day after they have reported themselves as out of work, and it is continued for a period not exceeding eight weeks. The allowance amounts for the first 20 days to 2/- per day, and for the remainder of the time to 1/- per day. Payments are made on Saturdays. Members are not given an allowance if they are out of work on account of sickness or what is called by the German law 'infirmity' (as they would under such conditions receive the legal aid from the State Funds), or if they are out of work in consequence of a strike or through any wilful fault of their own.

The fund is administered by a Committee consisting of the Ober-Bürgermeister of Cologne or a deputy appointed by him; the chairman pro. tem. of the General Labour Bureau of Cologne; 24 subscribers to the fund—namely 12 of the insured workmen and 12 non-members, half of the latter being employers and the other half persons elected at a special meeting of the patrons of the fund. The Committee elects its own officers for the management of its business.

In the report for the year ending 31st March, 1905, we read that the fund amounted to Mks. 115,648 (£5,670) on that date, as against Mks. 113,670 (£5,560) in the previous year. The demands on the fund during the winter amounted to double the sum received in contributions from the workmen which was only £1030; but it was possible to meet them as the town again contributed £1,000, and

there were a number of private subscriptions so that the balance to the credit of the fund on March 31st was £100 more than in the preceding year. The amount distributed was £2,100 for 25,034 days.

In the past year—1904-5—there were 1717 workmen subscribers as compared with 1624 in the preceding year; of these, 1271 were out of employment during part of the winter through no fault of their own (1164 in the preceding year), and received either work or allowances through the administrators of the fund.\*

The age of insured workmen varied from 18 to 70; the largest number was amongst those whose age ranged from 21-30, viz. : 518; and there were 514 amongst whose ages range from 31-40; 319 from those whose ages range from 41-50; and 201 amongst those whose ages range from 51-60. Of the 1717 above-mentioned, 488 were unskilled and 1229 skilled workmen, all of the latter being citizens. Of the 1271 'non-employed,' 1203 received day allowances, viz. :—319 unskilled workmen (total paid £547—an average for each man of 34/3); 884 skilled workmen (total £1,552—an average for each man of about 35/1), the sums received varying from 5/- to 67/8.

At the 'GAS MOTOREN FABRIK AT DEUTZ,' on the opposite side of the Rhine (Deutz Gas Engine Works), where 2,600 hands are employed, the hours of work are ten, viz. :—from 7 a.m. to 6-30 p.m., with quarter of an hour's pause for coffee at 8 a.m. and at 3-45 p.m., and one hour for dinner, from 12 to 1 o'clock. On Saturdays work ceases at 5 p.m, so that the week's hours are fifty-nine.

In the fitting and erecting shops the piece-work system of payment is established, the scale being such that the men can earn from 50 to 60 pfennige (5½d. to 7d.) per hour. Whilst the job lasts the men are paid provisional wages ranging from 34 to 40 pfennige (4d. to 4¾d.); and when the job is over they balance up. The men can thus earn from 5/- to 6/- per day. They are smart and steady workers. Perfect fairness seems to prevail between employers and employed here.

The pattern stores were full. In the brass foundry the men received 7d. per hour roughly 6/- per day, the minimum being 5/-. In the lathe room, where the work is done by a less skilled type of men, the wages run at 5¼d. per hour. At the heavy lathes the men get from 6½d. to 7¾d. per hour, roughly 5/6 to 6/6 per day. The same rate is paid for over time, but for night work they get time and

\* According to the report for April 1st, 1905—March 31st, 1906, it appears that owing to the mildness of last winter there was an exceptional demand for labour in the building trade. The number of insured was less—485 unskilled and 1125 skilled workmen—total 1610 (in the preceding year 1717); but the contributions amounted to £1062. The amount distributed was £1160 for 13,414 days. It is interesting to note that at the General Meeting a workman proposed an amendment to one of the rules, the object of which was to prevent malingering. It was proposed that if a workman has received in two successive years ½ths or more of the total allowance that can be granted there shall be a diminution made in it next year. Opposition was raised to this proposal on the ground that the Committee already had sufficient powers for preventing malingering.

a quarter. There is so much to do just now in this shop that work has to go on till 8 o'clock and even to midnight on Saturdays. A turner's wage was from 5/- to 6/- and 6/6 per day. A foreman at these Works earns from £10 15s. to £12 5s. per month; a leading hand from 6/6 to 7/- per day.

Apprentices serve from 14 to 16 for three years and receive 6 pfennige, 8 pfennige and 10 pfennige i.e.  $\frac{3}{4}$ d., 1d. and  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d., per hour respectively for the three years. They attend the evening classes in the Municipal Continuation School for six hours in the week. We noted with interest that 10 per cent. of their pay is deducted during their apprenticeship which is returned to them in a lump sum when they start as journeymen. They are encouraged to go away as journeymen in order to get fresh ideas, on the principle that it is bad to be always hanging on at the mother's apron. On the other hand they are readily taken back again by the Firm after having been away for a while.

Special precautions are taken all over the works for cases of accident. For example we noted that there was an ambulance room in every shop. The dry grinding machines are provided with metal pipes for carrying away the dust caused by the grinding.

The lavatories are arranged on an ingenious and very convenient principle; and the men can have a good wash and use their own towels.

We learnt that the employees, as a rule, stop a long time with the Firm; and that a great many of them have been twenty-five years in its service.

There is a Pension Fund inaugurated by the Firm, for the men over and above the State Pension Fund, and also a fund for giving support to the employees during sickness or when in special want of aid. These are free gifts from the Firm. A Committee of the men go into every application for aid and decide whether the case merits support. This is done in order to eliminate those who simulate sickness or distress, and to do away with any risk of reckless benevolence.

We put the question, as we have continually done elsewhere, whether the men in any way lost their independence of action in consequence of the various benevolent funds and institutions founded by this and other large firms for the general welfare of their men. The answer was in the negative; but with the pertinent addition:—“Can you tell us who is independent in life?” The Firm of course wants to have a good set of men in its service. If in seeking to attain that end they offer favourable conditions of labour, why, suggested our interlocutor, should it be inferred that the men thereby lose their independence? They are not forced to accept service with the Firm, and can leave at any time they like, mean-

while enjoying any privileges or conveniences accorded by the Firm to all those in its employ.

In the small motor erecting shop from 180 to 200 machines are made per month. In the erection department everything is electrically driven. There is a low percentage of lads as compared with men.

Our attention was specially drawn to the baths supplied by the Firm which were erected last year. They are indeed luxurious; there are appliances in special rooms for ordinary and electric massage; and in a separate room there is even an electric bath which can be used by the men for 1/-, the officials of the firm having to pay double that sum. The price of a shower bath is 2½d.; for a full bath, if a single ticket is taken, 3d., but if twelve tickets are taken, the charge per bath comes to 2d. These prices include soap and towels. The baths are for the use of the employees of the Firm and their families, and there is a special department for women. On Saturday nights from 300 to 400 men use the baths as a rule.

The mess-room is very well fitted and is very comfortable. It is so arranged that it can be turned into a skittle-alley for the men's use. There is a wash-up place where the women can clean the plates, etc., on which they bring the food for their husbands; and provision is also made for keeping the food warm. As a rule from 100—120 men dine in the mess-room. Beer can be obtained on the premises for 1½d. per bottle. Two bottles are allowed at a time.

Some very instructive remarks were made to us about the tools used by the firm. They are almost all American make; and only a few have come from England. Our informant added:—"If I want a lathe or a milling machine, I buy one made in Germany; if I want a turret lathe I go to America for it on account of its handiness and efficiency." "I don't doubt," he said significantly, "that they can make such machinery in England; I wish they would. It may be prejudice on my part if I say they are not in a position to do so." We replied that they could be made as well in England.

What we were then told should be noted at home. It was that English tool-makers do not send their agents here to call and push their trade; whereas the Americans show enterprise and make calls two or three times a year. "We want," said our interlocutor "to see things on our table in the office; the English wait till the buyer comes to them. The consequence now-a-days is obvious. It is the business of the seller to make the buyer's mouth water by the sight of his goods by bringing them to him. We can't go to the seller. Since I have been here I have not seen a single English agent on the premises."

It was pointed out to us that some stress had been laid last

October in an article on "Technical Education in Germany" in the FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW, on this very point and that exception was taken by "ENGINEERING" in a leading article to the words used. It is no wonder, in our judgment, that the writer, who simply gave the view prevailing on the subject in Germany, said (we cite from the article which is before us) "the superiority of the former (modern German or American machine-shops) is generally acknowledged in every kind of equipment as regards tools, cranes and other facilities." The Englishman frequently allows himself, as we have more than once noticed here, to be ousted by his rivals.

IN MESSRS J. J. LANGEN & SONS FACTORY we saw one of the best-known SUGAR REFINERIES in Germany. This Firm takes a great interest in the welfare of its employees. The Directors have thought out a scheme for encouraging punctuality which is a pleasant change for the workpeople who are more accustomed to having to pay fines for unpunctuality. Every employee, man or girl, who has worked a regular week, receives an addition to the weekly pay, the men 3/-, the girls 1/—paid in cash. Thus—say a man has 26/- a week wages; if he has worked regularly he receives 26/-, plus 3/-,—29/. This plan was instituted in 1873. We noticed that on the day of our visit, the check of every man and girl was in its place! The Firm also has its own Sick Fund from which every employee detained by sickness receives a gratuity of 2/-, a day. There is also a Widows' and Orphans' Fund from which a widow receives, on the death of the husband a sum equivalent to thirty times the daily earnings of her husband, as what is called "burial money."

The hours of work are from 7 a.m. to noon, and from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m., with pauses of a quarter of an hour for coffee at 9 a.m. and 3-45 p.m. The coffee is supplied gratis, and costs the Firm about £100 a year. It is made from coffee that costs just over 1/2. per lb.

Each employee receives a New Year's gift varying in amount according to the duration of his or her service. No men under 17 and no girls under 16 are employed in the factory.

The Firm has built twelve houses at Nippes a suburb in the North of Cologne for those of their people who wish to live out in the country in better dwellings than are to be obtained in Cologne. The dwellings consist of three rooms, a closet, a cellar, a mansard (attic), a garden, and a poultry house for which they pay a rent of about 4/- a week, roughly £10 4s. per annum. Each dwelling is self-contained the houses being semi-detached. In Cologne the rent for a two-room flat is about 22/- a month or £23 per annum. The houses have never been much sought after because the Kölner prefers to live in the city despite the tight-fitting and dingy, dear flats, containing say two rooms only, in order that he may be nearer to the seat of pleasure. This is even truer of the women here who are more addicted to pleasure than the men.



Those who live there, however, are satisfied. The houses were built in 1891. They were originally intended solely for the use of persons in the service of the Firm. The other day, however, a foreman gave up his dwelling; and as nobody applied for it, the Firm had to let it to a stranger. But the fact that the foreman left his dwelling did not affect his position in the factory. We mention this because efforts are made from certain quarters to show that the workpeople who inhabit dwellings built by the Firm they serve thereby lose their independence. There is, however, no sufficient evidence to justify this assumption.

There are fifty men and five women who have been longer than 25 years in the service of the Firm; two of these men have been here for over forty years. Each man after having worked twenty-five years in the factory receives a Savings Bank Book with a deposit of £15 inscribed in it, and each girl a book with a £10 deposit. No married woman is employed by the Firm unless, by way of exception, it happens to be a woman who is obliged to support her good-for-nothing husband! In such a case the woman is not rejected when she applies for work.

As just said, the women here are not so reliable as the men, being fond of pleasure. On Mondays the men are always up to time; whilst as a rule about 10 per cent of the women are absent from work on that day. After the carnival festivities of Shrove Tuesday there are generally from 15 to 20 girls absent. About 160 men and 80 girls are employed in the factory.

For those who dine on the premises there are food-warmers and the Firm sends a cart daily to Nippes to fetch the dinner of those who live there in the Firm's houses.

Although rent is high in Cologne provisions are fairly cheap. The Firm buys large supplies of coals and potatoes which are sold to the employees at cost price; the amount is deducted from the wages in small weekly instalments.

In consequence of the terms of the Brussels Convention this Firm has had no trade relations with England since July, 1903, although England has a consumption of 70 per cent of sugar per head as against Germany's 30 per cent. Germany can only consume  $\frac{2}{3}$ ths of her produce in sugar and is therefore bound to export  $\frac{1}{3}$ ths.

At the COLOGNE ENGINE WORKS CO. (KÖLNISCHE MASCHINENBAU-ACTIEN-GESELLSCHAFT) at Köln-Bayenthal the average wage is 53 pfennige equal to  $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. The average sum earned by ordinary workers is  $3\frac{1}{6}$  and a little that can be earned in addition making nearly 4/- per day. Skilled men earn here on an average  $4\frac{1}{6}$ , 5/-,  $5\frac{1}{6}$  and up to 7/-, according to their capacities. On the whole the men are fairly thrifty. In this sense they differ a good

deal from those employed in the town. Köln-Bayenthal is a suburb which is almost in the country. The employees are mostly country people living a short distance from the works in the villages where they have for the most part their own house and a piece of land which is also in general their own. Some indeed live in villages a couple of hours distant. The apprentices here receive 7d., 10d., 1/- and up to 1/4½ respectively per day.

Fifty years ago, when the Firm was first founded the machines used to come from England; now they are made here in Germany.

The Firm does business with France which country imposes a duty of 14 francs on machinery, whilst Russia imposes one of 41/-, and Austria-Hungary of 24/-. England pays 3/- and up to 8/- duty per 100 Kilogs (220 English lbs.) for machines sent to Germany.\*

In the course of an interesting conversation we had at Köln-Bayenthal we were assured by a competent person engaged in the business that there was no doubt that the German Iron Industry was greatly assisted in the early days of its development by the duties levied on this side because England was then able to produce much cheaper than Germany and Germany in those days could only produce very little. England, it was added, can still produce cheaper than Germany because the iron and the coal are close together, hence Germany must still protect her iron industry. In Germany a good deal of the iron ore comes from Spain and Sweden; it is seldom that coal and iron lie together in Germany. In Rhineland they are not together; in Westphalia only to a small extent; and in Upper Siberia only to an extent that is small when compared with the total product.

At Bergisch-Gladbach we visited a PAPER MILL which was founded in 1580 and has been for the last hundred years in the possession of the same family. With great courtesy the proprietors MESSRS. J. W. ZANDERS, BROS. who are closely connected by friendship with English and Scotch Firms, conducted us over the mill.

Wages are paid here in paper bags on the 3rd and 18th of the month. The custom of paying in paper bags, to which we have

\* According to the new tariff the duty ranges from 3 Mks. (2/10¼) to 15 Mks. (14/7¼) according to weight—per 100 Kilogs (220 English lbs.) :—

				for 100 Kilogs. (220 Engl. lbs.)	
				... at 15 Mks. (14/7¼)	
For 40 Kilogs	(88lbs.) or less ...	...	...	...	...
For more than					
40 Kilogs	(88 lbs.) and up to	100 Kilogs	(220 lbs.) at	12 Mks.	(11/9)
100 "	(220 lbs.) "	200 "	(440 lbs.) "	10 Mks.	(9/9½)
200 "	(440 lbs.) "	400 "	(880 lbs.) "	9 Mks.	(8/9¾)
400 "	(880 lbs.) "	1,000 "	(2,200 lbs.) "	7 Mks.	(6/6¾)
1,000 "	(2,200 lbs.) "	5,000 "	(11,000 lbs.) "	5.50 Mks.	(5/4¾)
5,000 "	(11,000 lbs.) "	10,000 "	(22,000 lbs.) "	4.50 Mks.	(4/4¾)
10,000 "	(22,000 lbs.) ..	...	...	3 Mks.	(2/10¼)

already referred in a previous report, deserves attention. On the outside of the bag used in this mill the following is printed:—

Name.....		
Wages from.....to.....		
Sum earned.....		
.....		
Total...		
<u>To be deducted herefrom</u>		
Contribution to		
State Sick Fund.....		
„ Infirmity and		
Old Age Fund .....		
Received in advance.....		
Fines.....		
Total to be deducted...		
Balance...		
B. GLADBACH. Date.....		
Signature of Firm.		

By means of the use of these bags the men do not know how much has been deducted from the wages of their fellow-workmen.

At this mill also a very excellent bath-house is provided for the employees—male and female. Each bath taken costs the Firm about 2½d. No charge is made. About ten thousand baths are taken in the course of the year. The Firm employs about 650 men and 350 girls in the mill.

An unskilled workman receives here about 3/- a day; and a good machinist about 135/- per month. For hand-made paper in water the head man earns 5/- per day; the apprentices 1/6. The stokers are paid from 3/6 to 4/- per day; a foreman 120/- to 140/- per month. The workpeople at Messrs. Zanders' mill are chiefly recruited from the surrounding country villages. The agricultural labourer in these parts earns about 70/- per month.

All men here who are obliged to leave their work in order to serve the required time of military service are immediately afterwards taken back into the service of the Firm, if they so wish. There are

125 men in the employ of the Firm now who have been at the mill over twenty-five years; one of them has been in the service of the Firm for forty-two years. The problem of 'the unemployed' does not exist here; in fact there is a dearth of unskilled workmen.

The hours of work in the mill are  $10\frac{1}{2}$  per day, namely:—from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with pauses at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. of a quarter of an hour for coffee (girls and boys under sixteen years of age have half an hour), and an hour for dinner from 12 to 1 o'clock. There are two shifts.

The people can dine if they like in the excellent mess room provided by the proprietors, or can go home for dinner. The Firm sends a cart to the village to fetch the dinners of the men who live there. There are also coffee-rooms attached to every department of the mill; and cupboards are provided where the workpeople can hang up their clothes. Coffee is supplied for employees at  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per can (containing a little more than a pint); and the members of the Firm are considering whether milk shall be supplied with the coffee. All the sanitary arrangements in the mill are of the very best order and the other conditions under which the employees work—in regard to cleanliness, space and ventilation—are all that could be desired. We could not refrain from exclaiming that it would be impossible to work under better conditions. The mill which is a very fine one, looked as if there had just been spring-cleaning!

We were assured that England was far ahead in this branch thirty years ago, but that the best mills in Britain were now out of date as regards machinery, whilst they nevertheless still make a better quality of paper than can be manufactured in Germany. Formerly Germany learnt from England in this branch of industry also: Germany has now emancipated herself to a great extent from this subordination. But England with her high-skilled labour admittedly still commands the market.

In this mill thirty thousand kilograms, i.e., thirty tons, of paper were made per day at the time of our visit, and forty thousand could be produced per day, if necessary. The paper industry has considerably developed in Germany. We understood that Messrs. Zanders use 2 lbs. of coal to 1 lb. of paper.

In the sixties of last century this Firm used to buy its machinery in England—England being then still far ahead of Germany in the manufacture of machinery. Later on America went ahead. Good German paper machines are now made at Düren; in Württemberg; at Warmbrunn in Silesia; and in Saxony. A new machine that we saw here, made in Württemberg, is said to be much better than the American machines.

A great many of the workmen here own the houses they live in. The rent of the cottages, which contain five rooms, built by the Firm in the neighbourhood, is about £9 per annum.

Great care is taken by the Firm in the choice of its boys and girls. Married women are not employed. The Firm likes to take both the boys and girls as early as fourteen years of age, so as to secure them before they have had any other kind of work elsewhere. The girls employed in the mill receive instruction twice a week: there are fifteen girls in a class, and the instruction is given during work-hours.

We were informed that the conditions of life of the workpeople in this district had vastly improved of late years. Twenty years ago the people did not consume much meat: in fact nowhere in Germany did workingmen in those days eat much meat, and even now-a-days well-to-do farmers and their families rarely, if ever, purchase meat from the butcher, and consume nothing but what has been reared in their own farmyards. If they can get a good price for this they will forego meat food and eat farinaceous and vegetable food and sausages made from their own pigs.

When we were at Bergisch-Gladbach the price of beef was  $7\frac{3}{4}$ d. per English lb.; the price of pork  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. The loaf of rye bread weighing seven German lbs., i.e.  $7\frac{7}{8}$  English lbs. cost 7d. Accordingly a loaf of this bread weighing 4 English lbs. which we can compare with our Gainsborough quartern loaf would have cost  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. There is also a better sort of rye bread baked here, a loaf of which weighing five German lbs. costs about  $7\frac{3}{4}$ d. Four English lbs. of this bread would cost about  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d.

The Zanders family has been known in the Rhine district for generations for the interest it has shown in the welfare of its employees. The name of the mother of the present proprietors was in this regard a by-word up and down the banks of the Rhine. The present representatives of the family are following in her footsteps; and when we drove through the district after going over the mill we saw everywhere evidence of the interest taken by the Firm in the housing question.

THE MASCHINENBAU ANSTALT HUMBOLDT, HUMBOLDT ENGINEERING WORKS, Co., LTD.—At Kalk near Cologne, is another of those big establishments that we had the privilege of seeing. The connections of these works with the coal and ore industry, and especially with that of the Rhenish-Westphalian region, are well-known; and their fame is wide-spread throughout the world. They have had relations for many years with Australia, Japan, South Africa, South America, the South Wales Coal District, and Sheffield. The Firm gets its coal from England.

We were much struck by their splendid travelling crane in the erecting shop of 30,000 tons load with a span of 52' 6". It would occupy too much space to enumerate all the specialities of this Firm; but we may draw attention to a compound locomotive with four axles of the Mallet-Rimroth type for 1 meter gauge, supported on

two independent engine-frames, an engine which will easily run round curves of 60m. radius, designed for mountain railways with sharp curves ; also to slime concentrating plant with rotary percussion tables ; to Cornwall and tubular boilers ; to road bridges ; constructional iron-work for large buildings ; pit head frames (up to 82 tons) ; water purifiers, capacity 39,617 gallons per hour ; elevated reservoirs, 67,200 gallons capacity, height of framework 66ft. ; improved centrifugal pendulum mill and crushing rolls with emery grinders ; rotary picking table, carried on balls, with wooden foundation frame, placed on a platform ; new central ore dressing plant ; battery of fine coal-bunkers ; fine-coal washery, and specialities in complete mechanical arrangements for coal-cleaning ; complete ore-dressing plants ; reducing machinery ; machine castings ; engine cylinders ; Cornish and Lancashire boilers ; combination flue and tubular boilers ; water-tube boilers ; steam engines ; vertical engines ; steam turbines ; perforated plates, etc., etc.,—all made by this Firm.

The Firm always has suitable agents travelling in various foreign countries in order to open up fresh markets.

All the departments of the factory are connected with one another by rail and with the State Railway. During the last two years the works have been provided with modern machinery and they have been considerably enlarged. The greater number of locomotives built at these works were constructed to the order of the Prussian State Railways. The reputation of Humboldt's Works has developed pari passu with the development of German industry. In 1902 a fusion was effected with Messrs Siller and Dubois of Kalk.

The men seem to get along very well with their wages which are not so high as the average wages in England. The practice here is to pay by time and piece as is done with us at Gainsborough. The average wage is about 4/6 to 5/-, the amount going up to 10/- per day, with an addition for piece work. Boiler-makers can earn from 6/6 to 7/6, some up to 8/6 ; smiths 7/-, Boys receive 6d., 1/-, and 1/6 respectively for three years of apprenticeship. The men seem to have fairly regular habits. They do not spend much on drink ; and are encouraged to be thrifty.

Now there are nearly 3,500 hands employed here. An idea of the development of the Firm will be obtained from the subjoined statistics :—

In 1857 there were	16	men employed at the Works ;
„ 1872	650	„ „
„ 1875	1150	„ „
„ 1876	1400	„ „
„ 1902-03	1267	„ „
„ 1903-04	1392	„ „
„ 1904-05	2470	„ „
„ 1905-06	3450	„ „

Over £500 are spent by the Firm per day on wages and about £200 on salaries.

The Firm had so many orders on hand at the time of our visit that it hardly knew how to execute them. There is no question of lack of employment in Kalk either now or for some time to come. The number of orders has been steadily increasing the last few years. In 1903 they represented about £288,627; in 1904 £500,000; in 1905, £610,441. The orders for 1906 amount to over £700,000.

Contributions are given out of the net profits to the Firm's private fund for affording pecuniary assistance to sick and aged employees, and for bestowing gifts in money on officials and foremen in the service of the Firm. About £2,500 were given in 1903 for these purposes; £2,800 in 1904; and £3,750 in 1905. Besides these private gifts the Firm contributed to the State Funds for Workmen about £4,066 in 1902-3; £4,700 in 1903-4; £6,214 in 1904-5.

STOLLWERCK'S CHOCOLATE FACTORY was in many respects of great interest. There are 850 men employed here and 1,100 girls. We were invited to inspect the works and were taken also to a block of dwellings erected outside the city for the benefit of those employed by the Firm.

The hours of work are from 7 a.m. to 9-15 a.m. from 9-30 a.m. to 12-15 p.m., from 1-45 p.m. to 4-15 p.m. and from 4-30 p.m. to 7 p.m.—ten hours.

The wages of the men run from 3/6 to 4/-, 6/- and 8/- piece work and female work is paid at from 2/- to 3/6. A woman superintendent of a department gets 4/- to 5/-.

The girls come to the works at fifteen years of age and receive Savings Bank books after three years with 10/- registered in them; after five years this sum is increased to 20/-; and after ten years to £5.

The men receive 30/- after ten year's service and a medal; 40/- after fifteen year's service; 60/- after twenty year's service; and £12 10s. after twenty-five year's service together with a diploma and a medal and gifts.

Fifty per cent of the hands here have been in the service of the Firm for more than five years. The girls wear a special cotton dress with badges according to the number of years they have served with the Firm.

The girls who fold up the chocolate get at piece work about 2/- a day, rising to 2/6 and 3/-, and develop great manual skill. The wages are paid on the 4th and 19th of each month. One of the members of the Firm declared to us that in his opinion the payment of wages in England on Saturday afternoon spelt a loss of millions to the English working people.

Stollwerck's Firm has provided a splendid mess room for the employees, and the kitchen is admirably arranged. A dinner is supplied here to the employees at from 3½d. to 5¼d. if they like to take it. The dinner for 3½d. consists of soup and boiled meat with potatoes and vegetables ; the dinner for 5¼d. consists of the above and some roast meat as well. Baths are also provided here for those in the service of the Firm, a shower bath for a halfpenny and an ordinary bath for just under 2d., soap and towels being provided. And there is a good library which is much used by those who do not go home for dinner. About 100 men and from 200 to 300 girls dine here daily.

All the machinery of this Firm is made in its own shops, and has been invented by the Firm. The 820 H.P. boiler is said to be the largest water-tube boiler in existence.

A committee exists for settling matters affecting the employers and the employed ; two-thirds of the members consist of the representatives elected by the workpeople and one-third are appointed by the Firm. One man still in the service of the Firm has been there for forty years and is still proud to wear the medal presented to him for long service, Women who have served the Firm for many years wear a sort of brooch. The Firm never has any trouble with its employees. Great encouragement is given to the excellent Choral Society to which a large number of the men in the employ of the Firm belong. The Society had the honour of singing before King Edward in 1902, on the occasion of a visit they paid to London, and the members attach great value to a large signed photograph of his Majesty given to the Society by the King on that occasion. Before we left the Works the Society kindly sang a selection of songs to us, coming into the large hall direct from their work by permission of Messrs. Stollwerck who were all present at the performance, and they concluded the programme with ' God save the King ' in English. We were conducted over the works by one of the members of the Firm.

(Signed) H. CALVERT.  
 J. MANN.  
 G. W. BROWN.  
 G. PROCTOR.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHALL.



**REPORT VII.**  
**THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.**  
**LEVERKUSEN.**

When at Düsseldorf we were told that the Managing Directors of the big ARTIFICIAL DYE WORKS of FRIEDRICH BAYER & Co., LIMITED (FARBENFABRIKEN VORM. FRIEDR. BAYER & Co., ELBERFELD —i.e. THE ARTIFICIAL DYE FACTORIES, formerly Friedrich Bayer & Co., of Elberfeld), had been kind enough to allow us to spend a day at their works at Leverkusen, with a view of inspecting the works and the various beneficent institutions founded by the Firm for the benefit of their employees. Leverkusen is situated on the Rhine not far from Cologne. The Company is well-known in Great Britain and Ireland, for it has representatives in Manchester, Bradford, London, Glasgow and Belfast.

There was a big strike at the Leverkusen Works in 1904, and the Firm has been the butt of very violent attacks on the part of the Socialists, because the latter declare that the wages given are miserably low and especially low in view of the high dividends paid to the shareholders, as well as in view of the dangerous nature of the employment.

It would be impossible for us, considering the short duration of our visit in the neighbourhood, to form an absolute opinion as to whether there has been substantial foundation for the charges. Moreover, it is not our business to express a judgment on the rights of the case. We have only to collect what facts we can and to treat them with fairness and objectivity.

Like most of the big commercial enterprises of modern Germany, the firm of Friedrich Bayer commenced in a small way. It was founded in 1850, underwent a change in 1860 when it became known under the name "Friedrich Bayer & Co." and in 1881 was

registered as a Limited Company under the designation "Farbenfabriken vormals Friedr. Bayer & Co." The Firm devoted itself at first to the sale of natural colours, but in 1860 when it was remodelled it took up the manufacture of artificial dyestuffs, its first product having been magenta. The manufacture of coal tar colours gradually developed, and in 1871 the manufacture of pure Alizarine and its derivatives was commenced. From the end of the eighties the Firm took up the manufacture of several pharmaceutical products.

The Works used to be at Elberfeld which is still the seat of the general administration; but in 1891 they purchased the works of D. C. Leverkus & Sons, at Leverkusen, on the Rhine near Cologne and from that date the new seat of the Firm's activity has been more and more developed.

The works at Elberfeld were found to be too small, so several departments were transferred to Leverkusen and the manufacture of some intermediate and inorganic products was commenced. Besides the works at Elberfeld and Leverkusen-on-the-Rhine, the Firm has works at Barmen-Rittershausen; Schelploh near Celle in the Duchy of Lüneburg; at Moscow; and at Flers near Roubaix in the North of France. A large number of aniline and alizarine dyestuffs are produced by the Firm.

The strike amongst the employees at Leverkusen, referred to above was due to the interference of the organised Social Democratic party in the internal affairs of the works. It dealt with objections raised by the men against certain measures taken by the employers. We have no space to enter into details about the dispute. The employers declared they would not tolerate external interference; and submitted that they would not wave their rights to the sole management of the internal affairs of the Firm. The strike was only of short duration, as the men, admitting they were in the wrong, gave way. There is no doubt that in the first years of the existence of the Firm at its new home at Leverkusen a rather disorderly element existed amongst the employees. However, not long ago the hours of labour were lowered. The effects of the strike have been surmounted and peace seems to prevail, although a good deal of agitation goes on from without.

We gave a fairly exhaustive account of the workmen's dwellings and other institutions for the benefit of the employees of Krupp's Firm at Essen and Rheinhausen. These works are situated in the heavy iron district. The workmen and workwomen employed at Leverkusen are of a different type. Machinery has here also replaced skilled labour to a vast extent, but here the vast majority of the employees are simply required to do manual labour of a purely perfunctory kind. We have accordingly unskilled workpeople employed here with comparatively low wages. Further it

must be borne in mind that for this very reason the wages in the chemical industry are relatively low in all parts of the Empire.

Other points must also be borne in mind in reviewing the conditions of chemical industrial labour in Germany; and special attention must be riveted on these points in a cursory account such as ours must necessarily be. Certain provision is made by the State for the relief of the workpeople in sickness, infirmity and old age, as also in the event of accidents; and the employers have to contribute a share towards these provisions. Further, the advantages accorded to the working people in regard to dwellings, pensions, rewards, etc., are of voluntary nature on the part of the employers, and participation therein on behalf of the workpeople is also voluntary.

We will not disguise the fact that the Socialist leaders are, if we mistake not, unanimously opposed to the system of so-called "benefit treatment" on the part of the employers, arguing that instead of such benefits the wages should be raised and that the initiative for institutions for bestowing benefits on the workpeople or for supplying them with dwellings should be left to the workpeople themselves.

Theoretically, in our opinion, cogent arguments can be urged in support of these views at all events up to a certain point; but so far we have failed to see that any very great attempt has been made by any except the State and the employers of labour in Germany to grapple with the questions that come under this head. The factor of supply and demand must inevitably come in in determining the amount of wages, especially the wages of unskilled labour; and no possible increase of wages to the individual employees of a large Firm would put them in a position to create unaided such institutions as we have seen all along our route, and here again on a very large scale at Leverkusen. Even an increase of 6d. per head per day to every individual employee of a large factory employing three thousand hands would not suffice for founding funds and building dwellings such as the Firms we have mentioned have created. In those cases where the workmen have amalgamated in order to build houses, they have been enabled to do so only after receiving very material assistance from State institutions or private bankers and capitalists in regard to the acquisition of land and the raising of money.

Some very important and reliable details concerning the wages of those employed in the Chemical Industry were supplied by Director O. Wenzel at the 5th International Congress for applied chemistry held at Berlin in 1903. He pointed out that there was much still to be done towards meting out reasonable, but adequate, assistance to the working classes and laid stress on the fact that there was no lack of goodwill for further developing the efforts in this direction

that have been commenced in Germany before all other countries. He submitted, however, that the conditions of life and notably the factors connected with the acquisition of a livelihood by those classes of the people in whose interest these efforts were being made were still quite inadequately understood. Statistics of a general kind were at hand concerning the number of male and female workers as well as their wages in individual industries; but there was much yet to be discovered concerning the conditions of various localities, amongst other factors those affecting the wages of men, women, and children, and the custom of paying by piece-work or by time, and above all concerning the way to distinguish in determining wages for skilled and unskilled work.

As regards the chemical industry it has been established by reliable statistics that the wages of workpeople employed therein have increased within the last ten years by fully 16 per cent. Bearing these remarks in mind the following valuable summary will be interesting from statistics collected in 1892 by the Board of the Berufs-Genossenschaft or special association of the chemical industry in Germany, concerning the rate of wages in all districts taken together throughout the Empire in that year. The number of cards issued to obtain the information was 153,797. Herefrom we learn that wages were earned according to the subjoined scale:—

Grown-up men, average daily wage Mks. 2·92 equal to  $2/10\frac{1}{2}$ ;  
grown-up women, average daily wage Mks. 1·43 equal to  $1/5$ ; boys  
from 14 to 16, Mks. 1·32 equal to  $1/3\frac{1}{4}$ ; girls from 14 to 16, Mks.  
1·03 equal to  $1/-$ .

Amongst the various details that we collected it may be mentioned that the number of women attracted to the larger towns was greater than the number of men. Further it was shown that the highest wages were given in the gutta-percha industry, the dye industry and the explosives industry, viz.:—

Gutta-percha industry, men Mks. 3·26 equal to  $3/2\frac{1}{2}$  per day; dye industry, men Mks. 3·11 equal to  $3/0\frac{3}{8}$  per day; explosives industry, men Mks. 3·03 equal to  $3/-$  per day.

The general average of wages for female labour, is not quite half that attained by male labour. The average for men in the large towns was Mks. 3·33 equal to  $3/3\frac{1}{4}$  as against Mks. 1·57 equal to  $1/6\frac{1}{2}$  for women; whilst in the smaller towns it was Mks. 3·01 equal to  $2/11\frac{1}{2}$  against Mks. 1·32 equal to  $1/3\frac{1}{2}$ .

The average difference of wages per day given in the various factories was calculated as follows:—

Large factories (men) Mks. 3·24 equal to  $3/2$ . (women) Mks. 1·53 equal to  $1/6$ .

Moderate sized factories (men) Mks. 2·92 equal to  $2/5\frac{1}{2}$ . (women) Mks. 1·46 equal to  $1/5$ .

Small factories (men) Mks. 2·77 equal to  $2/8\frac{5}{8}$ . (women) Mks. 1·39 equal to  $1/4\frac{1}{3}$ .

The average wages now paid at the Leverkusen Works are 3/- a day for labourers, and from 4/- on for those with special qualifications. Girls receive 9/- per week after  $2\frac{1}{2}$  years, and 18/- after 5 years.

The apprentices in the mechanical department of whom there are twenty-five pupils, receive a training divided into three courses of one year each. They get practical instruction and are paid 1/- a day at first, their remuneration rising to  $2/6$  after six months.

The area of the works at Leverkusen is said to be 448 English acres. Before the Firm went to the district there was a village containing about 2,500 inhabitants, the village is now a small town of over 8,000 inhabitants, most of whom are connected with the Leverkusen works—e.g., there are 3,600 employees connected with the works, out of a total of about 7,000 in the service of the company.

In view of the fact that these works are situated in the country, nothing is more natural than that the Firm should endeavour to provide such attraction for its employees as to secure a good permanent stock of hands. The number of workmen in the employ of the company has doubled every five years. It is therefore difficult to comprehend why the Labour Party are such bitter opponents of a system which for want of a better must be found by all impartial persons to be a source of convenience and advantage to those who live and labour under it.

The Institutions created for the benefit of the employees are summarised as follows:—

- Workmen's Dwellings ;
- Bachelors' Homes ;
- Rewards for the best kept Houses ;
- The Savings Bank ;
- The Stores ;
- Rewards for long service ;
- Fund for the support of workmen in the employ of the Firm ;
- Contributions to the sick ;
- Schools of various kinds ;
- Lying-in Hospital, etc.

We were permitted to pay a day's visit to the Works, and a representative of the Firm met us on our arrival and conducted us through them and over the various institutions, giving us an exhaustive account of the same. Our aim now is to furnish a lucid account of the various impressions made upon us.

The hours of work are fifty-four per week—nine per day, viz., from 7-30 a.m. to noon, and from 1-30 p.m. to 6 p.m. There is no

Saturday half-holiday and work does not terminate earlier on that day than on other days except for the women-workers.

Let us take a glance at the workmen's dwellings. Some four hundred families now live in them. Building commenced in 1895, and about twenty new houses are erected every year. Various styles of architecture have been adopted. The houses are constructed on the flat and semi-detached self-contained systems. Each family has a separate garden and shed.

According to the terms of the lease a week's notice can be given by either side. There are two-room, three-room, four-room and six-room dwellings, the rents of which are Mks. 115—roughly £5 12s.; Mks. 170 (£8 6s. 8d.); Mks. 190 (£9 6s.) to Mks. 225 (£11) and £10 11s. 9d. respectively. Each dwelling has a cellar and an attic, and a closet in the apartment.

It was possible to build the houses, which are made of the best material, at a comparatively low rate because there were good bricks at 20/- per thousand in the immediate neighbourhood which could be carted by the Firm who also supplied the workmen. The tenants of the dwellings are pleased with them and there is always a demand for them. It is hardly necessary to add that their rent is considerably lower than the rent of the dwellings in the neighbourhood.

We entered one of the three-roomed dwellings, inhabited by a man and his wife only recently married, the wife coming from Crefeld. The rent of the house is £9 10s. per annum. The wife is diligent and employs her spare time in dressmaking. Another house we saw was one of six rooms. The man is a mechanic earning at the rate of 30/- per week, and has six children. His three sons are employed in the works. The rooms are good, and orderly kept. It may be noted that prizes are given annually for the best kept dwellings.

Another dwelling inspected consisted of four rooms, two below and two above—rent £11; very nice rooms, as big as the best to be found in workmen's dwellings in England. The tenant is an ordinary workman, who has been seventeen years in the employ of Firm. He earns from 28/- to 30/- per week, and he and his wife evidently look upon life from its practical side, for we noticed they were growing their own "parsnips"—if they were parsnips—in their cellar. There were two splendid bedrooms in this house. The family consists of father and mother and four children, two of whom are employed in the Works and two are at school. The wife comes from East Prussia.

The fourth dwelling we entered was that of a superior foreman. The dwelling consists of seven rooms, three below, three above and a mansard. Rent about £22 12s. The wife comes from Magdeburg; of the four children, one daughter is married, another is in domestic service, the third is at home and the son is an apprentice as a

mechanic. The wife who had the air of activity imprinted on her brow, said:—"Of course I am satisfied; I am always satisfied when I have work to do." Her husband earns £137 5s. per annum in the Works, about 53/- per week.

In the mess-room which is provided for the men, about six hundred men dine daily, and in the adjoining canteen milk and soup are served out. We found a cup of the latter most refreshing; 150 liters of it (264 pints) are served out every day. Sausages, cheese and bread are sold here.

The kitchen is managed by a Committee of the men who elect one of their number every month as their manager. The Committee superintend the purchase of the food, and fix the bill of fare and determine the nature of serving the food. For 1/11½ per week the men can obtain half a liter—nearly a pint—of coffee in the morning; and dinner with the same quantity of coffee. The dinner consists of soup with meat, vegetables and potatoes. A single dinner costs 4¾d. The kitchen is closed on Sundays and holidays.

The Firm has erected a Bachelors' Home which is exceedingly well fitted up. In the bedrooms which are roomy and airy and light, there are four beds and each man has his cupboard for his things provided with a lock, a wash-stand with enamelled jug and basin and table and chair. Everything about the rooms is plain, good and substantial. For each room one man is told off as head of the room and is responsible for order. The sanitary arrangements are all excellent. The Home is under the supervision of a matron who supplies the men with coffee, etc. Adjoining the bedrooms and lavatory is an excellent room provided with various tables where the men can sit. The price charged is 30 pfennige per night equal to 3½d. This includes bed with all that is necessary thereto in the way of linen, two blankets, etc., and towel. Each man gets a clean towel every Sunday and the bed-linen is changed once a fortnight.

Those who like to take their meals here can do so. The price for the ordinary workman's dinner, consisting of soup, roast meat with sauce, vegetables and potatoes, is 6d., for supper consisting of sausage, such as Germans eat, with potatoes and sauce or soup—3½d.; for butter or coffee, a little under a 1d. and ½d. respectively.

The money for rent and board is deducted from the wages every week. A bachelor can if he likes dine in the mess-room for 1/11¾ per week and take his supper and other refreshments at the Works; and the whole expenses will not amount to more than 9/- per week liberally reckoned. The rest of his wages after deducting the State contributions remains at his disposal. Of course, nothing like drunkenness is allowed in the bachelor's home and strict attention is paid to cleanliness and orderly behaviour. Quarrelsome and cantankerous people are excluded. A workman may receive summary notice to quit.

The bath rooms are very well fitted. They can be used by the men and their families; and are open from noon to 1-30 p.m. and from 6 to 7 p.m.

The Firm keeps a Store for their employees and their families. We noted that the charge for granulated sugar is equivalent to about 2d. per English lb.; lump sugar costs 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. When the annual accounts are made up, the purchasers receive 10 per cent. of the profits according to the amount of their purchases.

A club house for the overseers exists already and one for the workmen is about to be built immediately after the winter.

The Girls' Home for daughters of the employees is a capital institution. It gives the girls an opportunity to learn housekeeping. They board and lodge there and have an excellent airy and bright dormitory. Under sixteen they pay just over 7d. and over sixteen 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per day for board and lodging and receive full and careful instruction and lead a very happy life. There are twelve of them there. The afternoon we were present they were singing in the cellar whilst peeling the potatoes for the Christmas treat that was to come off a couple of hours later. A Christmas Tree stood in an adjoining room; and the cakes, warm from the oven, that they had baked were lying out on the kitchen table. We tasted them and can frankly state that they were a credit to their makers who are quite young girls, thirteen, fourteen and fifteen years of age respectively. The pupils here are required to remain for one year for instruction.

For the sons of employees from ten to fourteen years of age there is a Handicrafts School where they can learn carpentry. Two masters are kept for the purpose, one a trained cabinet-maker from the works, the other a master from an Elementary State School. No fees are taken. The boys come here twice a week—thirty of them in each course—summer and winter. In summer they are taught garden work and pruning. Whatever the children make themselves—boxes, and other things likely to be used at home, they may take home with them.

We were specially struck by the advantages for the workman's family afforded by the Lying-in-Hospital. It is a model for imitation for every factory. The wife of a workman can come here for her confinement and remain for from 10 to 14 days free from every domestic care and noise, enjoying the very best medical attention from the doctor of the establishment, and excellent nursing from the matron. Every medical and surgical appliance is at hand. As a rule two women occupy one room. The hospital has existed for a year, and no charge is made. It can be used also by the wives of the officials of the Firm.

Finally we must refer briefly to the various funds instituted by the Firm. There is the Sick Fund to which some 5,000 of the German



employees belong. Members receive medical attendance gratis. The employees pay a contribution and the Firm add a special one also. The payments consist of sick allowances, burial money, doctor's fees, medicines, allowances for change of air, etc. Then there is the Workmen's Relief Fund, intended to render pecuniary assistance in case of special and unexpected distress. It has amounted to Mks. 850,000, equal to £41,666, on which the Firm pays 5 per cent interest. It is intended to render financial assistance to all employees of the Firm, male and female, and members of their families, especially the widows and orphans, in case of sickness, old age, infirmity or sudden trouble. Those who have served the Firm for a number of years are specially considered. A Committee of workmen appointed by the Firm assist in the administration of the fund. They are selected from the various sections of the works. Every claim for assistance is gone into by a member of the Committee, who is himself a workman in the employ of the Firm, the one who lives nearest to the applicant. The investigation is made as speedily as possible and the full Committee decide thereon.

In the event of the death of a workman his widow receives a donation according to his length of service, varying from £3 15s. after three years' service, to £15 after twenty years' service. In the event of complete incapacity to work, an employee receives an allowance in proportion to the number of years of service, an allowance which is also fixed according to a scale. If he has served for 25 years, he retires on full pay. The wives and children of employees receive an allowance for a period not exceeding six weeks when the head of the family is called in for military service, provided the latter has been employed uninterruptedly for a year in the service of the Firm.

Special rewards are given to employees according to the number of years' service, the amounts being treated as deposits in a Savings Bank. The system is as follows:—

		Marks.	£	s.	d.
After 1 year's employment		25 equal to	1	4	6
" 3 "	" "	60	"	2	18 9
" 6 "	" "	100	"	4	18 0
" 10 "	" "	150	"	7	7 0
" 15 "	" "	200	"	9	16 0
" 20 "	" "	250	"	12	5 1
" 25 "	" "	300	"	14	14 0
" 30 "	" "	350	"	17	13 0
" 35 "	" "	400	"	19	12 0
" 40 "	" "	500	"	24	10 2
" 45 "	" "	700	"	34	6 3
" 50 "	" "	1000	"	49	0 4
		4035		197	15 0

After 25 years service an  
employee receives a  
Jubilee gratification of

100	4 18 0
<hr/>	<hr/>
4135	202 13 1
<hr/>	<hr/>

From the above it will be seen that an employee after 25 years' service will have received Mks. 1185 equal to about £58 1s. 9d. Those who have entered the service of the Firm at the age of 15 receive their first money reward of £1 4s. 6d. at the age of 18. In the event of the death of an employee, his widow and legitimate children under 14 years of age receive together the sum to which the head of the family was entitled to at the time of his death.

There is a Savings Bank managed by the Firm, which can be utilised by all employees and by widows of those whose husbands had served at least ten years with the Firm. The lowest deposit received is 6d. The total deposits must not exceed £50, higher amounts are handed over to the Municipal Savings Bank. Withdrawals of 25/- can be made at any time; for higher amounts, four weeks' notice must be given. A depositor must withdraw his whole deposit if he leaves the service of the Firm. Five per cent. interest on deposits is given. The Firm stands security for capital and interest.

At Christmas a series of Christmas Tree parties for various departments of the Firm are given, when, besides a supper, presents of various kinds are distributed. The children of the workmen receive clothes and toys; and even the bachelors of the Bachelor's Home are not forgotten, being provided with socks, tobacco, cigars, etc., to the value of 3/- each. Just before Christmas these entertainments were taking place every night.

(Signed) H. CALVERT.  
G. W. BROWN.  
J. MANN.  
G. PROCTOR.  
H. BEILBY.  
T. W. MOTTERSHALL.

**REPORT VIII.**  
**THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.**  
**HOECHST AND LUDWIGSHAFEN.**

We have been just three weeks in Germany and have seen the German workmen at work and at play. In the busy districts of Rhineland and Westphalia we came into contact with thousands of our German comrades engaged in the heavy industry, and looked in vain for the signs of poverty which certain persons in Gainsborough and elsewhere told us would confront us on all sides. Despite the prevailing dearness of meat which is seriously affecting all classes in the German Fatherland, and consequently all those whose incomes are limited, including the incomes of the working people whose budget for household expenses is necessarily quite specially affected at this time of year, nothing indicative in the remotest degree of widespread distress has come within the limit of our vision ; on the contrary there is every sign of increasing prosperity. Occupation is to be had everywhere for the asking of it in all factories and at all works in the towns we have passed through ; the building trade is everywhere in a fair condition ; and even in the ranks of the unskilled who must always be subject to fluctuations as regards employment, there is no general cause for complaint. Instead of there being a superabundance of workers and consequently a crowd of "unemployed," employers are clamouring on all sides for skilled labour.

The Christmas Tree was illuminated for everybody and right happy did folk of all classes appear to be. We saw its little candles blazing in the Hôtels, Restaurants and private houses of Cologne where we were not allowed to pine for our English Yule feast ; and we should belie the facts of the case, were we to tell our friends and families at home that our first Christmas spent away from our native shores, though "made in Germany," was clouded

with dulness or obscured either by the sight of trouble around us or by any reflex sentiment of gloominess within, brought on by the silent sadness of surroundings.

Those who were conducting us about Cologne showed us how even the suffering were thought of. Before adjourning the work of the Commission for our brief Christmas holidays, we were taken to a hospital in a Cologne suburb situated in the very heart of the heavy industry of the district. You could almost hear in the wards where the patients were lying the thud of the hammers and the whizzing sound of the wheels from the shops of the works, many of them connected with the surrounding factories. We were ushered into a room which was the Chapel of the establishment transformed for the nonce into a reception Hall. In one corner stood a large tree bedecked with imitation snow and little lighted tapers; and every available space was occupied by those of the sick Home who could be transported there. After the singing of Christmas hymns and carols and an address from the Pastor, the whole assembly proceeded to neighbouring apartments to receive their Christmas doles of gingerbread and sweetmeats intermingled with the little useful gifts that were dealt out to them. And for those who could not leave their beds, separate tables laden with a scintillating tree and similar donations were carried into each ward. Amongst these sick people were many working men and lads who earn their living in the neighbouring works. The hospital that had been endowed by a manufacturer of one of the works hard by was supported by donations from all the Firms around. The one we saw was under the supervision of Protestant Sisters; a few streets off was a similar establishment managed by Roman Catholics.

Some of our readers will perhaps reproach us with presenting matters in too roseate colours to them. They may think that we are concealing something and that we have been influenced by those who wish us to see only what calls for admiration. Not a bit of it! Before we had even seen an employer of labour we began our tour of enquiry at Crefeld with a conversation of several hours with representatives of the working classes. An official of the German Trades Unions accompanied us everywhere the very day after our arrival in Germany during the afternoon and evening; and we have met and conversed with officials of the labour interest in other towns, for instance at Elberfeld, Solingen, Düsseldorf, and Cologne, and have discussed many points bearing on the subject of our enquiry and have been shown many dwellings of the families of the working classes selected by these very people. They have told us their views with perfect frankness. The picture we are painting in these columns is not produced with the tints of one colour-box alone. Employers of labour have personally conducted us over their works and mills and have courteously met us and freely and without reserve replied to our questions. Officials have

aided us with information and otherwise ; but the arguments of the working people themselves have also been put before us by their own representatives. As far as lies in our power we have drawn reliable inferences from all that we have been enabled to see and hear. What we are telling about German conditions which are those of a nation existing under a Protective Tariff, is the result of our personal observations. Our readers must judge for themselves. We do not pose as advocates of a similar system ; but we emphatically repudiate the arguments of those who tell us that the German workman leads a miserable life of privation because the frontiers of his country are lined with Protective Tariffs, for such arguments do not here hold water. The German workman is neither starved nor ill-fed ; nor is he lean to look upon or badly housed.

Moreover we comprehend that in dealing with German conditions as to wages we have to take two very significant factors into consideration, namely what the State and what the employers do for the workmen individually and collectively. Throughout the whole Empire the provisions of the Imperial social legislation are effective, and throughout that part of the Empire through which we have been passing the action of the employers is also effective. The German workmen are insured against accidents, against sickness, and against infirmity and old age. They have no premium whatever to pay for the insurance against accidents, this being settled by the employers alone ; the employers pay one-third and the employed two-thirds of the premium against sickness ; and the premium against old age and premature infirmity is distributed equally between employers and employed.

The State further pays a contribution by undertaking all the expenses of administration free of charge and by adding a money consideration to the old age and premature infirmity pensions.

By being thus insured the workpeople acquire a right as citizens to allowances in case of disability to work through accidents, sickness and premature infirmity or old age. These allowances are not of the nature of donations to paupers ; but of allowances to which they have acquired a right as citizens. In order to acquire these rights as citizens the workpeople also contribute to the premiums, as well as the employer ; and the State as a body pays the expenses of administration. These contributions of the employers on the one hand are necessarily a large financial burden on production which must not be overlooked ; and on the other hand the contributions of the State are made up by the whole mass of the taxpayers, not only by the working-people themselves.

In reviewing the conditions of Germany we can also very well understand that the ramifications of German life and the geographical position of the empire are not precisely the same as what was

presented to the British workman or to any individual of the British nation at the time of Cobden.

From the signs of vast development that we have witnessed on our journey, in town and country over here, we are bound also to take the fact into consideration that Germany's population is not only not at a standstill, but is steadily increasing. In view of this steadily increasing population it is quite evident that Germany's Government is unceasingly occupied with the problem of providing for the comfort and well-being of the sixty millions now living, and is not leaving to succeeding generations unaided the task of continuing the solution of this problem. German politicians are certainly occupied with the interests of the wage-earning classes of industry; and the political representatives of the people, the Socialists, who twenty years ago opposed the social legislation of the Government now accept it and try to render it more comprehensive. The State and the Municipality co-operate with the workers by means of Labour Bureaus to provide the means of obtaining employment. The wages of the working classes have become much higher than they were fifteen and twenty years ago.

It is reasonable to suppose that the efforts of the working classes themselves, if this ideal is the main end they keep in view, will ultimately succeed in still further increasing wages.

Of course British legislators will have to weigh all details connected with the dealings of Britain with foreign countries and amongst them the details with which we are trying to furnish our fellow countrymen not only in Gainsborough but all over the Empire, so that the interests of the British workmen may be safeguarded, and that our toes shall not be trodden upon by competitors in any country whatsoever outside Britain. Herein the British workman and the British manufacturer must work shoulder to shoulder: their interests are indetical.

Our last report dealt with the chemical industry of Germany. The following lines cover the same ground.

After leaving Rhineland we proceeded south to Höchst near Frankfort-on-Maine. Our object was to pay a visit to the Artificial Dye Works of that town "Farbwerke, vormals Meister, Lucius and Brüning," "Artificial Dye Works, formerly Meister, Lucius and Brüning." Here also we were enabled to take notice of the consideration shown to their workpeople by employers of labour.

The proprietors of the works we allude to are of opinion that in order to keep good workpeople the latter should be provided with good houses.

There has never been a strike in these works and the demand for labour is greater than the supply. Hoechst is a town of very nearly 16,000 inhabitants; and the works employ about 5,000 hands. The

people of the town are also known all over the world as makers of domestic furniture. In the Chicago theatre is a large candelabra that comes from here. The significance of the town can be recognised from a German point of view through the fact that it possesses a good classical school, a good high-class modern school, and a first-class school for girls.

In 1863 the average daily wages in the works were Mks. 2·75, equal to  $2/8\frac{1}{2}$ ; to-day the average wages are Mks. 4, equal to  $3/11$ ; an increase in just over thirty years of nearly  $1/3$  per day. This signifies a rise of about  $45\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

The trade relations with England are good, and the Firm has offices in London, Manchester, Bradford and Glasgow. They are large artificial dye makers, and supply the whole world with dyes.

One of the first remarks made to us by the chief representative of this Firm who received us with the utmost courtesy was—"I wish to tell you that there is no hostility against England in Germany, and none down in these parts." We may add that these words are really a repetition of what has been everywhere told us. When we hear that Chambers of Commerce all over Germany are trying to promote the cause of friendship between Germany and Britain, we are in a position to say that it is not only the employers of labour that have advocated this policy to us, but that our comrades in labour everywhere assure us that the statements that have found currency in England during the last few years to the effect that hatred of England was deep-rooted in the hearts of the German people are wicked and malicious perversions of the truth.

The Höchst artificial dye works have erected 670 houses for their employees. The rent of these houses averages Mks. 3·40, i.e.  $3/4$  per week, or say £8 13s. 4d. per year. In the town a workman has to pay for a similar sized house from Mks. 300 to Mks. 360, i.e. £14 14s. to £17 13s. The sort provided by the Firm is for the most part a one family house, semi-detached, each with its own small garden, cellar and attic. The dearest amongst them costs £12 15s. The tenants are only allowed to take in a lodger with the consent of the Firm.

The Firm does not sell its houses to the workpeople, but encourages the latter to build houses themselves on other land, and advances mortgages thereon in order to assist them in doing so. By so doing some 25 per cent of the work-people have become the owners of the houses they live in.

We were conducted into the interior of some of the houses built by the Firm. One of them was that of a foreman with say £8 a month wages (he received also a gratuity of between £15 and £20 at Christmas). He had been twenty years in the service of the Firm; has three children, two boys and a girl, of whom one son is a post-

office apprentice. The wife was preparing lentil soup and pork for dinner. The rent he paid was £12 15s. His wife, who had been in service in England, spoke English very well.

Another house we inspected, consisting of a room and a kitchen downstairs and two rooms upstairs, was inhabited by a foreman with a wife and three little daughters. He received £6 10s per month. Being Roman Catholics the family dinner, as it was Friday, consisted of soup and eggs with a substantial pudding called a Mehlspeise—i.e. a dish in which the main ingredient is flour.

The Firm began to build houses for their workpeople in 1875, thirty years ago. The houses are provided with water from the Municipal Water Works and are roomy and from a sanitary point of view all that can be desired. There has always been a great demand for the houses built by the Firm. The leases are subject to a fortnight's notice on the part of the Firm, but unless the conditions are exceptional, a family is permitted to retain possession until another house has been found. Necessary repairs of importance are paid by the Firm. Gas can be had if required, the fittings being paid for by the landlord, i.e., the Firm.

Sleeping accommodation for bachelors was first provided in 1888. The price charged is 1/- per week, inclusive of bed-linen. The rooms, containing six beds, are airy. They are practically divided into large cubicles, each containing a wardrobe and washstand. The men can have their morning coffee with milk and sugar and two rolls here for 1½d.; dinner they can have from the Matron for 5¼d.; and supper for 4½d. Dinner consists of soup, meat, vegetables and potatoes; supper, of soup, sausage, and vegetables. Beer is supplied at 1½d. or 2½d. per bottle, according to size. From these figures it can be seen that a bachelor employed at the Works can live for about 8s per week, exclusive of beer, tobacco and similar luxuries; his average wages being Mks. 24, i.e., 23s 6½d.

For the baths erected by the Firm no charge is made, nor for the soap and towels.

The mess-room is very comfortable. Meals are provided here as follows:—

Early morning coffee ½ liter equal to ⅞ pint; dinner, consisting of soup with a good supply of potatoes, vegetables, rice or peas, and 170 grammes, equal to ⅓lb. of meat, generally boiled beef, which is the staple food of the people here, and ⅞ pint of coffee afterwards, the whole costing 2½d. The cost price is ⅓ more, the Firm covering the difference. Some 1,300 men partake of the food thus supplied.

We were permitted to taste the dinner on the day we called, receiving it as it is usually supplied; it was soup with beans, potatoes, and boiled beef; and we all finished our portion, which we found extremely palatable.



The prices of meat have considerably risen in Höchst compared with this time last year. They are as follows:—

Beef for boiling 9d. per English lb.; pork  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d.; mutton  $8\frac{3}{8}$ d.; veal 10d.; bacon  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Lentils cost  $3\frac{3}{8}$ d., beans  $2\frac{3}{8}$ d., peas  $2\frac{3}{8}$ d. per English lb. Soda water made in the works costs just less than  $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bottle.

We discovered here when we visited the Stores a fact which ought to create somewhat of a sensation in Gainsborough and throughout England.

We were shown two sorts of bread. White wheaten bread and the brownish bread that people in England call "black" bread made of wheat and rye. The white wheaten 4 lb. (German) loaf cost 45 pfennige equal to  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d.; the brown loaf (wheaten and rye)—2 lbs. cost 25 pfennige, equal to  $2\frac{7}{8}$ d. It was the first time we had come across a loaf of white bread; and we were told that the people here and at Frankfort-on-Maine eat a good deal of white bread. The custom was doubtless introduced by the French, when they occupied this part of the country at the beginning of last century.

What is the inference to be drawn from the above facts? It is as follows:—

In the case of the pure wheaten loaf, a loaf weighing 4 English lbs. of Höchst white bread should cost  $4\frac{3}{8}$ d., whilst a loaf weighing 4 English lbs. of brown bread (wheat and rye) should cost  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. If the Gainsborough quarter loaf costs  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d., the difference in the former case would be  $\frac{1}{8}$ d. in favour of Gainsborough; if, however, as sometimes is the case, the English quarter loaf costs 5d. the difference is in favour of Höchst by  $\frac{1}{8}$ d. per loaf.

England pays no duty on imported wheat, whilst Germany pays Mks. 3.50 ( $3/5\frac{1}{4}$ ) on 200 German lbs., i.e. on 220 English lbs. The duty will be higher from March 1st.\*

In Höchst we found also that more tea than coffee is drunk by the people. In one of their houses we saw tea being used at  $2/1\frac{1}{2}$  per lb.

Cloth for suits of clothes at the Stores seemed to be higher in price than at our Stores; but the shirts made by home industry for workmen at Mks. 2.30, equal to  $2/3$ ; also at Mks. 1.50, equal to  $1/5\frac{5}{8}$ , were very useful garments.

Whilst we saw bacon such as we should use for  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. there was also a special kind at Mks. 1.40, equal to about  $1/4\frac{1}{2}$ —the same price as that quoted in our Crefeld report as charged on the Dutch Frontier. Ham in slices costs here about  $2/4\frac{1}{4}$ ; fresh eggs are at this season  $1/9$  per dozen; cheese such as is consumed here in working men's families  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. per lb. Butter is now selling

\* The price of bread has not risen in Germany since last April.

The new duties since March 1st are:—

Wheat per 100 Kilogs (220 English lbs.) Mks. 7.50 ( $7/4\frac{1}{2}$ ).

Rye per 100 Kilogs (220 English lbs.) Mks. 7.00 ( $6/10\frac{1}{2}$ ).

at 1/4½. The butter is certainly very good; and indeed we have never tasted such good butter as what we have everywhere eaten in our Hôtels in Germany.

Of the special funds inaugurated by the Firm for the benefit of their employees, we were struck by that which gives pensions to those who have become incapable of work at the rate of:—

		£	s.	d.
After	5 years service say	7	10	0
„	6 „ „ „	8	5	0
„	10 „ „ „	11	5	0
„	20 „ „ „	18	15	0
„	35 „ „ „	26	15	0
„	45 „ „ „	37	15	0

These sums are given in addition to what the men receive from the State funds.

The time spent in the Army or during sickness is not deducted in making this calculation. Widows receive 50 per cent of the husband's pension; and children up to 15 years of age, ten per cent.

## LUDWIGSHAFEN.

When we came to Ludwigshafen, the day after being at Hoechst, we arrived in the territory of the Bavarian Rhenish Palatinate. Ludwigshafen is situated on the Rhine, opposite to Mannheim. The Directors of the 'Badische Anilin and Soda Fabrik'—Baden Anilin and Soda Factory—kindly consented to furnish us with particulars of the institutions founded by their Firm for the benefit of their employees. We were thus enabled to view the conditions of labour and to take note of the type of men in another part of the German Empire. This factory is one of the most important enterprises in the German Empire and is typical of the development of the artificial dyes industry, an industry which may be said to have been practically transplanted by Teuton energy from Britain to Germany; it is the largest factory connected with the coal-tar industry. Nowhere could the effect of the co-operation between theory and practice; or in other words, between the scientific researches of the laboratory and the manual work of the factory be better studied than here.

We may note that the value of the annual production of artificial dyes in Germany is estimated at about £12,254,900 or 250 millions of marks! These figures alone show how significant the progress of chemical industry must be for the German workman, for it gives employment to many thousands of them. The Baden Company alone exports about seventy-five per cent. of its products

to foreign countries ; indeed the greater part of the tar products manufactured in Germany is exported to foreign countries. The artificial-dyes industry is worth millions of pounds sterling to the German Empire. Whereas in former times the German States imported large quantities of natural dyes, Germany now not only provides her own people with artificial dyes but, as above said, supplies foreign countries with about three-fourths of what she manufactures, thus bringing millions of pounds sterling annually into the country.

The designation "Baden" is given to the works because the company belongs according to its statutes to Mannheim in Baden, on the other side of the Rhine ; but the factory and offices are now at Ludwigshafen in Bavarian territory. Like those Firms of which we have already spoken, this Firm has always paid special attention to the well-being and comfort of its workpeople including the sanitary arrangements of the factory.

The "Baden Anilin and Soda Factory" now employs about 7,400 persons including the scientific and other officials. The average number of hands employed in 1865, when the Firm was founded, amounted to 30 ; in 1875, to 835 ; in 1885, to 2,377 ; in 1895, to 4,450 ; and in 1905, to 6,972. We were informed after our visit to the works that there were 7,007 men on the books of the Firm on December 31st, 1905.

The hours of work here are from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with a half-hour pause at 8 a.m., a quarter-hour pause at 4 p.m. for afternoon coffee, and the dinner-hour pause from 12 to 1 o'clock. The men employed with dyes stop work half an hour earlier than the others in order that they can wash themselves, for they leave the works with the others at 6 p.m. There is scarcely any night work in the factory, and all the employees in most of the departments have their Sundays free.

The average wages now given by the Firm for unskilled labour are 3/11 per day ; skilled labour is remunerated at from 4/- to 6/-. Just now it is very difficult to get hands in Ludwigshafen, and the number of 'unemployed' is quite insignificant. In 1905, Mks. 8,501,334 (£416,732) were expended in wages by the Firm. Wages are paid on Friday afternoons and Saturday mornings during the working hours.

After having been in the service of the Firm for five years the employees are entitled to a special remuneration amounting to 25/-, which sum is increased every five years by the same amount until it reaches £5. After twenty years' service the men receive the amount in cash.

Of the 7007 employees in the service of the Firm on December 31st, 1905,

3108 had been in its service between 1 and 5 years.

1677	”	”	5 and 10	”
826	”	”	10 and 15	”
717	”	”	15 and 20	”
388	”	”	20 and 25	”
206	”	”	25 and 30	”
85	”	”	over 30	”

The families of married men who have been in the service of the Firm for a year receive an allowance whilst the head of the family is absent on military service, equivalent to what he would have received from the Firm's Sick Fund if he had been ill.

It is of the highest importance in works of this nature where the men are constantly exposed to danger, that the sanitary arrangements should receive special attention; and, as far as we were enabled to judge, we came to the conclusion that every possible precaution was taken to prevent accidents of all kinds. Great care is shown to provide ample ventilation and appliances are at hand for carrying off dangerous gases.

Those who have to work amidst a high temperature are supplied with coffee during the summer free of charge. In 1905 there were 130,000 liters thus disposed of = 227,500 pints.

All the employees are required to clean themselves thoroughly before leaving the works; and for this purpose there are 45 spacious rooms where washing appliances and baths are provided. There are 550 compartments with shower baths and 45 sponge-baths, accessible to all the workpeople without exception; they are permitted to bathe during work-hours. Every workman employed with the dyes has his own special place where he can undress and dress himself and where he can hang up his clothes. On entering the works he changes his usual clothes and dons his work-garments. There is no charge for the use of the baths, and towels and soap are also provided gratis. The cost of these bathing-rooms amounted to Mks. 940,000 (£46,078).

From the very first the Firm set about providing healthy and cheap dwellings for their workpeople in order to attract a steady class of men to their works. They erected blocks of dwellings in the immediate vicinity of the works. There are now 146 of these blocks containing 552 families, consisting of 3000 persons. The cost of erecting these houses amounted to Mks. 2,750,000 (£134,804). Each house stands free, surrounded by a garden; and is divided into four flats, each tenement separated from the other and having a separate entrance and a separate plot of garden attached to it. The workmen's flats consist of two good rooms, a smaller room, a kitchen and two cellars, for which the rent is 1/9<sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub>d per week or £4 12s. per year; another type for the overseer consists of three good rooms, two smaller rooms, a kitchen and two cellars, for which

the rent is  $\frac{2}{3}$  per week or £5 17s. per annum. The rent in both cases is about one-third of what is charged in the town. As it was difficult to obtain land for building more houses in the vicinity of those just mentioned, an extensive plot was acquired in 1899 at Mutterstadt, five miles distant from the works, where by the end of last year 62 houses, each containing two tenements were erected at a cost of Mks. 350,000 (£17,157). The houses are situated close to the railway station, and the Firm pays the railway tickets for the workpeople who live here and for all those who live outside Ludwigshafen and are obliged to use the trains. In 1905 the sum expended for this purpose amounted to about £3725. Owing to the distance of Mutterstadt from the neighbouring villages the Firm erected a school-house there for the benefit of the children of the workpeople. It is attended by 180 children, and the firm pays for the two masters as well as for one mistress for needlework all of whom look after the children. About £350 are spent on the maintenance of the school.

Besides the above-named houses there are some very nice semi-detached houses erected by the Firm, surrounded by gardens, containing 104 flats for the use of their officials.

The mess-room erected for the convenience of the men who live too far from the works to be able to go home to dinner as well as for the unmarried ones deserves notice. It was built in 1884 at a cost of £4,166, and there is a kitchen attached to it. Some 600 persons can be seated here. Dinner, consisting of  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an English lb. of boiled beef with soup or vegetables, is supplied to the men for  $2\frac{3}{4}$ d., the meal costs the Firm  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. From four to five hundred men partake of this meal every day in the mess-room and from one to two hundred purchase the dinner and eat it elsewhere. An average of 450 men dined here per day in 1905 and the subvention paid by the Firm amounted to £950. Coffee without milk and sugar can be had for  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per liter ( $1\frac{3}{4}$  pints). Three thousand portions of coffee were sold in 1905. Alcoholic drinks are not supplied. The mess-room is also open for the men from 6 p.m. till 9-30 p.m. For the use of those workmen who have their dinners brought them from a distance by their wives and children, a pleasantly situated room has been set apart affording space for 240 persons. About 200 workmen make use of it now.

Special interest is shown by the Firm for the care of the sick and every effort is made to give the employees during illness the best possible medical assistance and care. Four doctors are specially kept for this purpose as well as assistants and nursing sisters, and the doctors reside in the immediate neighbourhood of the houses where the workpeople live. There are rooms on the premises for administering first aid in case of accidents and all workmen who report themselves as ill are examined here by the doctors. The

rooms are provided with a good supply of surgical instruments and other apparatus of the best kind as well as baths for medical purposes. The erection and fittings of these rooms cost the Firm £8,330 and the cost of maintenance amounted in 1905 to £907.

The Firm directed its attention to the insurance of its workpeople against sickness as early as the beginning of the seventies—long before the State took the matter in hand. It was arranged that the sick should receive an allowance—married men 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per day, unmarried men 7d. in the event of absolute incapability to work. The workpeople contributed nothing to this fund. After the passing of the law of 15th June, 1883 a special fund was inaugurated on December 1st, 1884, to which the workmen contributed also. This fund does more than is prescribed by the law and renders assistance during 26 weeks of illness. Those workpeople whose wages do not exceed 5s. per day pay 3 $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. of their wages towards it. In 1884 the number of members of this fund amounted to 2,365; at the end of 1905 it was 7,240.

The Firm also pays a considerable sum as additional support to the workpeople when sick, provided they have previously been not less than six months in its service. As much as £4,090 were expended for this purpose in 1905. A Home for Convalescents was also erected in 1904; and 228 workmen took advantage of it in 1905. The cost of maintenance of each convalescent is estimated at about 3/10 $\frac{1}{2}$ ; the total cost of maintenance in 1905 was £931.

In 1893 the Firm erected a Sanatorium for tuberculosis patients containing 24 beds at Dannenfels at the foot of Mount Donnersberg which is about 1,300ft. above the sea. Although six months is the prescribed duration of residence for patients, the time can be prolonged on the recommendation of the Doctor—360 patients have been treated here since 1893. Of the 328 patients who have left the Sanatorium 60 are still occupied in the factory and are in a fair state of health.

For the erection of the sanatorium the Firm paid £8,823; the cost of maintenance in 1905 was £1,122.

There is a special fund for the assistance of the aged and infirm independent of the Imperial State Fund and also for the support of widows and orphans of the workpeople to which annual sums from the profits of the Firm are handed over. This fund amounts now to Mks. 2,221,000 (£108,872). The Firm pays 4 per cent interest thereon which interest is used for the purposes named. The allowances range from 10/- to £5 per month. At the present time there are 389 persons in receipt thereof, namely 159 former workmen, 216 widows and 14 orphans without father or mother. Some of these have been in receipt of their allowances for 25 years. In 1905 £4,392 were expended on allowances of various kinds.

The above lines give a general summary of the institutions of the

Firm for the well-being of their workpeople; but they do not exhaust its activity in this direction. Attention has also been directed to the welfare of the families of the workmen. For example, there is a bathing-house erected in 1893 for the wives and children of workmen who have been for not less than two years in the service of the Firm, which deserves notice. The Baths are open from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. on week-days, and can be used free of charge. Soap and towels are brought by the bathers. In 1905 there was an average of 159 per day—total 46,300. The cost of erection amounted to £2,108; the cost of maintenance the same year was £323, i.e., about 1½d. per bath.

Medical assistance is given free of charge in case of illness. The doctors of the Firm can in this way be consulted, and four special nurses are also paid for the purpose of attending the sick under the direction of the doctors. All married men who have been in the service of the Firm for four years can claim this privilege for their families, and special cards are issued to them which confirm their right; 3,100 of these cards were issued in 1905, and the Firm spent in this year £1,225 on medical attendance for the families of their workpeople.

The lying-in-hospital erected by the Firm has been an immense boon to the people, because before it was constructed there used to be several cases of puerperal fever, whereas no fatal case has occurred in the hospital. The wives of men who have been in the service of the Firm for not less than two years can undergo their confinement here free of charge. The hospital was built in 1897 at a cost of £1,617, and contains ten beds, and is fitted up with all the most modern appliances. Two sisters of the Baden Women's Society, one of whom is a certificated midwife, attend to the patients. In 1905, 182 patients were admitted; the total cost incurred by the Firm in 1905 was £450—a little under 50/-, per patient.

The Firm's school for domestic economy is very interesting. In view of the well-known fact that one of the causes of discomfort in a workman's family arises from the wife's ignorance of housekeeping the Directors of the Firm determined to give the daughters of their workmen an opportunity for obtaining practical instruction in housekeeping. The school was opened in 1894, and takes in 24 pupils. During the past year there have been 24 pupils. The girls are instructed in cooking, washing, ironing, housework of all kinds, the growth of vegetables, the purchase of provisions, needlework, sewing by hand and with the machine, cutting out and the making of body and household linen and dresses, mending, and the elements of nursing of the sick and the care of children, as well as household book-keeping. Board, instruction and lodging are all given free of charge. The cost of erection of the school was £2,562; and the cost of maintenance for 24 pupils £440.

There is a library for the use of the workpeople and their families, to which is attached a reading-room containing a number of periodicals ; it is open every evening during the week and on Sunday mornings. Books can be taken out on three days a week at specified hours. When opened in 1901 the library contained 1,380 volumes and now 3,360. In 1905, 54,200 volumes were taken out ; of which the children borrowed 6,700 volumes. The cost of the maintenance is about £120 per annum.

As in the case of other large Firms whose works we have visited, the 'Baden Anilin and Soda Factory' maintains at its own cost a Savings' Bank for the benefit of the workpeople. The lowest deposit accepted is 1/- ; deposits may not exceed £5 in one month or £50 in one year. Up to £150 the rate of interest given is five per cent. ; from £150 to £250 four per cent. The Firm does not accept more than £250 from one depositor. Deposits and withdrawals can be effected every day at special hours. The officials who administer the Fund are not allowed under any circumstances to give information as to the state of depositors' accounts. The Firm guarantees security for the monies deposited in the Bank. At the end of 1905 there were 1960 depositors and the amount of deposits was Marks 1,446,700 (£70,916).

We have advisedly omitted mention of the other advantages conferred by the Firm on its scientific and office personnel, and we have confined ourselves to the case specially devoted to the interests of the workpeople ; but we may refer to the Gymnasium or Turnhalle as it is called, which was erected at a cost of about £620, for the use of both the higher personnel and the workpeople. The cost of maintenance is about £90 per annum.

The price of food here is high ; and for that reason the Firm sells sausages to its employees made of good meat at cost price. From about one to two thousand of these sausages are sold every day.

The price of good meat at Ludwigshafen at the time of our visit there was as follows :—Beef for boiling, 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d per English lb ; veal for boiling, 7d per lb ; pork for boiling, 9d per lb ; mutton for boiling 7d per lb.

Flour costs just over 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. We discovered that more white bread was consumed here than rye bread. The 4lb. (German) wheaten loaf costs 46 pfennige—5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. Two sorts of bread are made here, namely, one kind which is composed of two-thirds of wheaten flour and one-third of rye flour ; and another kind of one-third of wheaten flour and two-thirds of rye flour. The price of the former, weighing 4 German lbs. is 46 pfennige—5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. This would represent 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. for a loaf weighing four English lbs. The price of the other kind of loaf is somewhat less.

The people down here do not seem to dislike monotony as regards



meat, for here also the mid-day meal generally consists of boiled beef—not only amongst the workmen's families. The variety in the meal consists in a different soup daily, the kind of meat remaining the same. The inhabitants of the Palatinate appear to be sober and economical. The men are fond of pleasure ; but the wives are thrifty.

The Baden Anilin Factory has important relations with England, which country is one of its best foreign consumers in all the products and in the subsidiary products of coal-tar. In view of the absence of duties in Anilin dyes in England, it is said that German trade therein is enabled to prosper. Anyhow, the duties on coal-tar products in Germany prevent all dumping.

Disputes seldom take place between employers and employed in this Ludwigshafen Factory so that there is no reason for having an arbitration board. The men appear very satisfied with the various institutions maintained by the Firm for the benefit of their workpeople, so they try to remain here.

The employees have a Choral Society consisting of from 600 to 700 members. The Society holds practices twice a week, and the Firm pays a master £30 a year to train the choir, and has a room set apart for practices. The Society owns a large grand piano which it purchased itself.

(Signed). G. W. BROWN.  
 H. CALVERT.  
 J. MANN.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 G. PROCTOR.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHELL.

## REPORT IX.

### FRANKFORT-ON-MAINE.

The great free imperial city of the south, presents itself to us as one of the most important centres of trade of the German Empire. We were struck by its external signs of wealth, and, in view of the high rents and general dearness of living, by the relative lowness of wages. The population according to last December's canvas was 336,985 showing an increase in the last five years of 48,496.

Frankfort-on-Maine was the first town in Germany to organise a Labour Bureau. The scheme was then imitated at Stuttgart, and it is now pretty general all over Germany.

The scheme is, however, of quite recent date, as the statute concerning its organisation was only issued on January 18th, 1895, and the Bureau was not opened until May 1st in the same year. Subjoined is a resumé of its history which was given to the Gainsborough Commission by its chairman and chief organiser, Herr Stadtrath Dr. Flesch, who is considered in Frankfort to be one of the greatest authorities on these matters in Germany. Dr. Flesch is a Town Councillor (Stadtrath) of this city. He kindly discussed the whole question with us for about a couple of hours in his office.

The preliminary work concerning the formation of this Labour Bureau commenced in June 1890. It was recognised that the scope of the Board of Arbitration between capital and labour, which already existed in Frankfort for effecting an understanding in matters concerning strikes and lock-outs, might be extended. It was further recognised that employers and employed had an interest in obtaining reliable and speedy information concerning the supply and demand of labour.

Those who had the matter at heart were at first confronted with a number of difficulties: but these have been surmounted. The

Chairman of the Board of Arbitration and a committee of members of the said Board were selected to supervise the matter. Concerning the Board of Arbitration between employers and employed it must be borne in mind that it is for the Board to bring the two sides together in order to discuss the question at issue. The Board cannot enforce their decision nor can they enforce the giving of evidence ; but if the two sides put in an appearance they do so with the intention of giving the evidence required. The Board consists of sixty-six members, 33 representing the employers, and 33 the employed. The Chairman is elected by the City Council.

The Labour Bureau is composed of a Committee of twelve, of which six members are employers of labour and six are elected by the workmen. At first there were difficulties of a general kind ; the workmen declared that they would not elect their members. Both sides, however, now make use of the Bureau. Its activity can be judged from the subjoined statistics which show that it has made steady progress in the direction aimed at :—

	Places vacant.	Applications for work.	Places filled through the medium of the Bureau.
In 1895 there were	7,947	14,740	6,492
„ 1896 „	13,746	14,979	9,699
„ 1897 „	16,894	21,053	12,445
„ 1898 „	19,519	23,450	15,297
„ 1899 „	23,594	30,692	18,655
„ 1900 „	26,601	40,080	20,881
„ 1901 „	28,048	47,435	22,072
„ 1902 „	31,374	55,152	25,358
„ 1903 „	36,410	60,000	29,216
„ 1904 „	42,471	66,340	34,050

In case of strikes the Bureau tells the workmen that there is a place free ; but the latter know that it is not trying to break the strike. The workman is at liberty to act as he likes. In this manner both sides are contented. At first it was said that the Bureau should be closed during a strike ; but the reply made by the Bureau was that this was quite unnecessary seeing that every workman knew from the newspapers that there was a strike. The Bureau is absolutely neutral.

The vacant places in the above table were distributed as follows :—

	Unskilled workmen.	Skilled workmen.	Women.
1895.....	2,112	4,025	355
1896.....	3,701	5,444	534
1897.....	4,426	6,922	1,107

	Unskilled workmen.	Skilled workmen.	Women.
1898.....	5,592	7,943	1,402
1899.....	7,361	9,041	2,253
1900.....	7,546	9,303	4,014
1901.....	7,498	8,651	5,913
1902.....	8,319	9,717	7,316
1903.....	8,843	11,618	8,755
1904.....	9,864	12,651	11,535

The figures themselves show that the advantages of such a Labour Bureau are fully appreciated and that the Bureau is accepted as a necessity for meeting the demands of labour and facilitating communication between employers and employed. But this is still more evident if we compare the figures showing the relation of places found to the number of the population, and the cost of each individual place secured :—

Cost per place  
secured.

Mks.

— 1895.	One place received to every	32.19	of the population.
1.08 : 1896.	”	24.23	”
.89 : 1897.	”	17.43	”
.83 : 1898.	”	16.34	”
.75 : 1899.	”	13.72	”
.77 : 1900.	”	12.74	”
.72 : 1901.	”	12.69	”
.64 : 1902.	”	11.91	”
.60 : 1903.	”	10.58	”
.57 : 1904.	”	9.34	”

It will naturally be asked, how can the Bureau get at the state of the labour market? Although absolute accuracy cannot be guaranteed, the Workmen's Insurance Bureau gives an approximate idea of the state of the labour market, because if a number of workmen are paying their weekly contributions, it is clear that that number must be obtaining employment as the contributions are only made when the men are employed.

Relatively to the population of the city, the Frankfort Labour Bureau is more utilized than that of any similar institution in Germany. Before it was established workmen out of place used either to have to go to employers to offer their services in person, or to assemble in the public squares to the annoyance of the general public, and, in bad weather, to their own inconvenience to boot. Obviously it was an immense improvement to have a Labour Bureau in which the workpeople were protected from the wind and weather, and could wait for occupation within reach of employers by telephone.

The statistics of the Labour Bureau do not, it is true, give an exact idea of the labour market, because places may be obtained through other channels, but by comparing the numbers of places obtained through the Bureau, and the lists of those who are paying to the Sick Fund, it is possible for one accustomed to these matters, to form an approximate idea of the state of the case.

Up to Christmas and the New Year there has been plenty of employment in Frankfort, but it is probable there will be for the next few weeks the falling off that is usual at this time of the year. The better class workmen, i.e., skilled workmen, have regular work, but what we have just said refers in general to the unskilled men. How many of these are unoccupied cannot well be estimated. But proof is at hand that the commercial Labour Bureau has become an institution of increasing value to commercial life during the ten years of its existence. Amongst the organised workpeople as well as amongst the others the conviction has been arrived at that it is not in the interests of labour to look upon the Labour Bureau as a weapon of strife.

Dr. Flesch who was a member of the deputation that visited England in order to study the administration of the Poor Law in England and similar questions assured us that in his opinion Germany in regard to the case for the poor was in advance of England in two respects, viz., as regards her Workmen's Insurance Laws, and as regards the administration of the Poor Laws. Whether or not British conditions permit of legislation for the working classes similar to that inaugurated by Kaiser Wilhelm I. and Prince Bismarck in the eighties, we will not venture to state in this place ; but we fancy that a good deal that we have said, and shall still have to say on the subject in these reports will force many people at home to give some attention to the subject. In May of last year Sir John Gorst stated in a paper published in the *FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW* :—" All Governments, for example, could imitate that of Germany, and make public provision for insurance against sickness, accident, and old age. In our country the first is entirely voluntary, the Insurance Societies are under no public control, nor is their solvency guaranteed. The prudent insure ; the unthrifty do not, but rely on charity or the Poor Law. It is clearly to the interest of the State that the sick should be cured as speedily and as efficiently as possible. . . . Old age pensions are a monument of the pledges and broken promises of political parties."

Our attention has been called to a paper by Mr. J. L. Bashford on " Infirmity and Old Age Relief in Germany, its moral and economical effects," read before the Home Relief Congress held at Edinburgh about eighteen months ago. This paper which bears the imprimatur of the Secretary of State for the German Imperial Home Office and is therefore authoritative contains an exhaustive, interesting and up-

to-date statement of the case; and we are glad to hear that it will be published as an Appendix to these Reports. We shall refer to it again in our report on Berlin. Meanwhile we will cite the following paragraph:—

“The insurance scheme affects workpeople, not vagrants, tramps or those that will not work. Nor are the workmen’s insurance laws a charitable scheme. They are unlike mere Poor Law relief measures, in that they confer on every insured person a legal right to a fixed modicum of assistance in case of sickness, accident, infirmity or, old age, in return for which they have themselves contributed an obolus to the fund from which they receive such assistance.”

That paragraph in Mr. Moreing’s Election Address, which deals with Old Age Pensions, draws attention in our opinion to a very important subject; and in connection therewith, we may state that we are noticing every day the effects of the system of the Workmen’s Insurance Laws, adopted in Germany. Mr. Moreing said:—

“I am of opinion that the aged deserving poor should receive Old Age Pensions. I hope that this important subject will have the early attention of Parliament, and that our Poor Law may be so altered that aged and infirm men and women, who, through no fault of their own, cannot earn enough to live upon, may have assistance without being made paupers, or ending their lives in the Workhouse.”

Dr. Flesch further remarked to us:—“In Germany the Poor Laws are not better than those in England; but they are better administered. I have seen the work done by the Salvation Army in England. You would find in Germany that the municipality would do that work themselves. I saw some of the English workhouses. We had heard that England was a rich nation; but we certainly saw more ragged people in the streets of England than you would see anywhere in Germany! You can walk about the streets of Frankfort round about the Rathaus, these being the slums of Frankfort; but you will not find them as bad as the slums of London or Birmingham. You will not see the rags here that you see there. Certainly the inhabitants of our Frankfort slums are not in regard to the situation of the slums so badly off as those who live in the slums of English cities. The houses with us are built on the flat system—three to five stories high; and the distance from these slums to the better parts of the town are not so great as in London for example. Consequently the children who live in our slums are not so far removed from the influence of civilisation, from the museums, the public parks, etc. as in English towns. Moreover, the small houses in the long streets inhabited by the poorest classes in England are quite as unsuitable for family life as the two-room tenements of the Frankfort poor. In England when you see an

indigent man, you tell him he can go to the Workhouse. They do not talk like this in Germany. We give money and other assistance—out-door relief, in order to help the people and to ward off the necessity of going to the Poor-House. This may be a dearer system; but it is more humane. I saw the great refuge of the Salvation Army, but am bound to say that we do not want institutions of this kind in the same degree. The English Guardians of the poor are not Guardians as we should call them.

“In Frankfort the city is sub-divided into forty districts for the care and supervision of the poor. Each of these districts has 18, 20, or 35 Guardians of the poor. Each Guardian has some 4 to 6 perhaps 8 to 10 families told off to him. It is endeavoured to select workmen as Guardians because they understand the needs of the people. Anyhow an effort is made to get hold of persons who are most connected with the people. Frankfort has in this manner five hundred Guardians of the poor and amongst them seventy lady visitors occupied with matters concerning the women and children. This system may perhaps cost more than the English system. No doubt it does; but it is important that five hundred of the better situated in the city get to know how the poor live!”

The Guardians referred to receive no remuneration for the work thus assigned to them.

Every municipality in Germany must tend its poor; and the persons who are called upon to be Guardians cannot refuse except under penalties. Only those who have an income over Mk. 900—roughly £45—pay rates to the city of Frankfort. Thirty-two per cent of the citizens are exempt from municipal rates.

Dr Flesch also remarked to us—“Your English well-paid workman is above the German well-paid workman as regards his general standard of life; but we have nothing over here resembling the Proletariat that you have in your large towns in England. And we have another method for tending the poor; with the exception of your Workhouses, you have no regular official system of looking after the poor.”

Through the courtesy and kindness of the officials of the Socialist party in Frankfort we obtained an insight into their activity. They invited us one afternoon to meet the chief representative of the organized workmen, and we conversed with them for about three hours about the object of our enquiry, when they gave us some interesting information.

We found that the cost of Workmen's dwellings in Frankfort is high. In consequence of this those families that have three-room dwellings try to let one room. Ten years ago a dwelling of three rooms and a kitchen cost from say £22 10s. to £24; in 1896 the rents suddenly rose to from £27 10s. to £35, and in general they

have remained at this height. Efforts were therefore made recently by a Building Society founded by the Frankfort Gewerkschaft (or Trades Union) to erect suitable and comfortable dwellings of two and three rooms and kitchen. The Society is called the "Volks Bau and Spar Verein." The Society was founded under favourable conditions in 1890 and the first block of houses was completed in 1892.

We were conducted over some of the dwellings. The houses are exceedingly well built; the style is attractive to the eye, and considerable skill has been shown in utilizing space in the rooms. Moreover, the three-room dwellings are provided in an ingenious manner with baths. All details about the doors, windows, banisters, etc., are artistically devised. This was the only place we have seen where we found baths in workmen's flats.

The first flat we inspected was one of two rooms and a kitchen inhabited by a book-printer earning 30/- per week. Leading out of the kitchen there is a sort of scullery for washing-up purposes. The rent is 30/- per month or £18 per year: in the town the rent for a similar dwelling would be at least 40/- to 45/- per month or £24 to £27 per annum. There is a cellar and attic to the apartment.

These dwellings may be looked upon as somewhat similar to the flats built in London by the County Council for 15/- per week with the exception that the outside appearance of these is far superior. There are so far 108 of them. There is a good laundry for the use of all the families in each block and a good drying place outside. Most of the dwellings are provided with a small balcony which is always an attraction to German families. In front of the blocks is an open space used as a playground for the children.

A second flat inspected was that of a bricklayer, who is now an official of the Gewerkschaft. His salary as such is £120 a year. The rent he pays is about £27 5s. per annum. The tenants here pay a water rate to the town levied according to the rent. A third flat consisted of one room and a kitchen. The tenant is an unskilled workman in a factory earning from 20/-, to 22/-, per week. The rent he pays is about £9 14s. per annum. He is free from State taxes. In the attic there is a bathroom for the use of all in this block who have the smaller dwellings.

In 1896 another block of dwellings was built, very pretty and artistic in appearance. There are 28 dwellings in it. It is intended now to continue to build only two-room dwellings, i.e., two rooms and a kitchen, as there is difficulty in letting the three-room dwellings. The third block which is about to be built will be still more attractive in appearance and will be provided with gardens. The Hungarian Minister of the Interior has written to ask the Society for the building plans of these blocks.



Another Building Society has erected cheaper small workmen's dwellings in the neighbourhood but these are not so good as those erected by the Gewerkschaft.

According to information supplied to us we understand that 32 per cent. of the inhabitants of Frankfort reside in dwellings of one room and a kitchen, 31 per cent. in two rooms and a kitchen, and 26 per cent. in dwellings of three rooms and a kitchen.

The Gewerkschaftshaus which comprises the offices, the restaurant and the various rooms for meetings and entertainments—a sort of Club House for the organised workmen—is a creation that deserves notice, being a monumental proof of the independent energy of the party. The house was completed in 1901. The land on which it was built cost about £11,130 and the buildings about £18,382. In the Restaurant refreshments can be obtained at moderate prices, the kitchen, etc., being run by the party itself. Of an evening, members come here with their families at their pleasure, and perfect order prevails. This mode of life is one of the advantages enjoyed by the German workmen over their English comrades: we mean the power of meeting together for social and intellectual recreation at moderate cost. We spent an evening at this Restaurant and conversed with several of our German comrades, and partook of their light beer—their usual beverage.

It is noteworthy that the consumption of spirits is diminishing here amongst the workpeople. The following extracts from the accounts are interesting:—\*

- Consumption of spirits in 1904, Marks 1284, equal to £63.
- Consumption of cider in 1904, Marks 7522, equal to £370.
- Consumption of wine in 1904, Marks 2821, equal to £135.
- Consumption of soda water in 1904, Marks 3623, equal to £177.
- Consumption of beer in 1904, Marks 86,106, equal to £4,220.

The number of persons who visited the Gewerkschaftshaus in 1904 amounted to 23,580 men and 6,324 women, total 29,904. Of these 15,072 men and 28 women were organised workmen and workwomen. The office correspondence increases from year to year; and information of all kinds is given. For example, 29,904 persons applied for information in 1904, of whom 15,072 were organised workpeople. For the last five years the number of organised workpeople in Frankfort has been increasing. Five years ago there were 7,500; the number is now about 25,000.

A feature in the Gewerkschaftshaus is the so-called "Refuge" where beds are given to journeymen workmen. The prices taken are 3½d., 4¾d., and 5¾d., per night. There are 97 beds in the establish-

\* In 1905 there was an increase of about £8 in the receipts from the sale of spirits, but a falling off of about £15 12s. for wine, and of £121 15s. for beer; whilst the consumption of cider increased by £40 and of soda water by £55.

ment. Precautions are taken to maintain cleanliness. All applicants are examined and each person is required to take a bath on entering. The clothes of those that are infested with lice are removed and disinfected in a special steam apparatus.

Dinner is supplied in the Restaurant for  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d., including soup, a choice from two dishes of meat with potatoes and vegetables; supper for  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d., choice from two plates of meat with potatoes. Beer costs  $1\frac{1}{3}$ d., per glass (12 pfennige). The beer consumption is on an average 7 hectoliters per day (156,063 gallons).

The number of persons who used the Refuge in 1904 was 27,747 of whom 21,335 were organised workmen.\*

The following may be accepted as the prices of some of the commodities for the household in Frankfort within reach of the working classes:—†

Ribs of beef, =  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. per Engl. lb; beef for boiling, 7d.; bacon  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d.; pork  $7\frac{3}{8}$ d.; best coal 1/1 per cwt.; best coke,  $1/5\frac{5}{8}$  per cwt.

The price of the 3lb. (German lb.) Frankfort WHEATEN loaf, made of the BEST WHEATEN FLOUR AND MILK at the Socialist (Gewerkschaft) bakery, where we saw it being made, costs now, as we were told there, 42 pfennige = 5d. At this rate a loaf weighing 4 Engl. lbs. could be had for 6d. Two years ago a similar 3lb. Frankfort loaf cost 35 pfennige =  $4\frac{1}{8}$ d., so that one of this kind weighing 4 Engl. lbs. would have then cost 5d.

The 4lb. (German) loaf made of rye and wheat— $\frac{2}{3}$  rye and  $\frac{1}{3}$  wheat—costs 52 pfennige = 6d. A loaf therefore of this kind weighing 4 Engl. lbs. would cost  $5\frac{1}{3}$ d. Two months ago the 4lb. (German) loaf at Frankfort cost 50 pf. i.e.  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d., so that a loaf weighing 4 Engl. lbs. would have cost  $5\frac{3}{8}$ d., whilst two years ago the price at Frankfort was 46 pf. =  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d., making the 4lb. loaf (English measure)  $4\frac{5}{9}$ d. nearly 5d.

The loaf which is generally used by the Frankfort workpeople is one made of wheat and rye flour, but there is very little wheat flour in it. It is a 4lb. (German measure) loaf costing 50 pfennige =  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d. Thus a loaf weighing 4 Engl. lbs. of this bread would cost at this rate  $5\frac{2}{9}$ d.

In general the price of RYE BREAD in Germany, which is the staple bread of Germans costs 10 pf. (=  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d.) per German lb.; so that a loaf weighing 4 Engl. lbs. of this kind of German bread should cost roughly  $4\frac{1}{3}$ d. i.e. less than  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d., whereas the British workman pays  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. or 5d. for the 4lb. wheaten loaf that he consumes.

At the time we were in Frankfort the German duty on wheat was

\* In 1905 these figures were 29,321 and 24,613 respectively.

† The price of meat has risen quite 2d. per Engl. lb. all round since last January.

$\frac{3}{6}$  per double cwt.\* We were told that the same artisans who in Berlin would earn from 60 to 80 pfennige (7d.—9½d.) per hour earn in Frankfort at most 55 pfennige (6½d.) per hour, the average being a little lower. The wages of the various branches have now been settled according to a tariff for the next few years—varying from 48 pfennige to 50 pfennige and 52 pfennige per hour, i.e. from nearly 6d. to 6½d.

The general feeling here amongst the organised workmen is that institutions and funds provided for the benefit of the workpeople by employers are injurious to the independence of the workpeople. On the other hand it is accepted that wages are improving in all branches.

One of the leading Socialists assured us that the consumption of horseflesh could not be attributed to the high tariffs, seeing that its consumption was confined generally to those who had a particular liking for this sort of meat, and did not affect workmen as such.

Bakers, butchers, waiters, and barbers have a character down here for betting, and the action of the Government in interfering with bookmakers is approved amongst the Socialists.

There is in general no excess of drinking amongst the working classes here. Some of them drink a good deal of beer, but the ordinary workman confines himself to one or two glasses at a sitting, some of them on Sundays going up to three or four.

The visit we paid to the Socialists' Stores and Bakery, was extremely interesting. The object of the Stores is to supply the working people with good food at low prices.

In the course of the evening that we spent at the Restaurant of the Gewerkschaftshaus we were introduced to a few of the members and amongst them to a cabinet-maker who was kind enough to offer to furnish us with an estimate of his household expenses in order to show that a Frankfort workman cannot make both ends meet on his wages. He has a wife and four children; two of the latter are at work. Subjoined is a copy of the document given to us, from which our readers can draw their own conclusions.

We abstain from any special comment thereon:—

#### PAYMENTS.

	Mks.	s.	d.	M. pf.	£	s.	d.
HOUSEHOLD DAILY EXPENSES—							
Rent.....	1	00		11			
Coal.....		32		3			
Bread.....		50		5			
White rolls.....		18		2			
Meat.....		80		9			
Sausage and eggs.....		60		7			
Coffee.....		21		2			

\* By August of this year the price of bread in Frankfort-on-Maine had not changed despite the duties on wheat and rye. Cf. note p. 90.

	Mks.	s.	d.	M. pf.	£	s.	d.
Salt .....	·02		$\frac{1}{4}$				
Lard .....	·14		$1\frac{3}{4}$				
Flour .....	·03		$\frac{3}{8}$				
Onions.....	·02		$\frac{1}{4}$				
Soap.....	·04		$\frac{1}{2}$				
Milk.....	·30		$3\frac{1}{2}$				
Sugar .....	·05		$\frac{5}{8}$				
Vegetables .....	·35		$4\frac{1}{8}$				
Butter, etc.....	·65		$7\frac{3}{4}$				
Total per day .....	5·51	5	$4\frac{3}{4}$				
Total per week .....				38·57	1	17	$9\frac{3}{4}$
<b>OTHER WEEKLY EXPENSES—</b>							
Contribution to State Insurance Funds—Sickness and Infirmity ...	·90		$10\frac{3}{4}$				
Additional Contribution to Sick Fund .....	·70		$8\frac{1}{4}$				
Insurance of family .....	·40		$4\frac{3}{4}$				
Burial Fund .....	·70		$8\frac{1}{4}$				
Fire Insurance .....	·08		1				
Sweep .....	·12		$1\frac{1}{8}$				
Light and matches .....	1·10	1	1				
Newspapers & Literature .....	·40		$4\frac{3}{4}$				
Political and Musical Societies .....	·30		$3\frac{1}{2}$				
Contribution to Trades' Union .....	·50		$5\frac{7}{8}$				
State & Communal Taxes .....	1·38	1	$4\frac{1}{4}$				
Kitchen utensils.....	·50		$5\frac{7}{8}$				
Tools—renewals .....	·25		$2\frac{7}{8}$				
Personal expenses of husband who works outside town .....	7·00	6	$10\frac{1}{4}$	14·33	14	$0\frac{1}{2}$	
Total per week .....				52·90	2	11	$10\frac{1}{4}$
i.e. Total for year				2750·80	134	16	5
Clothing per year for father, mother and two children—two being at work pay for their own clothing .....				300·00	14	14	1
				Mks. 3050·80	£149	10	6

## RECEIPTS.

	Mks.	£	s.	d.
Wages of father, 52 weeks at 40 Mks. per week .....	2080·00	101	19	3
Contributions of two children for board and lodgings—52 weeks at 7 Mks. each per week.....	728·00	35	13	8
		<hr/>		
Total receipts ...	2808·00	137	12	11
Deficit ...	242·80	11	17	7
		<hr/>		
	Mks. 3050·80	£149	10	6
		<hr/>		

We were permitted to pay a visit to the "Adler Fahrradwerke vormals Heinrich Kleyer"—the "Adler Bicycle Works, late Heinrich Kleyer's Works," which celebrated last year the 25th anniversary of their existence.

Bicycles, Motor-bicycles, Motor-cars and Type-writing Machines are manufactured here. These Works have developed from small beginnings and the Firm boasts that its success has been due to the steady pursuit of its aim, viz. : the combination of scientific training with diligence and energy. It was Heinrich Kleyer who introduced the manufacture of Dunlop Pneumatic tyres into Germany in 1890, and in Nov. 1892 he sent exhibits to England. In 1895 he resigned the agency for English bicycles, and English bicycles ceased to find a general market in Germany. In the following year Herr Kleyer was very successful at the Milan Exhibition and the International Exhibition at Chicago. In 1895 the business was transformed into a Company under the name "Adler Fahrradwerke vormals Heinrich Kleyer."

An inspection of these works was of special interest to us because they are an object lesson of how Germans, by sheer energy and industry, supported by the measures of their Government, sometimes succeed in ousting British manufactures in certain fields from their home market. An instance of this can be seen in the bicycle industry ; and it was this Firm that won the fight.

We were told how a German, Baron von Drais, constructed a two-wheeled machine in 1817, which was the prototype of the modern bicycle. The discoverer was looked upon as a fool for his pains, and in the end the Grand Duke of Baden deprived him of his rank as Chamberlain of the Court. He sank lower and lower in the social scale and died in 1851 abandoned by everybody, and in abject poverty. Subsequently Carlsruhe erected a monument to him and one of his earliest machines was purchased by the town to be kept in the Municipal Archives and the Germanic National Museum at Nuremberg has another, whilst the oldest of them is in

the possession of a private individual at Mannheim. It was a Frenchman, Michaux by name, who introduced one of the first important improvements to Drais' machine in 1862 ; and the German invention was ultimately perfected in other countries, notably in England. England had arrived at a higher grade of development in the technics of machinery, industry and economical life than all other countries. We read in a history of Heinrich Kleyer's Firm :—  
 "Thanks to her domestic and foreign commercial policy, to her favoured historic development and to many other factors, England's machine industry was at the beginning of the 19th century far ahead of every other country, so that her population very early arrived at a condition of well-to-doism. Under these circumstances England became the home of the bicycle, the land of the mechanical weaving-loom, of the first steam engine and of the first locomotive. . . . The manufacture of the bicycle subsequently spread to the United States of America."

It was long before Germany entered the field of industrial development ; and before she did so her inhabitants were comparatively poor. When, however, Germans began to compete with us and with other nations, her statesmen proceeded to upset the antiquated obstacles that had blocked her way towards progress and adopted a new economical policy which aimed at the protection of national work. The German Zollverein was founded ; freedom of trade was introduced ; a net of railways was constructed that opened up the coal and iron industries of the country ; a uniform currency was introduced ; and many other reforms were enacted that contributed to promote Germany's industrial development. Just at the time too of a favourable period of development, at the end of the seventies—in 1879—Bismarck inaugurated his policy of protection—or 'protection of national work' ; and in the opinion of this Firm an impetus was thereby given that enabled Germany to progress and to emerge from poverty into comparatively good circumstances. The people had been technically trained for the new conditions and were able to enter the field of competition with every chance of success.

Just about this time Heinrich Kleyer took to the manufacture of bicycles on a small scale, but the general public laughed at the new innovation. He learnt to ride a bicycle himself ; and in 1881 founded the 'Frankfort Bicycle Club'—the first of its kind in Germany and subsequently the most important on the Continent. A demand for bicycles was ultimately created ; and meanwhile Heinrich Kleyer became the exclusive agent for English Firms—such as the Coventry Machinists Co., Coventry ; Singer and Co. ; and Starley Bros., of Coventry. He conceived, however, the idea of constructing bicycles in Germany, and entered into an arrangement for this purpose with a Frankfort machine manufacturing

Firm. The press supported his efforts; and subsequently he founded his own factory for the purpose. Just as he was beginning to make headway, Dunlop's invention of pneumatic tyres was announced. For ten years Kleyer's Firm had been trying to compete against English machines; and now in order not to be beaten Herr Kleyer acquired the right to supply bicycles with these tyres in Germany. In the words used by the Firm:—"Then came the year 1892—English machine manufacturers were to be confronted with a surprise, reminding us of the days of old Borsig. At the commencement of the forties a competition took place at the Stettin Terminus Station at Berlin between the English locomotives and Borsig's locomotives; and thanks to the energy of Borsig, Schwartzkopf and Hoppe, English locomotives were ousted from Prussian railways! Half a century later a similar proceeding was enacted in regard to bicycle manufacture—not in Germany, but in England herself."

The reference made in this last sentence is to the "International Stanley Show" that was held in London in November 1892. Heinrich Kleyer exhibited German-made bicycles there and the English press published complimentary notices on them. A reaction ensued in Germany; and the general demand for English bicycles ceased there. Herr Kleyer resigned his agency for English-made bicycles and thus terminated the struggle between England and Germany in this field—English manufactures being practically ousted by German manufactures, the way having been smoothed for the young German bicycle industry, in the opinion of the Firm, by Prince Bismarck's Protection policy introduced in 1879. By 1896 the demand for the Adler bicycles was so great that the Firm, which had been transformed into a Company the year before, had to enlarge its works. In the first year of its new activity it paid a dividend of 15 per cent., which rose in 1898 to 20 per cent. Last year (1904) it paid 16 per cent. In 1898 its 100,000th bicycle was constructed; and a month later an entertainment was given to celebrate the occasion. Herr Kleyer then gave out that every official and workman who had been in the employ of the Firm for five years was to receive a Savings Bank book registering a deposit equivalent to a month's salary or wage respectively as a souvenir of the success the Firm had made in bicycle-making.

In 1898 the Firm introduced its patent "Empire" type-writing machine; and this was followed up by the Benzin-motor-tricycle; and subsequently the manufacture of motor-cars was taken up. The construction of type-writing machines, motor-cars and motor-bicycles is increasing. In 1880 the Firm had a turnover of about £460; this sum had increased to about £60,000 in 1892; and in 1904, it was about £350,000. The turnover in 1905 was £434,398.

In regard to the Firm's type-writing machines we may note that originally only American machines were sold in Germany. None were manufactured in Germany. But this Firm purchased the patent of an American machine, and by 1898 was in a position to sell its own machines. In due course this American machine was improved in order to suit German requirements ; and the new Adler type-writing machine is now looked upon as a first-class GERMAN machine and is exported in large numbers to all parts of the world as such.

Our walk through the shops was an exceedingly interesting one. The tools used here are exclusively of German and American make—there are no English ones. Nor is any trade done with England. Every day from 80 to 100 bicycles are turned out here, besides type-writers and motor-cars.

The men work here for 10½ hours. On Saturdays work ceases at 5 p.m. About 3,000 men are employed here. The average wage for unskilled workmen is 24 pfennige per hour (2½d.)—i.e. 15/ per week. The wage for skilled labour is from 5/ to 8/ per day. Wages are paid on Saturdays. When the works were founded there were 300 hands employed ; now the number has risen to 3,000. Two years ago there were only 2,000. The shops are all up-to-date and exceedingly well equipped and ventilated. The Firm pays the whole of the contract price to the contractors—i.e. to the leading hand, who naturally gets the labour as cheap as he can.

This Firm has also extended its attention to the social welfare of its workpeople, although it is the butt of very violent attacks on the part of the Socialists. Certainly the men toil under very favourable hygienic and technical conditions in the shops ; and the members of the Firm declare that they are imbued by the idea that a workman displays more interest in his work if the conditions around him have an air of comfort and are conducive to health. The light and ventilation of the shops is perfect and all kinds of methods are resorted to for drawing off dust and keeping the premises clean and the air pure.

There are baths in the immediate neighbourhood of the Works, so the Firm, instead of erecting bath-houses of its own, gives the men free tickets every week in order that they may bathe free of charge at the establishment situated in the neighbourhood.

Rooms are being set apart provided with means for drying the clothes of the men when they come wet to their work ; and light, well-ventilated mess-rooms exist for those whose dinner is brought by members of their family. Warmers are provided in the rooms for keeping the food warm.

No dwelling-houses have been erected by the Firm for its workpeople ; but certain building societies are financially supported.



Very good flats are thus at the disposal of the men which are healthy and comparatively cheap. The people are in a position to select their own houses, and as the houses are not the property of the Firm, there is no question of their losing a particle of their independence—the reproach that is generally levelled against those Firms that build dwellinghouses for their employees.

The Firm submits that it gives good wages for good work and that the higher the quality of the work the higher are the wages. It also declares that the maximum wage it gives suffices to cover the immediate wants of a workman's family where there are not too many children. The wages paid by this Firm are said to be higher than those paid elsewhere in Frankfort.

In 1895 a donation of £1,000 was made by Herr Kleyer to inaugurate a Fund for giving pecuniary assistance when needed, to officials and workpeople in the service of the Firm. Every year a sum is added to this Fund out of the profits of the Firm. It now amounts to £5,000. On occasion, too, sick leave is given to men in need of change of air, and the wages are not suspended during their absence. Over and above these private and voluntary donations, the Firm's contributions under the State Workmen's Insurance Laws amount to about £3,000 per annum.

(Signed) G. W. BROWN.  
 G. PROCTOR.  
 J. MANN.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 H. CALVERT.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHELL.

## REPORT X.

### NUREMBERG AND AUGSBURG.

After spending over three weeks in Western Germany amongst German workmen we may be permitted to express a general opinion of them. We do not hesitate to say that as far as our observation goes they are pleasant comrades, steady and sober men, in general beyond doubt thrifty and orderly, exemplary fathers and husbands. They have those qualities that make good citizens; and appear to be a docile set of people who desire only fair treatment and fair wages.

We have come in contact with a portion of the industrial workmen—in fact our enquiry cannot, on account of the short time at our disposal, extend to agricultural labourers or to those workers that labour under exceptional and local conditions of underpaid work. From what has come under our notice indirectly, however, and from what we have heard it would appear that in parts of Germany there are workers whose lot permits of considerable amelioration. This is a question however, that must be left to German workmen themselves to solve. The lot of these people does not affect the international labour market. They do not compete with us.

The German skilled workmen do not appear as a class to receive money wages equal to those earned by good skilled workmen in England and they work longer hours. In some instances they are on a level with us, but on the whole we think that we stand above them in this respect. It appears to us, on the other hand, that the good skilled English workman works with greater zest and interest in his work and accomplishes more in an equal time, indeed accomplishes more during his shorter hours than the German workman achieves in his longer hours. This is perhaps due to hereditary instinct which has been more highly trained and developed throughout generations in England. German workmen no doubt plod along

steadily; but English workmen buckle to their work in a more business-like, energetic way than their comrades in the country we have been visiting. The former bend their backs more assiduously. They stand out for high wages; but when in receipt of high wages they instinctively feel that the employers are entitled to have good work in return.

We may go a step further. We have seen really good German skilled workmen, applying themselves steadily to their tasks; but we cannot honestly say that we have seen any form of labour in which they can excel us. We admit that the average German workman is in general more thrifty than are many of our comrades at home. His habits as regards drinking and the disposal of his earnings are on the whole more commendable from an economic point of view than the habits of those we refer to at home.

When we turn to unskilled labour, however, another picture meets our eye. The unskilled working man in Germany is undoubtedly as well, and in many cases relatively better paid than unskilled working men in England. Moreover, it appears to us that the unskilled workmen in Germany are in general willing to work. This may be a consequence of the discipline to which they have been subjected when serving in the army or navy, for all Germans are called upon to learn how to defend their country as soldiers or sailors. During our stay in Germany we have nowhere seen clusters of workmen hanging about idle and unemployed in the streets.

In regard to other conditions of the working-men's lives in Germany we are struck by the care taken of them by the State and by the disposition on the part of employers to assist them in ways which are wholly unknown to us in England. This made a strong impression upon us all before we had been very long in Germany, so that one of us gave vent to his astonishment in a speech delivered just before Christmas at Cologne. The words used were:—"When I entered upon my mission I did so not exactly without prejudice, which to some extent had been created by the British press, but I must admit this prejudice has soon vanished. First of all, I was struck by the many institutions for the welfare of the German working classes, mostly brought into life by the employers and the State in a comparatively short space of time whilst on the other hand similar institutions in England exist only where they have been created by the workmen themselves."

The factors referred to in these words, together with others must be borne in mind when one deals with German conditions. The working man in Prussia pays nothing at all for the schooling of his children; in Saxony he pays nothing for the third child, and only just over 1d. each per week for the first and second, but if he is in straightened circumstances such circumstances are taken into con-

sideration even with regard to the latter payment. Owing to the social legislation that has been enacted within recent years a workman receives compensation paid by his employer for accidents sustained in the course of work; he and his employer insure him against sickness, premature infirmity and old age; so that his future is provided for with the assistance of his employer and the State. Further, many employers, as we have already shown, confer benefits of various kinds, material and intellectual, on their employees.

We have been assured, however, by representatives of organised labour that the whole system of beneficial institutions conferred on the workpeople by employers is a swindle, aimed merely at keeping the workpeople under manacles, that is to say of attaching them to the particular factory and of preventing them from joining any form of organisation with their comrades for the purpose of ameliorating their condition, or of participating in any movement that affects the weal of the working classes—i.e., the increase of wages or the diminution of the hours of work. We regret to find that these views obtain amongst organised workpeople, for we are satisfied that there is not the remotest shadow of evidence for the charge. We also found that Radicals and Socialists with whom we came in touch, and we are assured that this holds good for the whole mass on the left side of political thought in the German Empire, are Free Traders who submit that the imposition of tariffs on foodstuffs raises the prices of the necessaries of life and decreases the purchasing power of wages. We have also heard it said by those representing these views that the said Tariffs do not directly or indirectly increase the remuneration or demand for labour, but that on the other hand they cripple and check the powers of the workpeople to compete in the labour market of the world, in that they increase the cost of the raw materials for manufacture. In their opinion tariffs do not further the interests of the people of Germany. It is reasonably open to politicians to hold these views, and we reproduce them without comment in order not to expose ourselves to the possibility of a reproach that we wilfully neglected or suppressed the opinions of a powerful party in the Empire. At the same time we must remind our readers that we have established by incontrovertible statistics given in our previous reports that the wages of the working classes have risen during the past decade and, compared with the wages of thirty years ago, risen enormously.

We must add that another policy appears to prevail in ruling spheres, the object of which is to obtain employment for the vast and annually increasing numbers of working people clamouring for labour, on the principle that the main thing in a workman's life is to have the wherewithal to purchase his bread and not to haggle over the question whether the loaf costs a halfpenny more or less. If a workman has the certainty of five shillings in his pocket, it does not much matter whether he pays a halfpenny more or less for his loaf

of bread, provided circumstances and perhaps the jeopardised existence of another section of the workers of the country demand it. But if his chance of obtaining employment is menaced by rivals in other countries; if he sees foreigners taking the bread out of the mouths of his wife, his children and himself; then he is forced to squirm, and a cheap loaf of bread will serve him nothing if he has not got the wherewithal to purchase it.

Wherever we have been in Prussia we have seen no lack of employment amongst industrial workpeople; on the contrary there has been everywhere a demand for skilled workmen which could not be supplied. Even amongst the artisans and unskilled workmen there has been no abnormal number of 'unemployed' anywhere for this season of the year. Throughout Germany, despite the dearness of meat and the existence of a duty of  $3/6$  on roughly 220 English pounds of wheat, no German municipality is being harrassed by an 'unemployed' problem; whilst in Great Britain, which boasts of the advantage of Free Trade and of untaxed wheat, the streets are thronged with strong men who have no work to do, and charity is being generously lavished upon them without much avail.

Further there are no over-filled Workhouses here, for there are not even any Workhouses to fill with ablebodied men and women. The Poor Houses and homes for the sick and aged poor in Germany are for those that are disabled and unfit for work; the Workhouse, or German Arbeitshaus is for the vagrant and the outcast who will not work and is therefore condemned to a life of correction. We do not say that this difference of conditions that we find prevailing in Germany is due to her fiscal policy; but we are bound to sweep away the illusions concerning German labour that have hitherto obtained at home.

Some English newspapers have of late been giving very misleading figures about the price of bread in Germany. We have seen and eaten German rye bread at every town we have visited. We have everywhere been told by the German working man that he prefers rye bread to wheaten bread, and that he would not at any price give up his rye bread for the best of wheaten bread that we eat in England. Whatever prejudices may be entertained against rye bread, it is impossible to gainsay the fact that it is both nourishing and sustaining. The price of a loaf of German rye bread weighing 4 English lbs. would cost according to our enquiries in the towns we have visited from  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. to about  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d.; and we gather that in general 4 English lbs. of rye bread as made in Germany would cost almost everywhere a trifle less than  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. At Gainsborough our quartern wheaten loaf costs  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d.

At Höchst, near Frankfort, as we pointed out in a previous report people eat white wheaten bread as well as bread made of wheat and rye flour mixed. A loaf of white bread made at Höchst weighing 4

English lbs. should cost  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. The Gainsborough quartern loaf costs  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d., so that the difference in price is hardly perceptible. Where then does the extreme pressure on the German consumer come in in regard to the price of bread as compared with the English consumer? We must note that Germany feeds nine-tenths of her population from her own grain. Rye, we are told, costs Mks. 26.25 per 220 English lbs.; and rye flour for bread costs Mks. 23.50 per 220 English lbs. The price of wheat flour used by the German baker for white bread is Mks. 24.75 equal to  $24\frac{3}{17}$  for 100 kilograms equal to roughly 220 English lbs.

The working classes in Germany do not drink much tea; they take coffee, for which they pay  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per lb.; sugar is a trifle dearer than in England—from  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; butter costs much the same, and is much better. Tea can be purchased by the working classes for from about  $1\frac{1}{6}$  to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per lb.

The alleged prices of sweets, beef and clothes as cited in Gainsborough as coming from one of us are fictitious, and their citation is due to an incomprehensible misunderstanding. A tailor with whom we conversed, one who is occupied with the making of clothes for the working classes, burst out laughing when we told him that it had been reported in England that a workman had to pay £6 10s. over here for a suit. He said you could buy a bad suit for 15/- but that the suits that working men would select from could be had at 30/-, 40/- and 50/-.

We have eaten very good sweets for 60 pfennige (7d.) a German lb.—i.e.  $1\frac{1}{8}$  English measure, so that the price per English lb. would represent  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d. per lb. not  $1\frac{1}{6}$ ! But sweets at 40 pfennige, i.e.  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. per German lb. (equivalent to  $4\frac{1}{4}$ d. per English lb.) are at least quite as good as those we get at Gainsborough for 4d. or 5d. per lb.; and when the Gainsborough orator declared that beef cost  $1\frac{1}{11}$  per lb., he was mystifying himself and his hearers. The average price of ribs of beef now in Germany, where meat is abnormally dear, is  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. per English lb.; ordinary beef costs about  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 9d. per English lb. according to the locality. Streaky bacon is almost everywhere obtainable for from  $10\frac{3}{4}$ d. to  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. According to latest intelligence the abnormal price of meat will shortly cease.\*

The German workman's beer costs from  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per glass; and his recreations are not costly and he can share his Sunday frugal amusement with his wife and children. These consist at most in an excursion to the immediate neighbourhood of the town he lives in where he sits in some restaurant or garden according to the season; the young men and maidens go in for dancing—a diversion that costs them at most 3d. to  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per week, not including refreshments—if they are content with their Sunday hop.

\* Prices did go down early in the summer for a while, but rose again shortly afterwards. These high prices for meat are due to an inexplicable policy of the Government.

## NUREMBERG.

In Bavaria we visited Nuremberg and Augsburg. The industry of Nuremberg has considerably increased since 1869 when the limitations that hampered trade were repealed. It contains now 295,862 inhabitants and is the second largest city in Bavaria—Munich, the capital, being the largest. Exhibitions were held here in 1882 and 1896 and another will be held this year. The principal firms are the 'Vereinigte Maschinenfabrik Augsburg, und Maschinenbau-Gesellschaft Nürnberg' a company that builds bridges, railway and tramway cars, engines, etc., and has works also at Augsburg; the 'Siemens-Schuckert Werke'—(Electrical Engineering Works); the pencil factory of Johann Faber; and the Nuremberg toy factories. Nuremberg's golden age was in the 16th century and it still presents a mediæval aspect with its town walls, towers, bastions and moats that have been allowed to stand despite the extension of the city. Its houses are still remarkable for their high pitched roofs. The true spirit of upright industry continues to prevail in the Bavarian city so that the continuity of its past wealth is preserved.

We were allowed to visit the Nuremberg works of the Siemens-Schuckert Firm and before being conducted round them had a long conversation with some of the Directors who most courteously discussed all the interesting matters connected with the activity of the Firm.

These works are of very special interest to us because like those of Krupp at Essen and other big German works they commenced their activity in a very small way. Johann Siegmund Schuckert, who founded the Firm, was the son of simple parents and began life at thirteen years of age as an apprentice mechanic in his native town of Nuremberg after having been educated at the municipal elementary school. According to the custom of those days he began his journeyman training at the age of 17. After the war of 1866 he returned to Nuremberg and devoted his spare time to the study of technical literature and English, and started for America in 1869, and after working in various mechanical shops entered that of Edison. He returned to Germany in 1873, but made up his mind to go back for good to the United States. Owing to the illness of his mother and the counsel of his friends, however, he stopped in Nuremberg and hired a small shop and gradually through the study of electricity made such progress that his Firm shortly acquired world-wide reputation.

We will omit dwelling further on the interesting history of the Firm and will state that over 5,400 hands are now employed here including 600 women. The wages given by the Firm are higher than anywhere else in the town. The hours of work are 57 per

week for men and 51 for women. The mid-day pause for dinner is from noon to 1-30 p.m. for men and from 11-45 a.m. to 1-45 p.m. for women. On Saturdays work ceases at 4-30 p.m. Wages are paid by time or piece work and overtime is remunerated at the rate of 25 per cent above the usual time standard, i.e. time and a quarter.

The mechanics in the shops earn from 6d. to 8½d. per hour, doing piece work—the head man £12 10s. per month or £150 pounds a year. Moulders receive 30/- to 40/- per week—piece work averaging from 6d. to 7¾d. per hour.

Women employed in the works average from 17½d. to 2½d. per hour. Married women when they have a child receive a donation of 35/- from the Firm's Sick Fund.

A desire to see England adopt the metric system was expressed here, for the measurements in all drawings connected with England have to be converted.

The Firm have established a number of institutions for the benefit of their employees. For example:—There are Stores, founded in 1895, for the exclusive benefit of the officials and employees of the Firm. All household commodities can be obtained here.

Subjoined we give a price list of articles of consumption in Nuremberg:—

Beef	9½d.	formerly	7½d.	} per Engl. lb.
Veal	9d.	„	7½d.	
Pork	10d.	„	7½d.	
Mutton	9½d.	„	7½d.	
Bacon	10½d.	„	9½d.	

A loaf of rye bread, or a loaf made of wheaten and rye flour, weighing 4 Engl. lbs. costs in Nuremberg 5½d.; a loaf made of wheaten flour of the same weight costs just under 7d.

Workmen's dwellings in the town cost for two rooms and a kitchen £4 2s. 6d. per room per year, i.e. £12 7s. 6d. per annum; for three rooms and a kitchen and alcove about £16 10s. 0d. Three-room dwellings are usually preferred in Nuremberg, apparently because the families are generally large.

The Building Society founded in September, 1896 by the Firm's workpeople, under the auspices of the Firm, has erected good houses. The Society is managed by a board of six members, viz.: three regular members and their deputies, one of the three regular members being elected by the Firm. The capital of about Mks. 3,400,000 (£166,666) was for the most part raised on mortgage as follows:—



The State lent Mks. 1,100,000	(£53,921)	at 3 & 3½ per cent.
The Firm and private persons „ „	1,200,000	(£58,824) at 3½ per cent.
Various Bankers „ „	1,000,000	(£49,020) at 4 & 4½ per cent.
The remainder was made up by shares and deposits of employees of the Firm .....	100,000	(£4,901)
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	Mks. 3,400,000	(£166,666)
	<hr/>	<hr/>

The rent for the flats is £8—£9 for two rooms and a kitchen; £9 10s.—£11 for three rooms and a kitchen. Each flat has a separate cellar and attic assigned to it; and there is a laundry and drying place for all the families of each house.

Between the rows of houses there is a capital playground for the children. We visited some of the flats. Most of the tenants earn from 25/- to 30/- as wages per week, and meat is consumed in the family nearly every day. Besides being 30 per cent dearer, the town flats are not nearly so good as these. "The women," said the steward of the dwellings, "are not absent from home on rent days! They come to my office and pay their rent regularly. The sum total of these rents amounts to Mks. 43,000 (about £2,100) every quarter; to-day is the 4th of January and I am enabled to tell you that all rents due on the 1st have been paid. Almost every quarter rents are paid with the same punctuality."

A Nuremberg working-man's family generally consists of four or five children, in some cases indeed the number amounts to 12 and 14. When the Building Society was founded there were only about 283 members; now there are 1345 of whom 177 new members joined in 1904. Each member must hold a share representing £5 which can be acquired by the payment of weekly instalments of at least 3½d. It should be noted that a new flat is assigned by lot in order to avoid all semblance of favouritism. The Firm has never had one of its flats standing empty. There are about 724 flats of which 39 consist of two rooms, a kitchen, etc.; 606 of three rooms, a kitchen, etc.; and 79 of four rooms, a kitchen, etc.

The Firm has a Sick Fund of its own, which existed before 1885, when the compulsory State Sick Fund was inaugurated. This Sick Fund has been modified in order to meet the requirements of the Statute Law, and is subject to State supervision. In order to meet the demands of the Fund weekly contributions are made by the members. The Firm pays ⅓ and the employees ⅔ of the amount of these weekly contributions; and over and above this the Firm pays the cost of administration of the Fund. Aid is given as follows for a maximum period of 26 weeks:—

1. Medical attendance and medicines, etc. (If necessary, patients are taken to the hospital where they are treated free of charge).
2. Sick allowances ranging from 9½d. to 2/5½ per week.
3. Allowances for women during their confinement.
4. Burial money, ranging from 30/- to £6 2s. 6d.

All persons connected with the Firm whose remuneration is less than £100 per annum must belong to this fund. On December 31st, 1904, there were 5114 members. The number of sick days paid for in the year was 43,518.

There is also a Pension Fund for the workpeople and office officials of the Firm as well as for their widows and orphans. The Fund amounted on October 12th, 1905, to £162,070. The Fund comprises 9,116 members divided as follows:—1,410 male officials of the Firm, 42 female officials, 7,015 workmen, 649 female workers. Of the allowances £3,236 were given as pensions, £2,412 as allowances to widows and subventions for education. The pensions vary from £13 5s. after ten years, to £44 5s. after 35 years' service for men; and £8 after ten years' service, to £26 10s. after 35 years' service for women; the scale being drawn up for every year between these two periods. Widows receive a percentage of their late husbands' wages as pension according to the number of years the husbands were in the employ of the Firm, viz.:—

50	per cent	if the husband had served	25 to 30 years	
33½	"	"	"	10 to 25 years
25	"	"	"	5 to 10 years

After ten years' service, all employees obtain the right to a pension in case of premature infirmity or in case of the death of the head of the family.

During the half hour's breakfast-pause the men may purchase beer from the Firm for 1½d. i.e. just under 1¼d. for ⅞ of a pint. Any profits accruing from the sale of beer are handed over to a special fund for affording assistance to the workpeople in case of unexpected or special distress. Workmen employed in the smithies are given tea and milk gratis during the hot season of the year.

There is a board of arbitration for settling questions of dispute between employers and employed, and the Firm tries to concede as much as possible to the wishes of its employees.

On January 12th, 1897, an Apprentice Continuation School was founded by the Firm for the children of its workpeople.

The Baths were opened on March 1st, 1897, for officials and workmen in the service of the Firm. The Baths themselves can be used gratis; but just under ½d. is charged for towels and soap. In November 4928 baths were taken. The figures since the opening

were as follows up to 1901-2 :

1897-98	Baths taken	72,717
1898-99	" "	85,700
1899-00	" "	85,627
1900-01	" "	81,800
1901-02	" "	68,100

After going round the Siemens-Schuckert Works we visited one of the municipal elementary schools which is used almost entirely for the children of workmen employed in the factories in its immediate neighbourhood and for the children of other kinds of workmen.

The baths on the premises are much to be admired. It is not compulsory for the children to use them if they are physically weak. Boys bathe on fixed days of the week; girls on the other days. Another highly commendable institution of this school is the giving of meals to poor and needy children. It is not of the nature of poor relief, so that the father is not deprived of his civic rights. The meals consist of breakfast, dinner, and afternoon refreshment paid for by various independent societies. A special room is also assigned here for use during the dinner hour for those children who live too far from the school to go home for dinner.

The director of the school kindly took us into some of the class rooms so that we could see the children at their work. The first class room we entered was for lads of six years—all of them intelligent boys, well clad and looking as if they were well fed. We were then taken into a girls' class room. The pupils were ten years old and were doing arithmetic. They were all bright and looked happy. We were struck by the tidiness of their appearance; and in reply to our question whether they had enough to eat at home, the unanimous and immediate reply was in the affirmative.

In another boys' class, of lads of eleven years of age, they all told us they were well fed at home.

All the children here were the offspring of workmen. In school they were bright and intelligent; in the play-ground it was patent to us that they were not worried by physical or mental trouble. The boys and girls alike were clean and tidy in their appearance. Nobody could say from the looks and dress of the children that they were ill-fed or indigent. They were the picture of good health and were clearly well cared for by their parents.

Herr Johann Faber allowed us to go through his pencil works. We saw a number of men here who had worked in the factory for over 25 years, so it did not appear that the occupation was deleterious to the health. We spoke to a man of 59 years of age who assured us that he had always enjoyed good health.

The Firm has a sick fund which was inaugurated a few years ago.

More women than men are employed at Johann Faber's, which is the largest pencil factory in Germany. The Firm makes a boast of the excellent quality of its goods. We were sorry to hear that a belief prevails in Nuremberg that in England people have taken to prefer cheap inferior goods in the way of pencils instead of a first-class article; and that pencils of low grade of quality are dumped upon the British market by the Americans. The craving for cheap and bad goods is said to prevail now in England, where the public taste has deteriorated! People here say that in former years it was quite the contrary. The Americans, it is submitted, make good stuff for themselves but pass on their inferior goods to England!

Suction pipes are used in these works to take off the dust.

The hours of work are  $9\frac{3}{4}$ , viz., from 7 to 11-45 a.m., and from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m., closing at 5-30 p.m. on Saturdays. There are 58 hours per week. The wages of the men begin at 15/- per week, and go up to about 40/-; those of the women commence at 10/- and can go up to 22/-. The lowest wage of all is 8/-.

A pencil in these works goes through sixteen stages.

## AUGSBURG.

In 1818 the population of Augsburg numbered 19,800; in 1840 this number had increased to 36,800; it is now 94,000. Formerly the town went in for textile industry alone; since 1844 it has been known also for machine building.

We obtained permission from the Directors of the "Vereinigte Maschinen Fabrik Augsburg und Maschinen Gesellschaft Nürnberg." (The United Augsburg Machine Factory and Nuremberg Machine Company), and from the Directors of the "Mechanische Baumwollen Spinn und Weberei" (Mechanical Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills) to visit their respective works and mills.

The Augsburg branch of the Machine Factory employs 3,100 hands; but the Firm also has works at Nuremberg and Gustavsburg so that the total number of workmen in its employ is over 10,000. The total amount paid per annum now in wages by the Firm is £553,431, and the total annual production is now valued at about £1,960,784 (Mks. 40,000,000) or roughly £2,000,000.

Amongst the specialities of these works we may mention Diesel engines, printing machines, steam engines, turbines, etc., etc. The number of Diesel engines supplied to England is not great; but recently one of 80 h.p. was sent to London. They are made here in large numbers for Germany, South America, Russia, the Balkans and Austria-Hungary. By January of this year 320 such engines

had been supplied by these works to Russia, Germany and the Balkan countries. The Diesel engine is very much used in Russia because it is worked with oil or naphtha. We saw a 450 h.p. triple cylinder engine that the Firm intended to exhibit in May at the Nuremberg exhibition.

The Diesel engine is of a vertical type and can be manufactured up to any horse-power. This type of engine is very economical, indeed it is said here to be far more economical than any other engine. We noted that the Company adapt themselves to their market and make the machine that is wanted. Their works are very interesting and there is a good deal to see here. Everything is first class and up to date here. Two days before we arrived, two Japanese officers of the Japanese Imperial Navy were here to look over the works. They had arrived from England and were travelling through Germany to see if they could pick up any new hints or general information.

Only a few printing machines are sent by this Firm to France. We were shown a quick printing press made for Moscow, a very beautiful machine, that turned out 100,000 copies daily, and we were told that a big business had been hitherto done with Russia under the existing Customs Treaty, but that some anxiety was entertained as to what might be the outcome of the new Tariff which was to come into force on March 1st, by which the duty was raised to 50 per cent.

When going round the factory our attention was again called to the point upon which we have laid stress in previous reports, namely the absence of English machines. This company used to have English machines, but they have been replaced by American ones. The gentleman who took us round said: "I have never seen an Agent in Augsburg, whilst American Agents come to us regularly, several times in the year. No doubt there are several machine factories of note in England but they do not send their Agents to us." These remarks again confirmed the remarks made by Mr. J. L. Bashford, in the October number of the FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW in his essay on "Technical Education in Germany" which were subsequently contradicted by "Engineering."

The canteen here is well appointed. For us it is a novel feature of a factory. The men can come here and obtain all sorts of refreshment at moderate prices. We had a most excellent breakfast here, and as we had left Nuremberg at 4-15 a.m. for our day's visit to Augsburg we were in a position to appreciate the fare. Bavarian beer is sold here at just over 2½d. for 1¾ pints which is nearly equivalent to 1½d. per pint. The Bavarians get through a deal of beer and here it can be consumed *ad libitum*, but the men never get drunk. The hours of work are from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. with

pauses. Fifty-eight hours per week is the number of hours required of the men. On Mondays work begins at 7 a.m., and on Saturdays it is stopped at 5 p.m. The day before all Church holidays work ceases at 2 p.m., and there is then no dinner pause.

The men down here as well as at Nuremberg are a fine set, muscular, and good at their work.

Wages are paid by the Firm every fortnight—on Fridays. A master mechanic earns about £5 15s. per week, a mechanic in the shop 44/6 and up to 55/- including overtime. A turner receives from 4d. to 8½d. per hour, piece work; a smith from 4/3 to 7/2 per day. An ordinary unskilled day labourer earns here from Mks. 3·90 to Mks. 4·50 per day—i.e. 3/10 to 4/5 per day. Apprentices work for four years and commence to receive pay after the first month. They earn from 8/- to 10/- per week. A general feeling of satisfaction seems to prevail in these works.

The usual funds for the payment of allowances during sickness, and pensions for old age, and advances to workmen in need are given here.

There are also 19 blocks of houses containing 127 workmen's flats, varying from 3 to 5 rooms, with kitchen, cellar and attic and a small garden, at rents varying from £3 17s. to £11 10s. per annum. They are provided with twelve laundries, and ironing and drying rooms and bleaching grounds. There are also playgrounds for the children of the workmen and a mess-room in the Works, with arrangements for keeping the food of the men warm. There are also dwellings for officials of the Firm containing up to 8 rooms.

There were 1,995 cases of sickness in 1904 and 44,788 days of sick relief that had to be treated by the administrators of the Sick Fund. For home relief £3,111 were spent and £243 for treatment in hospitals—total £3,354.

Of the employees who have been 25 years in the service of the Firm, 243 are workmen, 24 foremen and 18 officials, who have received presents as such varying from £2 10s. to £25, making a total of roughly £1,250.

One employee of the Firm is receiving a pension of £10 under the Old Age and Infirmary Law; two workmen have pensions of £20 each; and two others have pensions of about £19 each. Eighty workmen are in receipt of invalid pensions under the Infirmary Law to the amount of £675 12s.

From the fund for the relief of workpeople in distress 96 men incapable of work were relieved in 1905 with £1,292; and 132 widows of workmen with £900. Since the inauguration of the fund 255 men incapable of work and 211 widows of workmen have been relieved at a cost of £30,161. The workmen of the Firm have

about £15,000 to their credit in the Firm's Saving's Bank, bearing interest at the rate of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

It is extremely interesting to note that in view of the annoyance caused to the employees of this Firm by the Socialist and Christian Socialist Organised Associations, an association has been formed by the workmen of the factory to counteract their methods. The conditions of labour for the workpeople are good. Last year there was a strike in the metal industry all over Bavaria that lasted for nineteen days, but in November, 1904, two-thirds of the workmen of this factory formed the new Association under the name Arbeiter-Verein von Werk Augsburg (Workmen's Association of the Augsburg Works)—a number of them having left the other Association in order to join this one. As the Association is still in its infancy the Firm has not, as such, taken up any official attitude towards it, but one of the chief directors is favourably disposed towards it and has given it a donation of about £5000. The aims of the Association are not political. Its objects are: to provide a fund for the relief of the workmen and their widows and orphans: to grant sick relief independently of the Firm's Sick Fund that already exists; to give relief in cases of distress; to grant loans without interest; to grant old age pensions to be distributed annually at Christmas; and to set apart money for enabling members to visit exhibitions and to promote social gatherings amongst the workpeople of the Firm. The annual subscription is fixed at one shilling.

We were also shown over the large Cotton-spinning and Weaving Mills of the "Mechanische Baumwollen Spinn und Weberei," by one of the Directors of the Firm, Herr Fessmann, to whom we are much indebted for the interesting information he gave us. The chief Director of this Firm is well-known in the north of England and is thoroughly conversant with the conditions of this branch of industry in England.

The Mills were founded in 1838 when there were 12,000 spindles and 800 hand-loom. Now there are 127,000 spindles and 2,930 weaving looms here and the Firm employs 2,900 workpeople, viz.: 1,200 men and 1,700 women. These are the largest spinning and weaving mills in Germany, and the largest of the weaving-sheds on the premises covers a wider area than any other weaving-shed in the German Empire. It was a grand sight to look at. There were 1,700 looms in this shed and the area covered by it is 13,000 sq. meters (130,000 sq. ft.). Eight hundred of the 1,700 looms came from Messrs. Platt Bros., of Oldham. There is, in fact, a large amount of English machinery in these Mills supplied by Messrs. Howard & Bullough, Messrs. Platt Bros., Messrs. Curtis, Sons & Co., and Messrs. Brooks & Doxey. The Firm has a spray which comes from Messrs. Dowson, Taylor & Co., Ltd., of Manchester.

The cotton used for the mills now comes from Bremen instead of from Liverpool, as was the case formerly. What is woven is sent to the bleachers for further treatment because they only weave white here.

The Mills are up-to-date in every particular and labour is carried on here under perfect hygienic conditions. They have been erected outside the town—practically in the country.

The wages are as follows:—

Spinners receive from  $4/2$  (Mks. 4.25) to  $4/5$  (Mks. 4.50) per day.

Piecers receive from  $2/11\frac{1}{4}$  (Mks 3) to  $3/1\frac{3}{4}$  (Mks. 3.20) per day.

Weavers:—men receive from  $1/11\frac{1}{2}$  (Mks. 2) to  $5/11\frac{1}{2}$  (Mks. 6.10) per day.

Weavers:—women receive from  $1/9\frac{1}{4}$  (Mks. 1.80) to  $4/10\frac{3}{4}$  (Mks. 5) per day.

The women's wage is somewhat less than that of the men because they cannot work so hard. They are only allowed by law to work eleven hours and on Saturdays only ten hours. Boys (creelers) receive from  $1/6$  to  $1/10$  per day. Wages are paid once a fortnight—every other Saturday.

The hours of work for weavers are now ten (instead of eleven), viz: from 7 a.m. to noon and from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m. For spinners the hours are ten from January 1st of this year for Augsburg, at the same wage as heretofore. On Saturdays and on the evenings before legal holidays, work ceases at 5 p.m.. Women over 16 years of age who have house-work to attend to, may, if they express a wish to do so, leave off their morning's work at 11-30 instead of 12. There are no pauses for grown-up men and women; but boys and girls come under the regulations of the law in this respect. No work is done on Saturdays and holidays unless specially required, when the men are obliged to work as permitted by law. The Firm engages its hands at first on trial for a fortnight.

The ventilation in the mills is arranged on an excellent principle, and there is plenty of light and space throughout the mills. About 40,000 cubic meters of fresh air are brought into the Spinning Mill per hour through the ventilators, and 60,000 cubic meters per hour into the weaving rooms. The air is purified during the process by a damper. On every floor of the mill there are separate cloak rooms and lavatories for the men and girls. There are separate mess-rooms provided for the men and girls in three separate storeys arranged to give sitting room for 1,200 persons. Fourteen hundred people dine here daily and eight hundred dinners were cooked daily for them at the time of our visit. Fresh water for the use of the people runs continuously. We enquired into the prices of the necessaries of life for the workpeople here and found them to be as



follows per English lb.:—beef, 7d.; veal, 7½d.; pork, 8½d. The Firm owns and keeps a shop in the neighbourhood where all kinds of provisions required by working men's families can be obtained cheaper than in the town. The Firm derives no profit from the sale of the goods; whatever net profit remains at the end of the year is divided amongst the workpeople in proportion to the amount of their purchases during the year. In the town (the mills are situated a short distance outside the town) many of the prices are about 2d. per lb. higher. A loaf of bread weighing 4 English lbs. (rye bread) would cost here from 5¾d. to 6d.

Herr Fessmann took us to see some of the workmen's dwellings erected by the Firm. They are well built, and the flats are let at quite a reasonable price. One that we entered consisted of three rooms and a kitchen, for which the tenant, who receives 34/- per week at the mill, pays £6 2s. 6d. per annum—i.e., about 2/4½ per week. The flat is a very comfortable one and was very tidily kept. In the kitchen the table had a cover on it. Each of the flats has a separate cellar and attic. The Firm re-paints and re-papers the dwellings every three years. We entered a second flat inhabited by a tenant who receives 5/5 per day—i.e. 32/6 per week. The flat was of the same size as the other one. A son of the tenant, a young man of twenty years of age is employed in the office of the Firm as a clerk. Sons of the workpeople can always find employment in the service of the Firm. In all cases we found that the wives kept their dwellings neat and tidy and made them look comfortable and home-like. Each block of dwellings cost the Firm £2,000. Including children, 1,300 people live in the dwellings erected by the Firm.

It is noteworthy that the people here also will not have anything to do with the organized Trades Unions (Gewerkschaften). They have no sympathy with them. We were told here that there is a marked difference between English and German workmen as to the way they combine for the assertion of their interests. The German workmen allow politics to play a part, whereas the main object of the British workman, according to the view held in Germany is considered to be the improvement of his material position in regard to wages and hours of work.

The Firm has a Pension Fund which all employees who have been in the service of the Firm for five years are entitled to join. Contributions to this fund are not deducted from the wages, but are paid by the Firm. The Fund is administered by a committee consisting of the director of the mills as chairman and twelve members of the Fund, four of whom retire every year in rotation but are eligible for re-election. After twenty years uninterrupted service with the Firm an employee is entitled to a pension equivalent to 30 per cent. of his average wages provided he has attained the age

of fifty years. In special cases this limit of age is not adhered to, e.g. when an employee has become incapable of work before the age of fifty. Pensions are granted to widows of workmen and their orphans up to fourteen years of age. Burial money is also given.

There is also a Sick Fund for all employees at the mills whose yearly income does not exceed two thousand marks (roughly £100); and the relief to be given in connection with this Fund has been worked out very carefully in detail. The Fund is administered by four representatives of the Firm and eight subscribers to the fund elected independently by the members for a period of four years at a General Meeting. The election of these eight members is by ballot.

The Firm also has a Savings Bank for the benefit of its employees who are allowed to make deposits up to 30/- on pay days. Interest at the rate of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent is given on all deposits provided the account does not exceed £50. When a depositor's account has reached this limit, either the capital is returned or the rate of interest is diminished.

After five years' service with the Firm every employee receives an annual present of ten Marks ( $9/9\frac{1}{2}$ ) which sum is increased after fifteen and again after twenty years; after twentyfive years the present is increased to seventy Marks ( $68/6$ ). These sums are distributed in cash in March every year. In 1905 the amount thus distributed was Mks. 42,000 (about £2060) which meant an average of about  $14/2$  for each employee in the service of the Firm.

(Signed) G. W. BROWN.  
 G. PROCTOR.  
 J. MANN.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHALL.  
 H. CALVERT.

# REPORTS XI. AND XII. SAXONY.

## PLAUEN IN VOGTLAND.

In a book recently published in Jena, entitled " Das Wirtschaftsjahr, 1904 " (Review of economical conditions in 1904 ; Reports for the year concerning general economic conditions and the Labour Market. Part 1 : Trade and traffic in Germany), written by a Socialist writer, Richard Calwer, some instructive and interesting figures and statements are given concerning Germany's trade with Great Britain. It is stated that in 1904, Germany's imports from Great Britain amounted to 941 millions of Mks. equal to £46,127,450 as compared with 873 millions equal to £40,833,333 in 1903.

Dealing with individual branches of industry the author gives the following statistics :—

	1903.	1904.
	100 Kilogs. Millions.	100 Kilogs. Millions.
Import of coal from Great Britain...	53.9	58.1
	100 Kilogs.	100 Kilogs.
Pig iron.....	1,336,258	1,429,719
Cotton-spinning machines .....	63,991	126,045
Machines for industrial purposes ...	53,942	85,171

In the case of several textile fabrics there was also a considerable rise, e.g., in cotton and linen yarns, whereas there was a falling off in woollen yarns. There was a rise in the import of salted herrings and a fall in that of fresh herrings. There was also a considerable falling off in the import from Great Britain of raw copper, ammoniac, coffee, raw sheepskins, combed wool and sheep and goat skins.

The value of Germany's exports to Great Britain rose in 1904 :—

	1903.	1904.
Exports from Germany	£48,382,353	£48,774,510

A large portion of Germany's exports to England does not remain there, but is re-exported.

Herr Calwer submits that important trade relations such as those represented above involve the absolute necessity of the maintenance of pacific relations between the two countries, giving thereby a written graphic confirmation of opinions we have everywhere heard expressed by German workmen, including all representatives of the organised trades of the Empire.

The author draws a further inference which is also that supported by his party throughout Germany, viz., that the increase of tariffs by Germany must necessarily strengthen the protection movement in England.

It is not difficult for us to accept this statement seeing that if British Free Traders stand by their guns, they also must endorse the view of those that think with them on economical questions in Germany.

In the days of Cobden and the introduction of Free Trade in England foreign manufacturers did not compete with British manufacturers. They have been competing with them for the last thirty years with ever increasing success.

Our British coal is largely used by German manufacturers and ship-owners to assist them in their competitive struggle. If it is said that the British coal trade benefits therefrom, the reply is fair that the benefits accruing to the coal trade do so to the detriment of other branches of trade, notably to machine manufacturers and ship-owners and the thousands of working men whose means of existence are bound up in these branches.

From Bavaria we proceeded to Saxony, which kingdom teems with an industrial population. We commenced our enquiries at Plauen in Vogtland. This part of the country, now belonging to the crown of Saxony, is so called from having been formerly ruled over by a Vogt, the name being derived from the Latin word advocatus. The name of the town is of Slav origin. The surrounding country is black but picturesque, and this sturdy and hardy people have for centuries been connected with industry. The old trade route between Saxony and Bavaria and Bohemia, as well as to the Maine and Danube and further South lay along the river called the White Elster. "Plauen goods" increased in quantity during the last quarter of the 18th century, and in 1791 the first spinning machine was erected there (built at Chemnitz), and a trader in cotton goods, who improved the machine, started for England in 1790 in order to pick up knowledge connected with spinning. After a period of

depression caused by the Napoleonic wars which interfered with Plauen's trade with England, the town picked up again. In 1866 there were six spinning mills there. Machines for embroidery were introduced in 1857, and by 1873 there were 1,300 of them in and around Plauen. By 1881 this number had nearly doubled, and the trade in plain grey net (tulle) with England began to flourish. The Plauen lace industry began now to develop, and by the end of the eighties, in the last century, 15,920 cwts of it, in value about one and a quarter million of pounds, were sent to the United States and England.

The relations with England are now of great importance. Plauen buys plain grey nets (tulle) from Nottingham for lace and curtains; cambric from Manchester for embroidery; lace from Nottingham for made-up goods, and yarns from Bolton and Bradford.

Plauen in Germany corresponds to Nottingham in England. England and her Colonies are Plauen's best customers. The town has a trade with England representing at least from £1,225,500 to £1,470,590. The United States take somewhat less.

Plauen buys its grey nets (tulle) from England; embroiders the same, and then sells them back to England.

The population of the town numbers now 105,182, an increase of 31,294 since 1900—i.e., 42 per cent in five years.

The subjoined complaint made by a Plauen manufacturer we reproduce for the information of those interested in the branch in England as representing views current in Plauen:—

“Plauen cannot get her plain grey nets or brown nets (tulle) direct from the manufacturer in England, such as Messrs Bowden, Gregory, or Smith, in Nottingham and Derby, because there is a ring of large Commission houses who take the custom and do not allow them to sell direct.

“The English manufacturer is backward in his methods and is not in direct touch with his customers. This is false policy, because Plauen is England's largest customer in brown nets, taking nine-tenths of the imports thereof into Germany. Plauen tries to get the duties on these raw materials lowered, and has succeeded in getting the duty of 80 pfennige (9½d) for 100 kilogs equal to roughly 220 English lbs, lowered from March 1st to 60 pfennige (7d). It is Plauen's interest to keep the raw material cheap, and manufacturers here always tried to keep the duties low.

“There is another instance of short-sighted policy in English manufacturers that I should like to point out. It often happens that we have ideas the feasibility of which has to be tested by practice. In general about four-fifths of these ideas turn out to be a success; but there is, of course, a risk to be run. The manufacturers should be prepared to run that risk. We ask them to do something for us

on trial, declaring we are prepared to give orders if the idea proves to be successful. The English manufacturer will never run this risk. He wants his customers to do so, and acts on his favourite maxim—' we don't trust d — d foreigners !'

" Another point I should like to draw your attention to :—Plauen used, two years ago, to buy certain nets at a certain price ; now the price is fifty per cent higher. This is due to speculation. As soon as the agents find we want the goods, they put up the price. What is the consequence ? The Plauen buyer, who has also to submit to competition in his own town (there are about 300 manufacturers here), is forced to look to home suppliers, and net machines are consequently put up in Germany—for example by Vogel, at Chemnitz. Instead, therefore, of being a stable trade, the net business has become a very risky one."

We learnt that Plauen, Saxony's Nottingham, pays high wages from the German point of view, and that strikes seldom take place here. There are a great number of female workers here and the female population of the town is more numerous than that of the men. Almost all work is piecework. The girls commencing to work in the mills at about 15 years of age, earn 6/- and 7/- a week, the wage rising to 15/- ; those at spindles rise to 16/- and 17/- per week.

The wages of the men—embroiderers and lacemakers—range from 20/- and 25/- to 45/- and 50/- per week. Curtain weavers earn from 25/- to 30/-. In the summer the hours of work are from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with pauses up to two hours, viz., 1½ hours for dinner, and ¼ hour each for breakfast and afternoon coffee.

In winter the hours are often extended with special permission of the police.

It is noteworthy that the girls, many of whom come from the neighbouring villages, where they reside with their parents, spend a great deal more relatively on dress and sweetmeats than on meat diet. The Plauen girls are exceedingly fond of dress. We found that the working classes in Saxony, in general, are less pretentious about food than in other parts of the Empire, even those who have quite enough to live well. In consequence too, of their hankering after sweetmeats of all kinds, Plauen maintains an abnormal number of pastry cooks and sweet shops. The parents of these girls are for the most part small peasants and artisans.

Dr Dietrich, the Syndicus of the Chamber of Commerce, gave us some interesting details about the chief branches of the Vogtland Textile industry :—

The coal-region of Zwickau materially assisted the development of modern industry in Saxony ; and it is noteworthy that the population, especially the female portion of it, have always been known for their remarkable and innate manual dexterity. Without going

into detail about other branches of industry, for example the manufacture of violins (this is due to the abundance of wood in the neighbourhood) we will limit ourselves to the textile industry. Geographically speaking we find the woollen industry flourishing chiefly north of Plauen; and in the south of the town as well as in the town itself the cotton industry. The woollen industry is represented in all its branches in Vogtland. Vienna-wool spinning was to be found till a few years ago at Plauen as well as at Crimmitschau.

Cotton-weaving and cotton-embroidery are the two chief branches of the cotton industry in Vogtland. Formerly the cotton-weaving was a home-industry here. Cotton was brought to this region along the old trade route. In 1871 there were 6,212 looms plied by men and 1080 by girls—total 7292 looms—in Vogtland. These hand-looms have given way to machinery; and owing to the existence of finishing factories also, Plauen does a big business in mechanically woven net-lace curtains.

Buyers come to Plauen from all parts of the world. There are two seasons in the year, and novelties in lace and curtains are always to be found here.

At the beginning of the eighties net-lace curtains were introduced from England and ousted the thread-curtains. At first they were only bought as raw goods and finished in Plauen. A crisis ensued amongst the weavers of Vogtland; but by degrees the manufacture of net-lace curtains was commenced here on the spot, the ultimate consequence of which was that the curtain industry at Plauen, Falkenstein and Auerbach developed to such an extent that the German market is now as good as supplied exclusively by home production. Great attention is paid to tasteful patterns and good machinery. The lace-net curtains are cheap but complaints are raised to the effect that wider fields are required for the export trade.

The Plauen curtain industry, depends as above intimated, upon fine quality English yarns and Dr Dietrich says that in consequence of the duties on these yarns Plauen is unable to compete with Scotland in the export trade, and has been trying for years to obtain a return of the duties for its export goods, but without success.

Plauen's mechanical embroidery industry of to-day also owes its beginning to the home industry of former times. The hand embroidery machine was introduced into Plauen from Switzerland in 1857, and at first it was used for home industry. At its best period in 1892 there were 4,200 of these machines in Vogtland and the neighbouring Erz Mountains. The use of these machines subsequently diminished, and now there are only about 3,300 of them in Vogtland whereas in the Canton of St. Gallen in Switzerland there are about 20,000.

The shuttle-machines were introduced and there are now 7,000 of them in Vogtland. During the last two years about 150 automatic machines have also been introduced. As the value of such a machine is roughly £150, and as there are now in Vogtland about 10,000 hand and shuttle-machines, it follows that for the embroidery machines now being used in Vogtland about £1,470,590 (30 millions of Mks.) are invested. An equal sum is invested in the mills and power-instalments for them.

Of the above-named 3,300 hand machines about 2,300 are in the possession of the working classes and 1,000 in the possession of manufacturers. Of the 7,000 shuttle-machines, 4,500 belong to the working classes and 2,500 to manufacturers. The former are all run by small motors with electric power. The manufacture of embroidered lace, made by the embroidery machine, has marvellously developed since the beginning of the nineties of last century, and has taken complete possession of the world's market in competition with genuine lace and especially French and English lace. The home of embroidered lace is now Vogtland and in this branch Vogtland takes the lead. They have succeeded here in copying almost every form of lace by means of machine manufacture. The home market is entirely provided from here ; but about  $\frac{1}{5}$  of the production, valued at about £2,451,000 are exported.

Dr Dietrich says that the lace industry secured some advantages through the German import duties, but that foreign countries in the new commercial treaties have raised still higher the duties in embroidered lace.

From the above details it is obvious that it is of great importance for Plauen and Vogtland generally that great attention should be paid to the training of good pattern-draughtsmen. Up to the middle of the eighties in the last century this was done in a somewhat haphazard way. Then, however, the school for industrial drawing was founded (Gewerbliche Zeichenschule) at Plauen. This was afterwards transformed into a 'Royal School for Industry,' which is now known under the name 'Royal School of Art for the Textile Industry' (Königliche Kunstschule für Textil-Industrie). This school is supported in every way by the 'Association for Industry of Vogtland and the Erz Mountains' (Vogtländisch-Erzgebirgischer Industrie-Verein).

The Mayor of Plauen, the Chamber of Commerce, and one of the leading representatives of the lace industry were anxious that we should see this institution and the Mayor and some members of the Chamber of Commerce were kind enough to meet us there ; and the Director of the school conducted us personally over it, and explained its organisation.

The institution, which belongs to the State, is divided into four departments, viz :—



1. For pattern draughtsmen ;
2. For manufacturers ;
3. For draughtsmen apprentices ;
4. For needlework for women.

The first department is for young people connected with the textile industry, and is intended to give them the training which shall qualify them for the artistic requirements of their calling. The first course lasts  $4\frac{1}{2}$  years, and is sub-divided into a preliminary class with a course of 42 hours per week lasting half a year ; a lower class of one year's course—46 lessons in winter and 43 in summer ; an intermediary class of one year's course with 52 lessons in winter and 50 in summer ; an upper class of one year's course with 50 lessons summer and winter ; and a specialised class of one year's course with 45 lessons summer and winter. The second department gives instruction in free-hand drawing and practical knowledge suitable for manufacturers in hand and machine embroidery and weaving. This course lasts for from one to two years with eleven lessons per week. Fees £1 for Germans and £6 for foreigners. The third department for draughtsmen apprentices aims at enabling them to excel as pattern draughtsmen. It is divided into a lower, intermediary and upper class, and the course lasts for three years with nine, eleven and four hours respectively. Fees £1 for Germans and £6 for foreigners. The fourth department for women, for needlework, has a course of a year and a half's duration. Fees £5 for Germans and £15 for foreigners.

The test for all on admission is the standard of the National School. Women must be at least 17 years of age and must display a sufficient proficiency in sewing.

The number of students attending the school is about 340—the number of male students exceeding that of the females.

There is a fortnight's holiday at Easter and Christmas ; a week at Whitsuntide and Michaelmas ; and five weeks in the summer. Reports of the progress of the pupils are issued half-yearly at Easter and Michaelmas and a certificate is given at the end of each course.

Any pupil attending the full course of this school is dispensed from attendance at the Continuation School required of all other young people after the age of 14 ; and those male pupils who give special satisfaction can, on passing an easy examination, obtain the right to serve for one year only in the army.

There is a museum attached to the school containing a large collection of patterns of lace, curtains etc. its value is estimated at about £15,000. About 300,000 persons visit this museum every year. The School Library and the museum are open every week-day from 8 a.m. to noon and from 2 to 6 p.m. ; on Mondays,

and Saturdays from 6 to 9 p.m. ; and on Sundays from 10-30 a.m. to 1 p.m.

There is a section for wall-papers which has been recently started in view of the wall-paper industry at Chemnitz.

The girls' department for needlework (millinery and fancy needlework) is open to everybody ; but the pupils are actually almost all workmen's children, about three-fourths of the 40 pupils coming under this category.

Underground is a department of machinery for the purpose of practical instruction.

From the textile school we went to Herr Hartenstein's curtain factory, passing on our way over a fine stone bridge which was opened last September. It has a span of 90m., which is 295ft. One of the gentlemen who went over the factory with us was well acquainted with English conditions, having been at Nottingham for some time and at Birmingham, too. The looms here are of English make.

The wages earned by the weavers at the looms in this factory are for men from 18/- to 55/- ; and for women (spoolers) 10/- and 12/- rising to 18/-. Boys from 14 to 17 get in their three years apprenticeship 15/-, 18/-, and 20/- respectively per week.

There are good baths for the use of the employees gratis, no charge being made either for towels or soap. Upstairs coffee is supplied, also gratis, at any time the men or girls desire to take it.

The hours of work at the factory are ten, from 7 a.m. to 7-30 p.m., with pauses from 8-30 to 9 a.m., 1 to 1-30 p.m., and from 4 to 4-30 p.m.

In the neighbourhood of this factory are some rows of workmen's dwellings erected by a building company. There are rows of 30 houses containing in all 720 flats, each consisting of three rooms, (including kitchen) cellar and 'attic.

According to a new law in Saxony it is prescribed that all dwellings erected for workmen and their families shall consist of at least three rooms (including kitchen) ; but the last block erected by this company was, by special permission, allowed to be of two rooms only, because the demand for this size dwelling was very great amongst the workmen's families. But the two rooms had to occupy the same space as the three room dwellings.

The rent of the dwellings in these rows is cheaper than that taken in the town. For a two room dwelling it is from 3/6 to 4/- per week ; for a three room dwelling from 4/6 to 5/. Rents are paid here weekly in advance on Fridays. The company finds that the tenants are very regular payers. They have hardly any bad debts, and hardly any tenants are in arrears.

The first dwelling we entered, rented by an embroiderer who earned from 20/- to 28/-, costs 5/- per week. The wife also earns about 3/- per week for little light jobs. The wife found all provisions very dear, and said she could only just pull through. They very seldom had meat at home.

The second dwelling was inhabited by a shoemaker, who lived there with his wife and three sons all earning their living. The father works at home and earns from 18/- to 20/-. He was keeping "cobbler's Monday" (it was on a Monday when we were there). The rent of the dwelling is 5/- per week. Each tenant has a small garden which costs from a little over 1d. to 2d. per week.

As regards furniture and general comforts these people, as well as a couple in a two-room dwelling that we also visited, appeared to be well provided. Their homes were clean and tidy: there was an air of contentment about their general demeanour; and the cobbler and his family were quite humourous and jovial. There was no sign of want or poverty about the people. As above said, they paid their rents regularly, they were well clad, and only complained as was quite natural, for everybody throughout the land is uttering the same complaint, of the prevailing abnormal price of meat.

The cause of the pinch may be inferred from the following list of prices:—

The price of beef is now about  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 10d. per Engl. lb.; it was formerly about  $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 8d. This is the ordinary beef used in German domestic life for the family mid-day meal; it is, as we saw, their staple domestic food. Veal costs now  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. per Engl. lb.; the price was 2d. less about nine months ago. Pork now costs 9d. to  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. per Engl. lb.; and bacon is now 8d., but it used to be  $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. per Engl. lb.

We were then taken to Herr Paul Körner's lace factory where two hundred hands, mostly girls, are employed. Married women are also allowed to work here. Herr Körner kindly showed us his wage-book from which we learnt that the embroiderers earned from Mks. 41 up to Mks. 53 ( $40/1\frac{3}{4}$  to  $51/10\frac{3}{4}$ ) per week at piece-work. At the machines which are served by an embroiderer and one or two girls (twist hands), the wages are—for the embroiderer, as above, from  $40/1\frac{3}{4}$  to  $51/10\frac{3}{4}$  per week; for the girls—if the machine is served by one girl only, she receives 17/-, but if it is served by two, they earn 12/- each per week. At the automatic machines which are served by two girls (twist hands) the two get 15/- and 17/- respectively or 16/- and 18/-. The girls employed in mounting and making up, who work from 14 years of age upwards, earn—from 14 to 16 years of age, 8/- to 11/- per week.; above 16 years of age, up to 15/- per week.

This Firm does business with London, Nottingham, Manchester,

Birmingham, Glasgow, and Leeds. It manufactures only really good lace—no cheap stuff.

Throughout the factory except in one room, that had formerly been a bowling alley, we noticed that there was good air and good ventilation. The girls were healthy-looking and well dressed. "You should see them on Sundays when they have their feathers on," said a native of the town. As a matter of fact we had seen them in their best attire, for it was on Sunday afternoon that we arrived and it was quite clear to us as we walked through the streets that the Plauen mill girl not only understood how to dress but had the means to dress well.

Our visit to an Elementary School was extremely interesting. Plauen, taking into account its development in industry has always not only paid attention to education of all grades but very specially to everything connected with industry and trade. The progress made in this direction in recent years has been very remarkable. We have already spoken of the School of Art for textile industry. In 1900 a new special class for commercial knowledge was added to the Realschule. The amount expended on this school in 1899 was double of that devoted to it in 1895; whilst the municipal contribution in 1900 was, as compared with 1895, about as 7 to 3. In 1890 there were 206 pupils; in 1901, the number had increased to 534.

The Commercial School founded in 1858, had 69 pupils in 1859, whilst in 1900 there were 342.

The history of the ordinary schools for the people in Plauen is interesting. There are eleven of them, viz., one devoted to higher secondary education; two middle schools of higher grade and seven of lower grade—i.e. elementary national schools (what we should call 'Board Schools'); and one comprising the latter two types combined.

The total expenditure of the town for higher, middle and lower schools for the education of the children of the town was £33,170 in 1898 and £36,180 in 1899. The number of Pupils in 1898 was 9402, in 1901 11,099. The amount spent since 1901 is still higher because two more elementary schools have been erected.

The Plauen Continuation Schools have always been of the best in Saxony. Compulsory attendance in these schools has only recently been introduced by Prussian municipalities, but there was an obligatory school of this kind at Plauen as far back as 1876 for girls on leaving the elementary school. In 1895 reforms were introduced according to which specialist classes for boys were arranged, the boys being classified according to their respective callings. The municipality paid in 1898, £1,190 towards the expenses of these schools, and £1,320 in 1899. There is also a voluntary Commercial Continuation School in Plauen which was

founded so long ago, as 1832 as a 'Commercial Sunday School!' In 1900 it numbered 561 pupils; and the municipality voted £200 towards its maintenance in 1899. And the winter evening school for girls who have been confirmed, and for women must not be omitted. It should be noted that all children belonging to German State schools have to be confirmed if they are Protestants or Roman Catholics. They learn cutting-out, and sewing, mending and darning, and how to make simple clothes. Instruction is given twice a week from 7-30 p.m. to 9-30 p.m. Pupils pay 6d. per month. In the winter of 1900-01 there were 980 pupils—the numbers for this winter are considerably higher.

The Director of the Elementary School we visited kindly took us into some of the class-rooms. Wherever we have inspected an elementary school during our tour of enquiry we have always selected a school in which the pupils consisted mainly of the children of workmen. This was the case here also. We entered one of the girls' class-rooms—girls of from 11 to 12 years of age. We were struck by their intelligent work and the tidiness of their appearance. We have also made a point, wherever possible, of asking the children how they were fed at home. In this class the question was put:—"Which of you hasn't enough to eat at home?" There was a unanimous outburst of laughter! The idea seemed preposterous to them, and without exception these are children from the employees of neighbouring factories and mills and from the houses of small artisans. The school is situated in the midst of the working-men's district of the town.

We entered a boy's class-room too. Similar questions were put and answered in a similar manner.

The Director then took us to the large gymnastic room where girls of from 13 to over 14 years of age were drilling and doing gymnastics. They were all of them fine, healthy, strapping lasses. They sang and marched during our presence and the lesson seemed like a game to them. Instructions were being given by a master: and we learnt that there are no mistresses in the school except for needlework. We could not help admiring the tone of the girls' voices, which were very sweet, and displayed good training. The girls in this class sung better than we have so far heard girls sing in a German elementary school.

We had also before this seen the excellent bathroom belonging to the school, where the children can have shower baths. Special days are reserved for each of the two sexes, and the bathroom is much used. Boys and girls may come at pleasure. The price of a bath including towel and soap is about  $\frac{1}{4}$ d.

The cookery school for girls of 14 and upwards attached to this elementary school is an institution of great value and interest. It is under the management of a mistress and five assistants. The

present mistress speaks English well and spent some time for training in England.

It is intended for the use of all the Elementary schools in the town, and every day a different set of girls from a different school comes for instruction. There are eleven public schools, eight of which, as pointed out above, are for the children of the working classes.

This cookery school is a great boon to the working classes. The girls are told off in fours at separate tables and there are about ten stoves. Each little group does its work independently of the other. They are instructed in everything connected with household management, and have to cook a dinner at one of the stoves. Every day about 200 such dinners are prepared, some 80 of which are taken to the Workhouse which is in the neighbourhood, each inmate receiving two pints of soup for 10 pfennige, equal to 1½d., without meat. Factory girls can come and get a dinner here for 2½d., consisting of soup and meat, and workmen can fetch their dinner from here too, if they like. We tasted the dinner and found it very good; and as we were leaving a good number of girls arrived for dinner.

Most of the pupils at this school help to fill the family purse, doing a little home work whereby they earn from 2/6 to 3/- per week.

The plan of work including the bill of fare is drawn up for some six weeks in advance. Besides cooking the dinner, some special occupation connected with household management is taken up, e.g. house-linen; ironing and mending; window cleaning; use of brooms; cleaning up the kitchens; washing up the plates, pots and pans, the larder; etc., etc.

In order to encourage thrift amongst the children, a Savings Bank has been organised in these workmen's schools. In Plauen from £350 to £400 a year are thus put by.

At a lunch given to us by the Municipality of the town the Bürgermeister in a brief address of welcome said:—"We Germans are very happy to have the opportunity of welcoming you here. We desire that Englishmen and Germans should always remain friends. I trust that you working-men will foster good feeling. Whenever Germans from Plauen come to England they are always treated with hospitality and kindness. You must not believe that sentiments of any other kind are fostered by us over here towards the English. We most sincerely regret the mischief which has been made by the newspapers."

Before our day was over we paid a visit to the "Vogtländische Maschinen Fabrik, vorm. J. C. and H. Dietrich Actien-Gesellschaft" (Machine Factory Company, late J. C. and H. Dietrich).

The main features of this factory are the manufacture of embroidery looms and printing machines. The printing machines made here are constructed on a different principle from those we saw at Augsburg. We noticed also that the Firm has separate motors for certain classes of machinery ; so that when not required, all the power need not be used. A great number of the machines are "miniature" machines—motor-driven. One of these, a "miniature" new double-web rotary machine was recently ordered from London ; it was intended for a small agricultural paper published in London. This type of machine has not yet been sent to the English market because, as we were told, the Firm has been too much occupied elsewhere to give attention to this market. On the other hand, the Firm has made and patented a large number of important improvements in embroidery looms. Amongst them are embroidery looms of ten and twelve yards embroidery length. In England the laces are woven ; in Germany they are embroidered. This Firm sends its embroidery looms to Nottingham where Mr John Jardine is its agent.

We were shown a turret lathe in work that had recently been received from England. There are a great many of them here from Birmingham ; and some American lathes of similar kind also. All the tools here are quite up-to-date, such as we are accustomed to see and use at home in England. A lithograph rotary machine with six colours also interested us.

The hours of work here are ten ; and the average wage is from 3/- to 5/- per day—piece work. Wages used to be paid on Saturdays, now on Fridays. Apprentices earn from 3/- to 6/- ; and later 10/- and 12/- per week at piece work if very intelligent. Straighteners get from about Mks. 2-80 to Mks. 3 per day (i.e., 2/9 to 2/10 $\frac{1}{4}$ )—16/6 to about 17/- per week ; we note that in England such men earn about 40/- per week. It struck us that the work the straighteners were doing here was an angle-iron smith's job. Skilled workmen here receive Mks. 40 to Mks. 50 per week, i.e. 39/- to 49/-—piece work. The men, of whom there are 800, seem to remain in the factory for a long time in general ; it appears to us that there was a low percentage of apprentices here as compared with many of the engineering shops we have visited in Germany.

The Firm has not yet inaugurated an Old Age Pension Fund of its own ; but there is a Fund, now amounting to about £1,176, from which assistance is given where desirable, and donations are made out of the profits of the Company. Last year £150 were devoted to this purpose. All fines for coming late etc. are handed over to the Fund just mentioned. The Imperial Old Age Pension Fund scheme is found to work very well here.

In regard to cupboards etc., where the workmen can lock up their things the arrangements here are not so elaborate as in the works we

have visited elsewhere. Pegs are supplied, but not cupboards. But the lavatories are well-fitted, hot and cold water being laid on. The works we saw are new and have only been in existence for three years; but the Firm was founded in 1881. The new works are built on a very good scale, and every regard has been taken for space, ventilation, and sanitary arrangements in general. The erecting hall pleased us greatly. The boilers here are provided with automatic stokers.

Beer is sold here at 1½d. and 1⅞d. per bottle, containing about two ordinary glasses. All profits from the sale of the beer are made over to the Fund for affording relief to those of the Firm's workpeople who stand in need of it, above referred to.

The above is a sketch of a good day's work at Plauen. We should have liked to have remained here longer; but as time was getting limited, we had to proceed in the evening to Chemnitz.

The figures that we here subjoin concerning the Savings Bank at Plauen will doubtless be found interesting. In 1900 the total amount brought to the Bank was £278,408 distributed over 6722 depositors. From 1839 to 1900 the amount saved has continuously increased from year to year; and by 1900 the total number of deposits reached the respectable figure of £6,734,436. The population of Plauen, which, as above stated, amounted to 105,182 on December 2nd, 1905, numbered in 1861, just 44 years ago, only 16,166. As regards population Plauen is the 4th town in the kingdom of Saxony and the 46th in the German empire. In 1861 there were only 3,178 households lodged in 884 dwellings. In 1900 there was a population of 73,891 consisting of 15,829 households lodged in 3,748 dwellings. We could not get statistics up to 1905, as they have not yet been published. It will be remembered that in one of our earliest reports we pointed out that Saxony stood in the front rank amongst the Savings Bank statistics.

## CHEMNITZ.

What Chemnitz is to-day is due to the diligence of its industrial population, and to the trade accruing therefrom. It is the textile industry that flourishes here and machine-building. In olden times Chemnitz was devoted to linen weaving and the bleaching of yarn. After receiving a check in the Thirty Years' War it took to cotton weaving. In the 18th century the prosperity of Chemnitz came to a standstill, but in and around the town the population took to stocking weaving. An improvement began towards the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th centuries, and Napoleon's measures against England assisted the Chemnitzers in their competition with England.



They improved their machines and secured patterns which were able to compete with the English ones. The town had some enterprising men amongst them in those days. By 1814 they had made a name for the products of Chemnitz spinning-mills, the chief one of which was worked by water-power. In 1820 one of the manufacturers employed 2,500 hands in spinning, weaving, colouring and printing. There are now over 250 factories connected with the textile industry at Chemnitz.

The names too of Haubold, Hartmann and von Zimmermann are associated with the metal industry of Chemnitz which began in a small way early in the last century. The 'Sächsische Maschinenfabrik' (Saxon Machine Factory) now occupies about 5,000 hands and 250 officials; and about 125 small and large machine factories now exist in Chemnitz.

Chemnitz which in 1800 had a population of 10,500 inhabitants new numbers 294,000 according to the census of December 1st, 1905, and has increased in population since 1900 by 86,844, that is to say by about 42 per cent. in five years. It is spoken of as 'the city of labour' and as the Saxon 'Manchester.'

It was mainly to the kindness of Geheimer Commerzienrath Vogel one of the chief manufacturers in Chemnitz, that we owe the success of our short visit to Saxony. We had to limit our visits to Plauen, Chemnitz, Lunzenau, Crimmitschau, Leipzig and Dresden to the inside of a week.

We went first to the works of Messrs. J. E. Reinecker-Werkzeugfabrik (i.e. Factory of machines of precision) at Chemnitz-Gablenz. It was a most interesting visit from many points of view; and going round one of the big shops of the Firm it was impossible to suppress the feeling that it was a treat to be there. The main shop is 25,000 sq. meters (250,000 sq. ft.) in area. The total area of the works under roof is 37,000 sq. meters (370,000 sq. ft.) Everybody came to meet us by the express order of the head of the Firm and there was no disinclination to show us anything. It was one of the most up-to-date shops amongst the many of this category that we have had the privilege of seeing on our journey.

Men are only taken here through the intermediary of the Chemnitz Labour Bureau (Arbeitsnachweis); and every man engaged undertakes to join the Chemnitz Sick Fund for machine-factories and foundries.

The hours of work are ten, from 7 a.m. to noon, and from 1-15 p.m. to 6-15 p.m. The gates are closed three minutes after the hour for commencing work, and anybody arriving late has to wait for admittance till the commencement of the next hour. For grown-up workmen there are no morning and afternoon pauses, only for boys and these are those prescribed by law, namely, from

8-30 a.m. to 9 ; and from 4 p.m. till 4-30 p.m. Workmen are required to work overtime if necessary. Wages are fixed by agreement according to time, not by piecework—except in exceptional cases. Payment of wages takes place every fortnight on Friday evenings at 6-15.

The highest wages paid are in general as follows :—

Fitters up to	40/-	per week.
Mechanics „ „	29/-	„ „
Turners „ „	31/-	„ „
Planers „ „	27/-	„ „
Smiths „ „	30/-	„ „
Carpenters „ „	28/-	„ „

but in certain cases they run higher, and bonuses are conferred on those who give special satisfaction.

It is admitted that perhaps more supervision is necessary according to this system and that perhaps less work is done than if the men were paid according to piecework ; but on the other hand it is submitted that the Firm has no labour disputes and they act on the principle inculcated on and acknowledged by the men—the more work you do the more wages you are likely to earn.

The Firm pays about the same wages as the Sächsische Maschinen Fabrik which had the reputation for being exceptionally high. There are never any strikes here and disputes are settled with the aid of a Committee of the men. The machines here are very good and some of them come from England. Scarcely any have been purchased from America in recent years on the ground apparently that the Americans use very soft material, and these works have very hard material to deal with. The American machines are said to be dearer than they should be, and often not to fulfil what is promised of them. It is also stated that they are very good for small machine building, but are in general much too light for the purposes of these works—that after a few years, many of them are no longer of any use.

On the other hand, there has been an American specialist employed here by the Firm for over ten years, and he has been building machines on the American principle, suiting them to the requirements of the Firm. This gentleman fully endorsed what we have said in previous reports about the qualities of American tools as compared with English ones.

We saw a bevel-gear wheel shaping machine packed to be sent to Messrs. Rose Bros., of Gainsborough. The Firm has an order for sixteen bevel-gear-wheel shaping machines (Bilogram system) for England.

There is plenty of work on hand, and the men are sometimes at work over-time up to 9-15 p.m. There are 1,700 hands employed

here now of whom 1,080 are engaged at the machines, of which 1,000 are at work. The Firm could easily employ 300 more men if they were available.

They had 100 lathes making shells used in the Russo-Japanese war, that were made here two years ago. Japan had been long preparing for war and had been getting a great part of her war material in Germany. "It is to be regretted," said one of our friends, "that the Japanese close their factories to all foreigners. No European is allowed to enter them."

One of us put the question incidentally "Do you feel the tax your Government imposes on raw materials?" The reply was, "The answer to this question depends upon whether the individual giving it is a free-trader or a protectionist!"

We were shown here a special machine for cutting a worm, which was built to the order of the British Government.

The baths and lavatories provided by this Firm for the use of their workmen are excellently equipped and in the mess room are cupboards for warming the food of those who dine on the premises.

A fund exists inaugurated by the Firm for rendering pecuniary assistance to the workmen in case of need. It consists, amongst other items, of the profit on the sale of coffee, which amounts to about £350 per annum. The "volunteers" have also to contribute to this fund. Last year about £230 were spent on such subventions and £22 on burial money.

In addition to the support from the State Sick Insurance Fund, the married workmen receive 6/- a week from the Firm after the fifth week of their illness; the unmarried ones 3/- and the apprentices 2/-, and a Christmas gift is given to those who have been ill longer than a week.

We were also taken to the Works of the "Wanderer Fahrradwerke" a company that makes bicycles, motor-cycles, milling machines and type-writers at Schönau near Chemnitz. There is no export trade between this company and England. The Firm has existed for over twenty years, and employs over a thousand hands. The company introduced the milling machine about fifteen years ago, as the process is cheaper. In England also lathes have been replaced by milling machines in many works.

This Firm goes in for the best machines of precision, quite regardless of cost if the machine is considered necessary. Everything is up-to-date here where efforts are made to obtain precisely what is best for each particular purpose. There are gas engines in use here for the power, all the bright parts of which are made of nickel.

We were shown an automatic screw-cutting machine similar to those we have at Gainsborough, made for the sole use of the Firm,

not to be delivered to others. As soon as the bar is finished the machine stops and the man working the machine comes and put a new bar in.

At the Paris Exhibition in 1900 this Firm received the Grand Prix in competition with all the big German Firms.

The cheaper kind of goods is not made here, the Firm professing to go in only for quality. All the hardening, grinding and polishing sheds are provided with suction ventilators. The principle they act upon is, that if the workmen work in healthy rooms and shops they can work much better. The Firm has the same process for enamelling as we have in England.

The greater number of the bicycles and motor-cycles manufactured by the Firm are sold in the German market, but there is a considerable export trade done also, viz., with Italy, Holland, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, etc., as well as with South America and South Africa. The Works have attained a high reputation at home and abroad for milling machines on account of their quality, and also for their "Continental" type-writers. Their automatic gear-cutting machines, working by means of worm-cutters on a new system have been lately furnished to English Works, but otherwise, as said above, there is no export trade from here to England.

The hours of work are calculated at ten per day—60 per week. As a matter of fact the men work  $9\frac{1}{2}$  hours on Saturdays and Mondays, and on the other days  $10\frac{1}{4}$  hours. Wages are regulated according to piecework. The average wage is Mks. 17 to Mks. 40 per week, i.e.,  $16\frac{7}{8}$  to  $39\frac{1}{2}$ . Apprentices receive Mks. 2, Mks. 3 and Mks. 6 per week for their respective three years' apprenticeship—i.e.,  $1\frac{1}{11}$ ,  $2\frac{1}{11}$ , and  $5\frac{1}{10}$  respectively. Machinists, Mks. 30, Mks. 35, and Mks 36 per. week, i.e.,  $27\frac{8}{11}$ ,  $32\frac{6}{11}$  and  $35\frac{-}{11}$ , which is equivalent to fifty, fifty-five and sixty pfennige respectively per hour, i.e.,  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d.  $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. and 7d. ; turners, forty, fifty and sixty pfennige per hour, i.e.,  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d.,  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d. and  $6\frac{1}{2}$ d., equivalent to  $23\frac{9}{11}$ ,  $29\frac{4}{11}$  and  $32\frac{6}{11}$  per week ; grinders earn up to Mks. 40 per week, i.e.,  $39\frac{1}{2}$ .

All the men who have been for four years in the service of the Firm receive as Christmas gratuities a sum equivalent to the dividend paid in the year ; e.g., in 1905 a dividend of 17 per cent. was paid, consequently each employee received a Christmas bonus of Mks. 17, i.e.,  $16\frac{8}{11}$ . After eight years' service this sum is doubled and after ten years' service the men receive 50/-, to £5 as extra bonus.

The men in this factory live well. For their breakfast they always have some meat or sausage on their bread, and meat for dinner ; and they are in a position to indulge in reasonable pleasures and recreation. As regards housing accommodation they pay from £12 5s. to £14 14s. rent for their dwellings consisting of a kitchen

and two rooms, together with cellar and attic ; there is a closet in the house, but not in the apartment, and there is a laundry for each house for the use of all the families residing in it. Some of the workmen live as far as ten or twelve miles from the Works, having a small agricultural tenement of their own.

During the dinner hour we noticed a turner taking his meal with his wife at his lathe. He receives  $29\frac{1}{4}$  (Mks. 30) per week, and has a two room dwelling for which he pays £11 a year. He and his wife live in a village not far off and have two children. The wife assured us that they lived very comfortably and well. She told us that they now paid 48 pfennige for their 4lb. (German measure) loaf of rye bread, i.e.,  $5\frac{2}{3}$ d. At this price a loaf of this bread weighing 4 English lbs. should cost 5d. Till quite recently their loaf cost  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d, so that then a loaf weighing 4 English lbs. would have cost  $4\frac{2}{3}$ d. She now paid  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. for bacon ; and  $1/11\frac{1}{2}$  per lb. for ham cut in slices.

Our attention was attracted by the following notice hung up in the Works :—

### MOTORS.—BICYCLES.—TYPE-WRITERS.

#### NOTICE TO WORKMEN.

“ If employees have any suggestions dealing with improvements they should mention them. The suggestions will be duly considered ; and if they can be utilised the inventor will receive the value of his invention. This will show that we are always ready to adopt any suggestions made by our workmen so they can co-operate with us. In this way we can improve our manufactured goods.”

On visiting a school frequented by the children of the working classes, we asked the pupils in one of the classes if they got enough food at home. One little maid replied ‘ No,’ but being asked to explain, she replied, “ Only when I am naughty ! ” The son of a butcher in a boy’s class replied that he ate no meat at home because he did not like it. There were two orphans in this class, and from their general appearance and their rosy cheeks we all inferred that they too must be well-nourished.

In the afternoon we were taken to see the new “ Municipal Asylum for diseases of the Nervous System ” which is conducted on principles long ago advocated in England notably by Dr Conolly. It is said to be the most modern and best equipped institution of the kind in existence. The leading idea is to avoid even in the name of the institution all allusion to the idea of lunacy ; hence it is called “ Die Städtische Nervenheilanstalt zu Chemnitz.”

The patients are treated according to a more humane principle,

without isolation or the use of straight-jackets, severe discipline, etc. When unruly they are placed in a bath of tepid water for several hours according to the decision of the managing doctor. At other times they lie in bed or are provided with some kind of occupation according to their condition. The asylum is for both sexes. A number of patients from the working classes are nursed here. The method is certainly so far very successful; and the patients of whom there are now 89 are said to be contented. As far as permissible the patients spend their time in the open air.

The institution was only opened on April 12th, 1905, when 67 patients were admitted. The effect on them of the bright rooms and the pleasant surroundings compared with the cells, etc., of the old hospital was quite marked. All the dirty and aggressive habits of the worst kind of patient disappeared, and they became quiet and tractable. In addition to the above-named 67 patients, 108 others (67 men and 41 women) were admitted by August 12th; and in all 93, including 53 men and 40 women, had been dismissed by that date.

The cost of erection of the establishment including gardens, etc., was £26,000. It will soon have to be extended. The methods have met with general approval so far.

The prices charged for the patients is as follows:—

1st Class Patients:—6/- per day for citizens of Chemnitz, 10/- for others, and a further charge of £1 a month for use of furniture, etc.

2nd Class Patients:—For the poor of Chemnitz maintained at the expense of the department for the poor, 2/- per day; for inhabitants of Chemnitz belonging to the various sick funds 2/3 per day; for members of Chemnitz Sick Funds that do not reside in Chemnitz about 2/9. Other persons not citizens of Chemnitz pay 3/6; but they can only be taken if there is room for them.

It is agreed that the action of the municipality in introducing the new method for the treatment of acute cases of lunacy is highly commendable.

The Bürgermeister was desirous that we should visit two other institutions erected mainly for the benefit of the working classes. One of them was a home for aged invalided working people, founded in 1902 by a private manufacturer Herr Commerzienrath Eugen Esche, who left £15,000 for the erection of houses, in which deserving old people should receive comfortable dwellings, free of charge. The members of the Council of the town of Chemnitz, as such, are the trustees of the fund. £10,000 of this money was laid out on the erection of a block containing the said dwellings, which are exceedingly comfortable. We were conducted into the rooms of an old weaver who lived there with his wife—both of them had reached

the span of life allotted by the psalmist. The man's various diplomas as a soldier, etc., were hanging on the wall and he rose with beaming eyes from the little handloom at which he was amusing himself, when we took notice of them. In another of these dwellings the old people had got their daughter on a visit who was occupied with dressmaking in a neighbouring town. The sunset of the lives of these old worthy people is being rendered as bright and free from care as possible.

The other institution is of considerably greater extent and importance, viz., an institution for the blind of both sexes and for children of weak intellect. We were brought here in order that we should be shown what the local authorities achieve for the relief of persons in distress belonging to the working classes. This institution, which covers a wide area of ground and comprises some forty blocks of houses, is situated at Altenheim outside the town on a healthy and elevated spot.

For the ordinary poor inmates of the blind asylum a fee of not quite 1/3 per day is charged, which, in so far as it is not defrayed by the people themselves is met by the respective municipal funds for the relief of the poor. For those whose relatives are able to pay independently for them, a charge is made of 2/- and 4/- per day.

Both children and grown-ups are taught various occupations to enable them to earn their own livelihood.

The other department for boys and girls of weak or backward intellect deserves attention. Most of these children are so far educated here that they can be entrusted with light work such as for farm labourers. But for the care of the institution they would inevitably be a burden on their parents or perish miserably. The cost of maintenance in this department is also 1/3d for the poor; and for those whose parents are better situated 2/- and 4/- per day.

Before we left this institution in the evening the inmates sang to us from the gallery of the chapel. It was a real treat to hear them sing and the soprano voice of one of the female members of the choir was truly sweet. The performance was a great credit to both teacher and pupils and we were truly grateful to them.

It is perhaps desirable when talking about a manufacturing town like Chemnitz to give a brief sketch of the educational system followed for the elementary schools, i.e., for the schools for children of working men. There are twenty-eight so-called *Bezirkschulen* which answer approximately to our Board Schools. The tendency now is to pay more attention to the aesthetic appearance of the school buildings both inside and outside.

The Chemnitz municipal schools are divided into *Bürger* schools (*Bürgerschulen*) and District School (*Bezirkschulen*). The latter

are again sub-divided into Middle District Schools and Elementary District Schools (these latter frequented mainly by the children of the working classes). In 1905 the number of pupils in the Chemnitz municipal schools amounted to 36,592 (1904 : 35,394). They were divided as follows:—Burgher Schools (higher grade)—boys 1,112, girls 928,—total 2,040, i.e., 5·57 per cent. of the town school-children; Middle District Schools—boys 4,121, girls 2,885, i.e., 19·15 per cent.; Elementary District Schools—boys 12,594, girls 14,952, i.e., 75·28 per cent. of the town school-children. These Elementary Schools contain 627 classes—293 for boys, 334 for girls, with an average of 45 children in a class. The fees paid in 1905 amounted to £4,820; the fees excused to £1,256, i.e., 19½ per cent. of the whole amount due.

Whereas the annual school fees for the higher grade schools is about 59/- and 47/-; for the middle schools 26/-, 21/-, and 19/-; those for the elementary schools (workmens' children's schools) is about 4/8 per annum. If there are more than three children from any one family at school the parents pay only for three. Very poor families and widows are exempt from all payment whatsoever for the education of their children. The fee for the Continuation Schools is 2/- per annum; the fees received in 1905 amounted to £337 and fees to the amount of £38 were excused.

The sum expended for school purposes by the municipality of Chemnitz in 1905 amounted to £138,940. Thirty-five years ago, in 1875, the municipal school budget amounted to £26,383: at that time the number of school-children was 10,542 and the population of the town was 78,200. The administration of the municipal school is in the hands of a committee selected from the Town Council.

The masters receive salaries varying from £68 12s. 0d. salary and £19 12s 0d. house allowance, total £88 4s. 0d., rising to £169 salary and £27 house allowance, total £196, after 27 years' service. The salaries rise every two year up to the twelfth year of service by about £10 and every three years from that time on. The highest salary attainable by a school-mistress per annum, including house allowance, is £139 10s. 0d. after 12 years' service.

Of late years much attention has been paid to the physical training of the children and public play-grounds have been set apart in various parts of the town where the children can play every week day from May to September from 4 or 5 o'clock p.m. to 7 p.m. The pupils are taken in summer to the swimming baths where children of the workmen's schools can bathe for nothing. When there is ice in the winter, the skating places in the town are open gratis on certain days of the week to all school children without exception, and skates are lent to those pupils whose parents cannot afford to purchase them for them.



## LUNZENAU.

The next day we had the privilege of being taken to Lunzenau by Herr Geheimrath Hermann Vogel who kindly consented to show us his mills. We saw the paper mill and the weaving mills and the workmen's dwellings he has erected. The mills are situated in the small country town of Lunzenau, which is a short distance from Chemnitz by rail. The paper mills turn out about 60,000 to 70,000 lbs. of paper every day. It is made from wood-pulp. In the weaving mill, velvet, plush, designed plush, and table-covers and curtains are woven as well as other materials for upholstery. The weaving is done at Lunzenau, the finishing in Chemnitz.

Very good relations subsist between the proprietor and his men. He has been in the business all his life and his father before him, and is thoroughly conversant with the conditions of labour. There is not a great supply of workmen at Lunzenau; and they are short of girls for weaving purposes. Herr Vogel accordingly conceived the idea of building a house for the unmarried girls where they could have lodging and food for a reasonable price. A comfortable home under the supervision of a matron—good beds, use of dining-room and sitting-room, with coffee and rolls in the morning, a substantial dinner and supper are supplied for just under 9d. per day; and yet the girls make difficulties and do not like the discipline. Few of them utilise the home! Baths with soap and towels are also placed at their disposal at only just over 1d. per bath.

Herr Vogel set aside £5000 on the 50th anniversary of the existence of the Mills for the purpose of giving a pension to the workpeople when they become too infirm to work. He has also erected very comfortable dwellings for his men, which are better and cheaper than those to be had in the town. There is a difficulty out in the country to get good workmen, hence the attraction of good dwellings is of great value. Should a tenant leave the service of the Firm, he has of course to give up his dwelling, but he obtains a month's notice to do so. The rent of these dwellings, which are very good, and to which nice gardens are attached, is only £6 per year, and some are to be had at £4 10s. In all, 27 blocks containing self-contained dwellings for 56 families have been erected from 1880—1904.

Besides these dwellings we must note that Herr Vogel has founded an institution to which the parents employed at his mills may send those of their children who are from 2 to 6 years of age to be looked after during the day time whilst they are themselves absent from home. The little ones are well cared for and receive their food—the payment being only 10 pfennige (1½d.) per day.

As Herr Vogel was desirous that we should have a good idea of the physique of the men employed at his mills at Lunzenau, and

also, as we were assured by the men, in order that they too might pay us, as their English comrades, a special compliment, the private Fire Brigade of the Firm turned out to receive us on our arrival, attired in full uniform. They are a fine smart set of men—numbering 70 in all.

Situated as the mills are in a very healthy and picturesque district, the employees work under pleasant and good sanitary conditions. They remain for a long time in the service of the proprietor: over seventy of those on the books have been working for Herr Vogel for over 25 years.

We have repeatedly drawn attention to the colossal development in the conditions, including wages, of the working and industrial classes of Germany during the past 30 and 40 years. In no part of the Empire has this been more striking than in Saxony. The rate of wages had always been relatively low there and in some parts still is so. In some mountain districts, notably where toys are made and amongst the weavers connected with home industry, conditions prevail which are quite incomprehensible; and it is extremely difficult to alter them. For example in the Erz Mountains where the people make spoons and toys and where home industry exclusively prevails, the people used to exist on potatoes and coffee. Industry has invaded this district and the conditions of the people are improving. Herr Bing, the great Nuremberg toy-manufacturer, has a factory in this district. The conditions of such districts are mixed up with local habits and customs so that it is not invariably the case that lowness of wages signifies penury or misery.

Perhaps some idea of this may be obtained from the following communication made to us by Herr Vogel:—"I have told you," he said, "that wages have considerably increased in these parts during the past four or five decades. Let me tell you what was the normal rate in Chemnitz at the mills when I was a boy about 50 years ago. The usual average wage given was 3/- a week for the women and 6/- for the men. Where 3/- was then given 9/- and 12/- are now given—i.e. a rise of three to four hundred per cent.; in cases where 6/- used to be the normal wage 15/- per week are now earned—i.e. an increase of 150 per cent! In our mills we have always gone with the times and the relations between capital and labour have been amicably settled according to the principles of supply and demand. We never have any strikes and we get along well enough." We certainly had good reason to assume as we went over the mills that there was nothing wrong here between master and man; and the children in the town presented a very healthy, happy and prosperous appearance. In their clothing they were tidy and clean.

As regards wages and the conditions of labour in Germany people in England cannot dispel from their minds pictures that have been

shown them of times gone by. It is difficult to make them understand that Germany has not been standing still; but has been developing in methods and in wealth by leaps and bounds since 1870. The British voters will have to learn sooner or later that German labour competes with British labour and that the condition of German workmen has developed for the good since 1879 when Bismarck made the fiscal policy of the Empire a protectionist one again. As we pointed out in a previous report Prussia took up protectionism in 1828 to resist the competition of England. Mining products were subjected to duties of 20 per cent., and unmanufactured goods to one of 20 per cent. After 1833 there was a tendency towards free trade; and from 1860—1873 free trade views predominated in theory and practice. The effect of English competition in Germany startled the Germans; and they went back to protection. They came to the conclusion that their export industry flourished more under the tariff that existed from 1850—1860 than under Liberalism and free tariffs from 1860—1870. Germans admit that they have made enormous progress during the last thirty years; and this progress has been contemporaneous with protectionism. Wages *have* very materially increased in Germany within the last twenty years; and are bound to increase still more. And there can be little doubt that the hours of work for the same wage will before long be diminished. We have every reason for thinking that this demand is a just one from every point of view and notably from the point of view that now-a-days workmen are forced to live at some distance from the scene of their daily toil.

This amelioration in wages and the diminution of hours of labour has been in most parts very extensively due to the exertions of the trade organisations.

The average wages in the Lunzenau Paper Mill are from 18/- to 20/- a week for unskilled labour; and for piecework skilled labour they go up to about 30/-. House rent is not dear here. A very fair dwelling can be had for about £5 per annum. Breads costs 11 pfennige per German lb. ( $1\frac{1}{3}$ d.) so that a loaf weighing 4 English lbs. would cost  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. Meat is at least 2d. per lb. above its normal price, as everywhere else just now in Germany. Sugar is cheap— $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. : Coffee at 1/2 per lb. is drunk by the working people. The workmen's families eat meat every day at Lunzenau. There is always plenty of work to be had here, the labour market being very favourable for the workpeople.

Some paper is sent to England from these mills. Formerly, i.e. till 1890, one-third of their products was sold to England now only  $\frac{1}{20}$ th. The change is due to the fact that Scandinavia can work under much more favourable conditions than can Lunzenau. It has greater water-power and cheaper wood.

The weaving mills, where there are 450 looms, do a brisk trade

with England. Table-covers and furniture goods are sent to England and Glasgow. With their velvets and plush they compete with England in certain qualities; but there is no competition in plain wool and mohair goods.

The male weavers earn here from 18/- to 24/-, and some very good ones up to 30/- per week; the girls earn from 10/- to 15/-, some getting up to 18/- per week. There are a good many married women employed; in many cases husband and wife work in the mill. About 500 men and 350 women are employed here. There are not many boys or girls. A good deal of the raw material comes from England, e.g., from Bradford. There are now no machines from England, although formerly they came from there. In great measure Germany builds her own machines now.

At the time we were at Lunzenau it was thought that trade would not be so good after March when the new tariff would come into force.\*

## CRIMMITSCHAU.

We left Lunzenau to go to Crimmitschau, the seat of the big strikes of two years ago. The Crimmitschau strike was the hardest struggle that has taken place in Germany between capital and labour; and the object of it was to obtain a ten hours' workday. Shorter hours were demanded and higher wages.

We do not wish to interfere in the details of a struggle of comrades for ameliorating their condition; but as the fight took place a long time ago, we may perhaps venture an opinion that if it had been fought according to other methods the issue might have been more satisfactory to labour. We always advocate straightforward co-operation between master and men.

In Crimmitschau we were most certainly impressed with the idea that the conditions under which labour was carried on here were not so favourable as in other parts where we had been. It appears to us that there is room for much improvement in this locality.

The town has a population of 23,315, of whom 9,000 are work-people. The people are mostly occupied in the textile industry. They get cotton from America and Egypt and cotton-waste from Manchester. There is a very large trade with Manchester in cotton-waste.

The gentlemen that were good enough to meet us at the station in order to conduct us round took us first to the municipal school of cookery. It is carried on according to the same principle as the

\* It appears that these apprehensions have been realised to some extent.

similar school at Plauen. Fifty dinners a day are made here for the modest sum of about 1½d. by the schoolgirls, and 23 of them are destined for the Poor House hard-by. The school was founded by a Chemnitz manufacturer who gave £15,000 for the purpose. We attended an extra lesson in the afternoon which was given expressly for our benefit, the mistress and children being kind enough to devote one hour in the afternoon for this purpose. We tried to secure them a half-holiday in return, but the Director could not consent on his own initiative and a request sent in officially would have given some trouble to the school authorities. The workpeople here are simple, honest folk, and are very good as such.

The normal wage of a weaver here is from 19/- to 30/- per week; a dyer 14/6 and 15/-; a foreman receiving about 18/-.

The children of the town are very gay and we certainly found them looking well-shod, well nourished and happy. They had got wind of our contemplated visit, and showed great interest in it. One little girl who passed us in the street was in high spirits and shouted to us as she walked with two little schoolfellows:—"Good-day Mr. Englishman!" We met several of them eating their slices of bread and butter—their usual afternoon refreshment—none of them acknowledged to having dry bread: they had meat for dinner at least three or four times a week—many of them every day.

A good many of the workpeople here have their own houses in the town. Some streets contain nothing but blocks belonging to workmen; but most of the workmen live outside the town.

We did not find the children looking either half-starved or melancholy. They were exceedingly high-spirited and gay. All sorts of anecdotes are current in hostile camps about their food. We made a point of asking the children we met about their food and they never told us that they had only potatoes to live on! We are bound to say that whatever the diet here and in other parts, the children certainly all thrive on it.

We visited a Spinning Mill for carding and spinning. They have 580 spindles here. 'Imitation yarns,' peculiar to Crimmitschau are produced here and at Werdau ¼ of an hour distant from the town by rail. They have commenced weaving the same in Rhineland, thus competing with Crimmitschau. The machines in this factory, which is the largest in the town, are of a new type. We were told that it would not pay to have bigger mills here.

The hours of work are 10½ hours, viz. from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with pauses of one hour for dinner from noon to 1 p.m. and ¼ of an hour for morning and afternoon coffee—the boys having half an hour at this time. We understood that the hours will shortly be 10 hours instead of 10½.

All building goes on outside the town now, and in the town itself there has been very little development. The country people work in the factories that are in the suburbs.

At Messrs. Zeimer and Schumann's Mill, there are about 300 workpeople—almost all women and children. There are 20,000 spindles here. The mill has close relations with Great Britain, viz. with Leicester, Bradford, and Glasgow. A stoker employed here—a very good workman receiving 22s. per week—with a wife and two children told us he lived very comfortably and that he and his family ate meat every day despite the high prices.

Automatic machines are used in this mill. The Firm will be well occupied till next June. There are no unemployed in the town. There was so great a demand for labour this winter which could not be supplied on the spot, that twenty-five Galician women were induced to come over to fill up the market.

The women in the mill here get about 11/- per week; the men about 18/- and 18/6.

We questioned, at the request of one of the members of the Firm, one of the women attending the looms as to the conditions under which she and her family lived. She was evidently a good worker and a thoroughly good woman. Her husband works here too. He receives about 18/6, she about 11/3 per week—total about 29/9. They have a son of eleven years of age who does the cooking for his parents when he comes home from school! They have their coals and gas free; and their dwelling, which consists of a kitchen, a bedroom, a chamber upstairs in the attic, and a cellar costs them roughly 8/- a month or roughly £4 14s. per annum. She assured us that they got along very comfortably and were able to eat meat every day. From the above remarks it will be seen that rent—which is an important item in a working-man's life—is low here.

We are bound to say, however that there is an air of something wanting hovering over the place. We were led beforehand to suppose that the conditions here were not so favourable as in the parts of Germany we have traversed.

The Directors of the municipal Gas Works conducted us over the establishment, and we were told that the two stokers—both of whom we noted could use the shovel right well—received 23/- and 26/- per week respectively.

The town earns about £3,500 annually from the Gas Works. The men have a good mess-room assigned to them—their coffee, which they can consume ad libitum at the works, is given gratis; their baths also.

Herr Lucas Schmidt finally took us to a block of buildings which he had purchased for the benefit of the workmen employed at his mill. The dwellings are good and comfortable. We entered the

dwelling of a spinner earning 30/- per week. It consisted of two rooms, kitchen, cellar, and attic. There are four children. The family eat meat every day. The rent is about £7 per annum. The next dwelling visited was that of a weaver earning from 20/- to 22/-. His wife occupied herself with dressmaking. They were also in fair circumstances. We also inspected a small two-room apartment intended for a young couple about to be married. Everything looked fresh and nice. The furniture and kitchen equipment and house linen had been provided according to native custom by the young lady.

The following may be taken as the prices of meat and bread at Crimmitschau :—

Beef, 8d. to 8½d. per English lb.; mutton and veal, 8½d.; chopped meat, as used in German households, about 10½d. The 7lb. (German) loaf of bread costs 9½d. in Crimmitschau; so that a 4lb. (English) loaf would cost about 4¾d.

Despite the general relative unfavourable impression concerning the conditions of the working people made upon us here, we feel constrained to reproduce the statements of two impartial persons whom we met in the town.

One was a young Englishman who has been residing here for some time. He is learning German and is at work in one of the mills. He declared that when he first arrived he entertained all the prejudices of the average Englishman against German conditions and thought everything bad; but after mixing, as he did, with the working-men he had entirely changed his opinions. He found the men pleasant to deal with and intelligent and he liked conversing with them. He said he considered that the people here lived in many ways better than a vast number of working-men in England, e.g. in Nottingham and other parts. In fact he went so far as to affirm that compared with conditions he had seen elsewhere Crimmitschau could almost be styled a 'garden city.'

We admit that our visit there was paid in the afternoon of a winter's day, when it soon gets dark.

Another gentleman, a German, got into conversation with us whilst we were waiting for our train. He said in substance :—"You workmen in England have shorter hours of work—52 or 53 instead of 60; but the workman over here gets much more for his money. I will tell you what I mean—much more intellectual value. What do so many English workmen do with a relatively large part of their wages? They bet and spend their money on whisky, whilst our men don't spend too much on beer, pay only for what they consume themselves, and can get intellectual entertainment together with their wife and children at concerts, etc. Their time during their free hours and their money are, if you take the masses of the working-men

in Germany, spent in a more intellectual manner. A German working-man pays from 3d. to 4d. for entertaining himself and family to music of an afternoon or evening ; and his drink, which is beer, costs him from a little over 1d. to about 1½d. per glass. Our workmen, as a class, would not dream of considering it to be a pleasure to go and stand and drink whisky or gin, and mind you, what you chaps have is for the most part dangerously adulterated whisky and gin. How in the world your men can put up with the neglect of your Parliament in the matter of the adulteration of food and drink has always been a puzzle to me ! You say we are governed by officialdom. This may be so ; but our officials see that the people get unadulterated food and drink, good bread and good beer ; and some provision is made for them against sickness and old age by the State."

This gentleman spoke English very well ; has been a good deal in English manufacturing towns ; and is conversant, from association with the working classes, with their habits.

In the above words we only cite his opinion ; we did not at the time offer any comment and will not dilate on the subject here. Our readers can judge for themselves. These, anyhow, are the views entertained by those in Germany who are watching the capacities and physical power of our workmen very closely.

## LEIPZIG.

Formerly, Leipzig was merely an emporium of trade—one of the most important commercial towns in Germany ; but during the last forty years it has developed also into a large industrial city comprising almost all branches of industry. It is distinctly a town of work. Its population which numbered 455,089 in 1900, had increased by December 1st, 1905, to 502,605, i.e. by about 10½ per cent. In 1895 the population was 398,500, so that in ten years the population has increased by 104,205.

Leipzig is in many respects an important German city, as besides being the centre of the German book trade and comprising also book-printing and book-binding ; it is also the seat of one of the most important Universities of the German Empire ; and is now a large industrial town for machinery, etc. It is also the seat of the Supreme Court of Law of the German Empire. The Leipzig "Fairs" (or 'Messen'), despite the development of traffic by means of railways, have retained part of the importance they had acquired in the fifteenth century, notably the Easter and Michaelmas fur fairs. At these fairs about a million pounds' worth of furs change hands every year



and there is a brisk trade in leather, cloth, glass, linen and woollen goods.

As just stated Leipzig, whose name, dating from Slavonic times, signifies the town of the lime trees, is the centre of the book trade. There is a Bookseller's Exchange here where the German booksellers meet annually to balance accounts. There are from 700 to 800 booksellers and publishers here and more than a hundred printing offices.

The President of the Chamber of Commerce greeted us on the morning after our arrival, addressing us in English, and laid stress on the advantages to both nations of the maintenance of good and amiable business relations between Germany and Great Britain. He assured us further that the stories, so studiously disseminated by certain persons, as to the existence in Germany of widespread hostile sentiments towards the British nation were mythical; and he expressed a hope that we should take home with us the impression that friendliness towards England and not hostility prevailed in Germany.

We pointed out to him, as we have everywhere emphatically pointed out, that the aim and object of our mission was not a political one; that we had never intended to express any opinion on the political conditions of the German working classes or to discuss any political disputes that obtained concerning labour questions in Germany; and that we should not allow ourselves to be misled into doing so. We submitted that we were merely bent on obtaining a reliable insight into the general social conditions of our German working comrades and their families. At the same time we assured him that we heard with gratification his views as to the relations between Great Britain and Germany, and decided that such views were entertained by the working classes and by all reasonable persons in England. We informed him that the idea of our being sent to Germany to judge for ourselves as to the conditions of the working classes arose from the reiterated affirmations in England, especially of certain interested persons in our own district, to the effect that German working-people were sunk in distress and penury, were forced to eat dog-meat and to go about in rags and tatters. It was a pleasure, we said, for us to be able to state that we had completely knocked these malicious anecdotes on the head, adding that we did not believe that persons claiming to be truthful could dare to repeat them again. As to the facilities given us in Germany, it is both a duty and a pleasure to us to say that on all sides every sort of kindness and confidence has been shown us by employers and employed alike and by all the State and municipal authorities to whom we have applied for assistance. We have been in close touch with a number of the leaders of Trades organisations; and manufacturers, besides admitting us into their works, and kindly conducting us round them themselves

or providing us with those who could do so equally efficiently, have shown us their wage-books and ungrudgingly afforded us every information we desired. We have also taken full advantage of the perfect liberty accorded to us of conversing at pleasure with the workpeople employed at the various works we visited. In order that our investigations should not be one-sided, we spent half a day at the very outset of our journey with well-informed members of the Trades organisation, and have consulted the men of these organisations at various places as we went along. Notably in Frankfort-on-Maine did we make a point of studying the question with the assistance of these gentlemen; and we even submitted to a cross-examination of about a couple of hours' duration although our own purpose was to obtain information. We willingly did so, however, and the proceedings were carried out in a thoroughly amicable and confidential spirit. The officials of the Frankfort Trades organisations afforded us every assistance for which we were very grateful.

We feel it desirable to make allusion to the above points in view of certain misunderstandings to the effect that we had neglected our German comrades. We are confident that the leaders of the Trades organisations will repudiate any such aspersions.

It is right that stress should be laid upon the social significance of our enquiries. We have nothing whatever to do with politics; and this is why our comrades in England elected us without any pressure whatever from outside but in a free and independent open meeting, quite regardless of our political sentiments.

It was arranged that we should be taken in Leipzig to two printing offices; a book-binding establishment; and a well-known machinery factory. The printing offices were those of Herr Phillip Reclam, junr., and of Herr Oscar Brandstetter.

At Reclam's book-printing office there are 54 machines, and 240 men and girls are employed (seventy being girls). They take some pride here in showing an old Columbian press invented by George Clymer, an old hand, the machine dating from the year 1823.

The machines used here are all German make from Augsburg, etc. They are much slower than the English and American ones, and are said to be more durable, at all events more durable than those from America. It is submitted that the Americans go in for short existence, rapidity of movement in the machine, but short life. We were shown a patent feeder, the patents of which had belonged to a Leipzig Firm, Messrs Klein and Ungerer. This Firm sold the patents thereof to England, sending over for a short time some of their fitters to introduce it. The feeder is electric driven without straps.

The Firm is moving into new and very well-equipped premises.

The sanitary arrangements are really excellent and have been devised apparently regardless of expense.

The compositors receive 26/- a week in their first year, their wages rising to 31/-, 36/- and 38/-; overtime seems to be paid for at what we should call time and a quarter. It is regulated according to the book-printing tariff which prevails all over Germany. The printers receive in their first year (as assistants) 26/-; and their wages rise to 38/-, over-time being paid as above according to the tariff. All printers go through four years' apprenticeship. Assistants receive from 21/- to 26/- per week; the older men up to 38/-. Girls, who do only mechanical work—receive from 11/- to 13/- per week. Married women are also employed. They are subjected to the Factory Laws as regards health, viz.—they may not be employed until six weeks have elapsed after their confinement. The assistants and women and girls receive Christmas gratuities amounting to from 5/- to £10.

These rates of wages prevail all over Germany according to the book-printing tariff which has been in existence for the last fifteen years. It is revised every five years and the rates hold good for the ensuing five years. There has been an increase of 45 per cent. in wages as compared with thirty years ago. This bears out what we have established throughout our tour of enquiry, viz.—that everywhere the wages have increased during the last forty years all round in Germany, by at least 30 per cent. and far upwards in many cases. The tendency too, as we have also established, is that they will increase still higher. It is important to lay stress on this in view of statements freely made in Germany and England that protective duties tend to keep down wages, statements which, according to the ample evidence to the contrary that we have already published in our reports, are wholly devoid of foundation.

The rents for workmen's dwellings in Leipzig are high, so that much attention has been given lately to this question, and efforts have been made to supply dwellings of three rooms for about £15 per annum.

The hours of work at this printing-office are  $9\frac{1}{2}$ , with morning and afternoon pauses of  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an hour each and a dinner pause from noon till 2 p.m. At a few printing-offices in Leipzig the work-people work what they call English time, viz.,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  hours—i.e. in winter from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.; in summer from 7 a.m. to 4 p.m.;—with half an hour pause.

We should mention that at this establishment, which was founded seventy-five years ago, premiums are given after five years' service. Further, that when Herr Hans-Heinrich Reclam succeeded to the business he made the employees a present of a fund as a sign of gratitude for their faithful services. The nature.

of the present is as follows :—Male and female employees who have served the firm uninterruptedly for five years receive annually a week's holiday and the sum of 50/- to enable them to take a little trip somewhere in order to extend the horizon of their views a bit. As a matter of fact the intention of the founder of the fund has not been strictly carried out, for most of the recipients of the money prefer to remain in Leipzig and to have a good week of enjoyment there !

At the music-printing office of Herr Oscar Brandstetter there are 500 employees, one third of whom are women (some of them married). The speciality of this Firm is music-printing from stone or zinc, which is a speciality of Leipzig ; a good deal of this work is done for England. Book-printing is also done here. Several orders for music-printing have been executed, for the Salvation Army in England ; and we also saw some music being printed for a firm from Boston in South Lincolnshire.

The engravers of the music, who have a special tariff and are paid according to piece work, earn from 25/- to 40/- per week. Apprentices who work as such for four years receive 2/-, 3/-, 4/-, and 5/- per week according to the year of their apprenticeship. The hours of work here are 8½, and so-called ' English ' hours are kept, i.e. the employees work right through from 7 a.m. to 4 p.m. in summer, or from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. in winter—¼ of an hour's pause being allowed for breakfast and lunch respectively.

In the book-printing department 30 type-setting machines are in use, 24 of which are Typograph machines, the rest Monotype machines. The former were constructed at Loewe's works in Berlin and cost about half the amount of Linotype or Monotype machines, American machines which are much used in England. Hand and machine type-setters are paid here according to the general German book-printers' tariff which prescribes that the wages of the larger cities shall be higher than those paid in the smaller ones. In Berlin, for example, the tariff is 25 per cent higher than elsewhere ; in Leipzig, 20 per cent. Most of the women employed here work in the book-binding department and in the press-room for feeding the presses. They earn from 8/- to 15/- per week.

One other printing establishment in Leipzig, that employs 900 hands, does rather more music printing than does Herr Oscar Brandstetter.

At the " Leipziger Buchdruckerei Actien Gesellschaft, vormals Gustav Fritzsche "—(Leipzig Book binding Company late Gustav Fritzsche), we were given an insight into book-binding.

Three English machines are used in this establishment otherwise they are all German. About 600 persons are employed here, half of them men and half women.

As regards wages there is a wage tariff and as above stated, the tariff for Berlin and Leipzig is higher than elsewhere. For Stuttgart it is five per cent. less than for Leipzig.

There is no lack of employment in this branch at this season. The conditions of the work are healthy, and the men, women, and girls all look clean, tidy and well-cared for.

A good many albums are made here for England ; and just before Christmas an order was taken for a London Firm to bind 50,000 copies of a well-known book.

An idea of the conditions of work may be obtained from the following extracts from the tariff :—

Hours of work—nine ; except on Saturdays and the eves of legal holidays, when they are  $8\frac{1}{4}$ .

Pauses, not to be included in the hours of work, are— $\frac{1}{4}$  of an hour for breakfast and afternoon coffee, and a minimum of one hour for dinner. In the event of work continuing right through, the time is  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an hour less than that just described, and the afternoon pause is dropped. When business is dull, the employer is permitted to shorten the hours of work, but must give two days' notice of his intention to do so. The time can be curtailed from  $\frac{1}{2}$  an hour to  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a day ; but the maximum of hours thus struck out must not exceed 160 in a year.

The minimum wages for men amount to 46 pfennige ( $5\frac{1}{2}$ d) per hour for Berlin ;  $5\frac{3}{8}$ d for Leipzig ;  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d for Stuttgart. But a slightly lower tariff is fixed for those who have only learnt for three and four years respectively, and this tariff holds good until the end of the fifth year.

The minimum wages for women per hour are in the first half-year  $1\frac{7}{8}$ d. for Berlin ;  $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. for Leipzig ;  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. for Stuttgart. In the second half-year  $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. for Berlin ; 2d. for Leipzig and  $1\frac{7}{8}$ d. for Stuttgart. After the lapse of a year, trained women, with the exception of binders and goldlayers, receive  $2\frac{7}{8}$ d. at Berlin ;  $2\frac{5}{8}$ d. at Leipzig and  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. at Stuttgart per hour. The wages for other higher trained women are, with certain exceptions, at Berlin  $4\frac{1}{8}$ d. ; at Leipzig  $3\frac{1}{8}$ d. at Stuttgart 3d.

We understood that all men and women who had hitherto been working according to time were to receive a five per cent. addition in accordance with the 1900 tariff.

Overtime is paid as follows :—For men— $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. for the first hour ;  $1\frac{5}{8}$ d. for the second hour ; and  $2\frac{1}{8}$ d. for the third hour. On Sundays and the eve of public holidays over-time is paid at the rate of  $2\frac{3}{8}$ d. per hour ; for women— $\frac{5}{8}$ d., 1d.,  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. for the first, second and third hours respectively. Wages are paid on Fridays. There are rules as to the number of apprentices that may be kept.

At the Leipzig Bookbinding Co. the wages have risen  $\frac{1}{8}$ d., and  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. respectively per hour for men and women. The average earnings of this Firm's employees, most of whom do piece-work, are for men—30/- to 40/- per week; for women—who do piece-work—15/- to 25/- and 30/- a week. The amount earned varies according to the skill of the particular man and woman. Some earn up to 50/-, 60/-, and 70/- per week. Those who do the marbling work and the gilt edging earn the highest wages. Most of the work is piecework, but in order to comply with the tariff some of it has to be reckoned by time.

This establishment like many that we have seen, has developed from very modest beginnings. Gustav Fritzsche came to Leipzig in 1856 as journeyman bookbinder, but left it a few days later because his employer thought him physically too weak for his work. He and his grandfather had a strong will and he started for Thuringia returning to Leipzig three years later. He then worked as apprentice for four years more, and founded in 1863 a small printing office of his own with one workman. By 1870 he had between 30 and 40 workmen and he was able to exhibit at the exhibitions of Dresden, Leipzig and Philadelphia in 1875, 1879 and 1876 respectively. Soon after 1889 Gustav Fritzsche was elected to the Saxon Diet and he gave over the business to his son. Since 1890 the Firm has its own representatives at London, Hamburg, Berlin, Amsterdam, etc.

We paid a most interesting visit to "Karl Krause's Engine Works." These works also were of special interest because of their history. Herr Karl Krause, who founded them fifty years ago, started with only one workman; he himself was a plain working man and thoroughly understood the character and the wants of the working man. His son-in-law, Herr Biagosch, who now owns and manages the factory, and has 1,350 hands under him, kindly conducted us over the works himself. There has never been a strike here; and as the relations between employer and employed are very good it is hoped that they will always continue so. He sends a number of stamping-presses to England, where he has in London an office and depot. In the largest shop, which has an area of 55,000 sq. ft. there are 600 machines. It is a very excellent shop. We were much struck by a shaping machine with four tools all working at once made in Chemnitz from the specification of the Firm. It beat everything we have ever seen, even what we have seen at Gainsborough. The Firm possesses about fifty patents. One is for a patent bevelling machine that struck us as exceedingly interesting. In the show-room every machine manufactured by the Firm is in its place, ready to show what it can do. The castings are beautiful, as good as can be made. There is a shop for making the Firm's own special tools that are not bought, and a store where they are stored and handed out when required to the men. The

boring machines we saw here deserve special notice. All sorts of machines used for the paper industry are made here as well as stamps for bookprinting and bookbinding.

We saw a patent embossing press that this Firm send to America despite the 45 per cent AD VALOREM duty. This machine is sent to England for a price that is less by the amount of this duty because as was said—"you in England are free importers." The paper, leather and embossing machinery is all of an exceedingly good kind. We were much interested in seeing the embossing machines at work. Stamping and embossing machines, paper cutters, machines for cardboard manufacture and mill-board shears are sent from here to England and America.

Seeing no English tools in the shops we asked the reason why ; and received an answer similar to those we have already recorded :—"I know of no English tools that are more advantageous than what we have in Germany ; but of the American tools I know some that we can use with advantage and have purchased them ; I have never had the visit of an English agent at my works, although I have been here for twenty-nine years. But we have seen lots of Americans. On the other hand I have been to England myself, and have seen a lot of good special tools."

The coal used at this factory in the furnaces comes direct from the railway and is unloaded from the wagons down into the furnaces. It is not necessary to shovel it up anywhere. Saxon brown-coal (lignite) from Meuselwitz at 5/- per ton is used here.

We were told that up to now the Firm has been doing a good business in machines with Russia. The Firm is very anxious to see whether the new Russian tariff will affect its business in these machines. They do not think it will do so, as the Russians cannot make them themselves. Their business with Russia was, however, a bit slackened by the Russo-Japanese War. Everything in these works is standardised ; every man has a standard job whereby it is considered that the cost of production is less. Our host laid stress before parting from us on the successful efforts that had always been made in these works to promote good relations between employers and employed. Skilled men earn 3/6, 4/6 and up to 10/- per day. The men employed here are a very smart set.

The lavatories provided for the workpeople are spacious and well-fitted, and there are shower-baths which can be used by the workmen and their families free of charge. There is an excellent canteen at the works open all day, where the men can obtain provisions at very moderate prices. A large piece of sausage and two rolls of white bread can be obtained here for about 1½d. The library connected with the factory containing more than a thousand volumes is appreciated and on the day we were there four hundred books

were taken out. Books can be taken out free of charge ; but only one volume at a time, and it must not be retained longer than a fortnight. Books can be fetched on Monday and Thursday evenings from 6 to 6-30 in summer, and from 6-30 to 7 in winter.

We had made arrangements to have a conversation here with the secretary of the Trades organisations. He had fixed his own time and place of meeting ; but by an accidental confusion he missed us after we had waited three quarters of an hour for him. We were, however, able to obtain indirectly some interesting information from him. He said that there had been no secretary belonging to the organisations here until 1904 ; but that now a good deal of work was being done. Information on various matters connected with the State Insurance Scheme was given to a number of organised applicants.

Before 1897, as we learnt from this gentleman, rents for workmen's dwellings used to be about £7 10s. For this price it was possible to obtain two small rooms, a kitchen and a large room, with two windows. The rent went up suddenly in that year, and the average price now is from £11 to £12 5s., and in the central part of the town rents have risen to about £13. The workpeople now prefer to reside outside the town, because those dwellings that are to be got in the town itself are very bad. There is a want of air and light in them. Owing to the present high rent for dwellings consisting of a kitchen, two good rooms, and two small ones, with cellar and attic—viz., from £17 10s. to £21, most of the people underlet one of their rooms to some stranger. Wages, this gentleman said, were too low compared with the price of rent.

The following is a list of prices he gave :—Beef, 9½d. per English lb., formerly 3½d. less ; pork the same price, also formerly 3½d. less ; veal 8½d., formerly 6½d. ; mutton 7½d., formerly 7d. Bread costs 4½d. for a loaf weighing 4 English lbs.

We were assured by him that the relations between employer and employed in Leipzig were on the whole rather bad—that they were always quarrelling, e.g. those connected with the building trade, carpenters, etc., were always at loggerheads with their employers. Bricklayers, however, he said could not complain : the masters always kept their word, and wages had been rising since 1894. Carpenters were suffering just now from want of employment.

Industry, he said, was doing very well indeed.\*

We consider the Leipzig industrial workmen, with whom we came into contact, to be a fine set of men and very capable at their work. We found the women in the factories and printing establish-

\* According to the information of the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce, the introduction of the new Customs Tariff has so far produced no injurious effect whatever on trade. The period of prosperity now enjoyed by German industry is without precedent in the Empire.



ments and the children of the working classes that we saw, as well-dressed and tidy as those we had seen in other parts of Germany.

No hangers about or 'unemployed' were loafing in the streets here and at the factories there was plenty of employment.

With regard to the remarks we have made on the housing of the working classes in Germany we are pleased to note that Mr. Harris, the American Consul at Chemnitz, who has written a good deal on this subject for the Washington Department of Labour, fully confirms in his latest report what we have stated. He says:—"Experience has shown in Germany as elsewhere, that the more a manufacturer learns to differentiate between a man and a machine, the more he is likely to reduce the danger of strikes."

## DRESDEN.

From Leipzig we proceeded to Dresden, the capital of the Kingdom of Saxony. In 1800 Dresden, whose name signified in the 5th century 'the people from the marshy forest,' had a population of 54,800. The Seven Years' War, during which the town was besieged and attacked by Austrians and Prussians, had diminished the population of the city, which from 1700, till then had increased from 21,000 to 63,000, by fully a quarter; but during the nineteenth century the city picked up again and by 1861 the population had risen to 128,000, and by 1871 to 192,000. Up to 1860 in the last century one of Dresden's chief sources of revenue was the numerous foreign visitors that flocked thither; but about that time the citizens began to be enterprising, and the first steps were taken that have made of Dresden also a manufacturing centre of some importance. The results of the wave of commercial and industrial progress that began to sweep over the whole of Germany between thirty and forty years ago are to be seen here too. People in England, who do not know Germany, still imagine that Dresden is the somewhat backward but pleasant resort of pleasure where foreigners from all parts foregather to enjoy themselves as was done in the days of their grandsires, on small incomes. But all this has changed. Dresden is no longer a cheap town to live in. It has many luxurious hotels; the land, that separated the capital from the adjacent villages, turned by the plough up to only fifteen or twenty years ago, is now covered with beautiful villas and comely streets, and a large portion of the population is engaged in industry. Here as in the poor mountainous districts of the kingdom, the effect of the re-union of the Empire has been to ameliorate the conditions of the people. To use the words of a Saxon authoritative statement generally accepted in the country as correct:—"The respect of the world acquired by our nation through the successes of German arms and Bismack's statecraft; and the prevailing confident belief that the newly founded

Empire will continue to exist under the beneficent influence of peace together with the confidence inspired by our spirit of enterprise, produced, in conjunction with the progress of technical knowledge and a policy of moderate protection, a development of industry that had never been conceived as possible. Here, as elsewhere, the number and extent of the factories continued to multiply, and thousands of workpeople from the country and the provincial districts settled in the suburbs that are now growing into small towns."

It was impossible for the Ober-Bürgermeister to have a very extensive plan drawn up for us as we have no longer much time at our disposal. To our great regret, also, we have been obliged for the same reason to abandon our intended visit to Upper Silesia,\* and Wilhelmshaven ; and we find that our work is fully cut out for us if we are to obtain even a cursory glance of some of the principal institutions of Dresden, Berlin and Hamburg. Through the courtesy of Dresden's Lord Mayor, however, an instructive itinerary was arranged for us. We were taken first to the office of the 'Dresdner Anzeiger' (Dresden Advertiser), and were permitted to inspect the printing office of the so-called 'Dr. Güntz Institute.' The printing office was bequeathed unconditionally by its former proprietor, Herr Blochman, in 1895 to the 'Dr. Güntz Institute.' A long time previously, in 1856, Dr. Güntz, then publisher of the 'Dresdner Anzeiger,' which was at that time a sheet of no particular significance, made over by will to the Municipality of Dresden his rights in the paper as a Special Fund which was to be administered as follows:—one third of the net profits was to be paid over to his heirs, and the other two-thirds were to be devoted—firstly, for charitable purposes for the benefit of the working classes of Dresden; and secondly, for the adornment of the city. The profits amount at times, as we were told, to Mks. 250,000 (£12,255) per annum.

A portion of the official documents of the Town Council of Dresden are printed at this office as well as the 'Dresdner Anzeiger.' There are 5 Linotype machines in the type-setting Department which are used for setting the newspaper just mentioned; 4 cylinder printing-presses and 2 Tiegel printing-presses are used for printing circulars and sundries.

The sanitary arrangements for the workpeople at this office are very good, and amongst the other arrangements made for their comfort it may be mentioned that there is a canteen on the premises and a bathing room with eight separate compartments. Every Department has also a large room where lunch can be taken, and a lavatory and dressing-room. Every workman is provided with a separate towel and a drawer with a lock to it.

\* A report on the conditions of labour in Upper Silesia is however, appended on page —

The annual earnings of the composers range according to the entries in the wage-book which was shown to us between Mks. 1863 and Mks. 2116 (i.e. £91 6s. and £103 15s.) The best paid man earned last year at piece-work Mks. 2590 (about £127). The head machinists received from Mks. 1955 to Mks. 2651 (i.e. £95 16s. to £130). There are only seven women employed on the premises, and they receive from Mks. 13.50 to Mks. 15 (i.e. 13/3 to 14/8½) per week.

Thanks to the kindness of the Manager we were permitted to inspect the "Georg A. Jasmatzi Cigaretten Fabrik, Aktien Gesellschaft" (Georg A. Jasmatzi Cigarette Factory). There are 750 hands employed here, 620 of whom are women.

We were taken all over the works and initiated into all the details of the manufacture of cigarettes, seeing the leaves as delivered in the factory and the men and women at work. We noted that English cutters are used here as well as German cutters. There are some employees here that have worked with the Firm for nearly twenty years. The Firm has only a small trade with England, but a good deal of business is done with India, Denmark, Sweden, Belgium and Africa.

An idea will be formed of the extent of the business when we say that a stock of about twenty millions of cigarettes is always kept on hand, and that about 100,000 packets go through the German Post Office annually, which number does not include the large cases sent off by rail. These are for the home market.

The hours of work are from 7 a.m. to noon and from 12-30 p.m. to 5 p.m. There are no pauses.

The average wages (for piecework) are as follows :—For makers of hand-made cigarettes 20/- a week. A few Greeks employed in this work receive as much as 35/-; in the packing department, 18/- per week; in the tobacco department the men get 23/-, the women 17/-. The average wages for the others are as follows (not piecework) :—For makers of machine-made cigarettes, 27/- per week for the men, and 11/- for the girls; in the box department both men and girls receive 20/- per week.

Last year this factory had some trouble with its employees, about 50 per cent of whom went on strike. They demanded a uniform wage throughout all the departments which the Firm considered to be not only a foolish demand but one that was impossible to concede. The strikers did not gain their point and were all dismissed, new men and girls being taken in their place. One of the strikers had been in receipt of 36/- per week and was an excellent worker; since then he has not been able to obtain equally good employment, and is now obliged to content himself with 9/- per week elsewhere.

There are capital workers in this factory, many of whom remain for a number of years. After ten years' service an employee receives a gold watch, after twenty years' service certain presents, including £5. All workers receive Christmas gifts.

The cigarette manufacturers in Dresden are inaugurating this winter a fund of about £3,700 for giving aid to the workpeople during sickness or when they are in need of assistance.

At the canteen the employees can obtain a dinner consisting of meat, potatoes and vegetables for 3d. ; coffee costs them from about  $\frac{1}{8}$ d. to  $\frac{5}{8}$ d. per can ; beer  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per bottle ; sandwiches—i.e. rolls with meat or sausage or cheese 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. to 2 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. The workpeople at this factory in general take their principal meal, or dinner, after 5 p.m. when work is over for the day.

Our visit to the 9th District School, attended almost exclusively by children of the working classes and of small tradesmen, was of exceptional interest. Full particulars of everything connected with the Government of the city of Dresden including details of the Educational Department were given last summer to the British Committee for the Study of Foreign Municipal Institutions, but we think we can enter into details on the subject for the benefit of our fellow-workmen at Gainsborough.

The sum devoted by the municipality of Dresden in 1905 for higher education was £60,936, for elementary schools including Continuation Schools £304,851, for the Commercial School £5,249, for school for reforming bad children £1,578, for Commercial Continuation Schools, £800 ; for schools of various confessions £2,067, for various scholarships for students of the Dresden Technical University about £500. Total £375,981.

Besides the schools under the immediate control of the municipality there are a good many private schools and a certain number with the management of which the Council of Education is partly concerned.

For higher education the municipality has six gymnasiums, three Real-Schools, and two High Schools for girls. We shall confine our attention to the Elementary or Primary Schools called National Schools, divided into Bürgerschulen which we may call Burgess Schools, and Bezirkschulen or District Schools ; and of these two kinds we have only to deal closely with the latter which are frequented almost exclusively by the children of workmen.

In 1905 there were 59 of these District Schools in which were 1,616 classes, taught by 1,403 teachers ; the classes comprised 66,679 pupils, so that about forty-two pupils fell to each class. Included in these 59 schools were two schools for backward children, containing 168 pupils—9 classes.

It should be noted that in the Saxon, as well as in all German National Schools from two to three lessons in religion are given weekly. There is no difficulty about this. In Saxony the majority of the population are Protestants, and the religion of the school is the religion of the majority ; but the minority receive their religious instruction from their own clergy, special rooms being assigned to them for the purpose. Religion is looked upon as a necessary subject of education for the people, and is as obligatory as other subjects ; but of course no effort at proselytism is made or permitted to be made. The Protestants are taught by the Schoolmasters ; the Roman Catholics by the Roman Catholic Clergy ; and the Jews by their own special instructors.

The primary schools of Dresden for Protestant children (' Evangelical ' is the expression used here) are attended by roughly 59,000 pupils. The total number of children in the purely Roman Catholic Schools, of which there were four District Schools in 1903, amounted to 3,144 in 94 classes. Protestant and Roman Catholic Schools alike are under the control of the Education Department.

A pamphlet on the subject of ' Elementary Education in Saxony ' by Mr. J. L. Bashford, M.A., was published in 1882 by Messrs. Sampson Low and Rivington, and was highly commended by the Right Hon. A. J. Mundella, then Head of the Education Department at Whitehall. The pamphlet, which is now out of print, is still cited by Messrs Swan Sonnenschein, in their catalogue as one of the text books on the subject.

The Saxon Education Department provides all that it deems suitable for the requirements of a school. For example, every school has a library of its own, one section for the pupils and one for the teachers.

The older school buildings are not very attractive to the eye ; but all newly-built ones are erected with as much attention to architecture as to internal equipment. The 9th District School that we visited may be taken as a model in regard to internal equipment and is also very attractive as a building.

The school-fees in the schools we style Burgess Schools are roughly 48/- per annum (for Non-Saxons 50 per cent is added to the fee) : in the District Schools (i.e. for the children of the working classes) the annual fee is roughly 7/-, or 7d, (60 pfennige) per month. A father only pays, however, for two children if three or more are attending school.

The age for commencing school is six, and children remain till the completion of their fourteenth year.

School begins at 8 a.m. in winter, and half-an-hour earlier in summer.

Workshops are attached to eight of the primary schools. There are also special courses for stammering children.

We noted with interest that school gardens have been attached to some of the National Schools since 1891, the main object, amongst others, being to impart habits of method into the science of nature as taught in schools. By 1901 eighteen of the municipal national schools were in possession of this very important means of affording instruction by means of practical object lessons. There can be no doubt as to the benefits that these gardens can confer on the pupils if properly utilized. One of the earliest of them was the so-called 'Botanical School-Garden' attached to the 6th Burgess School of the city. It is laid out in a very skilful manner with beds for plants and vegetable and trees.

The pupils of all the schools have facilities accorded them for studying botany in the Royal Botanical Gardens and Zoology in the Zoological Gardens.

The practical results achieved during the last two years under the Staffordshire scheme for providing gardening classes to Elementary Day Schools lead us to assume that the Staffordshire County Council instructor in horticulture and those responsible for the general directions of the Board of Education in the Elementary School Code of 1905 were in touch with the work being carried out in Dresden in this field of activity. We have heard that the Staffordshire scheme has been widely taken up by school managers; and that it is stated that the educational use of the gardening class is considerable; also that in the past session sixty-five classes had been held at sixty-four public elementary schools. It has been said that in some of these a very high level of success has been achieved; and, in nearly all, the work done has been most satisfactory.

This is doubtless, indirectly at least, a good instance of the advantage of amicable interchange of ideas between Britain and Germany.

Great attention is paid, and has been paid for many years in Saxony, to the Continuation Schools\* which have been compulsory for over a quarter of a century for boys and girls of from 14 to 17 after they have left the Elementary Schools. There are about 3,000 pupils now in the Municipal Continuation Schools. Besides these Municipal Continuation Schools there are also a number of so-called Commercial Continuation, or Crafts Schools, coming under the same category, but supported by nearly all the various trades. Classes exist also for girls for instruction in cookery and domestic housekeeping.

For the physical training of the school children there are bathing establishments in the river where baths can be taken free of charge;

\* Cf: 'Elementary Education in Saxony,' above quoted.

excursions are arranged in the summer and skating parties in the winter.

The Continuation Schools of Dresden like those of Chemnitz, have a record of something like thirty years of manifold development.

Two or three times a year the children of the higher classes of the National Schools are allowed to go to the Theatre Royal to witness a performance of one of Schiller's best plays, a fee of only 3d being taken and about twelve People's Libraries have been set up in various parts of the city.

In 1905 about 73,525 books were taken out of these libraries by about 4,771 school children. For the maintenance of these libraries a sum of about £998 was required of which the municipality contributed £910.

We were conducted into several of the class rooms of the 9th District school by the Director. The answers given to some of our questions about the food the children got at home were in part humorous. They all looked well-fed and scrupulously tidy and clean. Their parents pride themselves on sending their children to school with their clothes in perfect order. In a drawing class where there were boys of nine years old the question was put, "How much meat do you have at home every day for dinner?" "We have meat three times a week." "What do you live on on other days?" "Doubtless the little lad got a bit confused over the series of questions for he replied "Beefsteak and mashed potatoes!" "Are you ever hungry?" "No; we have quite enough to eat." In another class of boys a lesson on electricity was going on, and the lads gave us a specimen of their intelligence and knowledge of this subject.

We were then taken into a class room where some of the little ones were partaking of soup provided for them at about 11 o'clock in the morning. The quite small ones—numbering about 36—have it without meat; some 36 who are a little older, receive soup and meat at a restaurant hard-by. This soup is distributed to the children of specially poor parents from December to February in all the District schools. The cost is paid by a private society. In this school about £9 are given for the purpose.

The school shower baths are excellent. Boys and girls can take a bath here once a fortnight; special days being arranged for each of the two sexes. Bathing is not obligatory, but in winter 96 to 98 per cent of the boys bathe; and about 55 per cent of the girls. In summer they all go to the Elbe to bathe and swim. About 600 are taught in the Elbe to swim free of charge.

The class room for needlework for girls of from 12 to 13 years of age, is exceedingly well equipped.

In this class we asked our usual questions about the food the children received at home. For the first time during our tour of enquiry we met with a child who had to say that its parents were in distress. The poor little mite wept bitterly as she told us that her father had been without work since Christmas. A visit was subsequently paid to the parent's house and we heard the whole story. The father is a first-rate, honest hard-working tinker, who in general earns an average of 25/- per week ; he is also house-porter in the house where he lives, and the salary he gets for this appointment helps to pay the rent. The family inhabit a flat of four rooms the rent for which is £18 per year, in the fourth storey—part of which they let. They have evidently lived very careful lives, for starting on almost nothing they have furnished their home very comfortably. They had been undergoing considerable hardship the last few weeks and had met it with laudable pluck and bravery.

The difficulties of the situation were much enhanced by the fact that there are six children to provide for—the mother having twice borne twins. We took the opportunity of giving ourselves the pleasure of subscribing a small sum to assist our German comrade, and the gratitude expressed for this simple act of fraternity was really too touching.

Up to last autumn the man had belonged to his trade association and was therefore subject to the regulations of the association in regard to strikes. In view of his wife and six children he was constrained to leave the association in order that he might regain his independence and work for the support of his family and himself. In this family we learnt that they seldom had meat to eat, but lived mostly on vegetables, rice and milk, potatoes, herrings and bread.

The Commercial Handicrafts School that we visited has from a thousand to eleven hundred pupils. In the day school for youths there are 500 pupils from 14 to 17 years of age. The course lasts for four years. The pupils are supposed to come from the Elementary Schools, but the school is open to others also.

In the first year Mathematics, Physics, and Drawing are taught ; in the next three years special attention is paid to the several handicrafts required by the pupils.

The evening school, which is municipal, as mentioned above, has existed for forty years. Eight hours instruction per week are given in the 1st year in the evening ; 10 in the 2nd ; 12 in the 3rd ; and from 12 to 14 in the 4th year.

The lessons are given three or four times a week, and on Sunday mornings from 7 a.m. to 9 a.m., and from 10-30 a.m. to 2 p.m.

In the day school, which is independent of the Sunday school, 36 hours instruction are given per week.



The fees are 15/- per half year in the evening school ; and 36/- per half year in the day school.

We visited some classes in the day school. In one where a drawing lesson was going on the pupils were from 14 to 15 years old. It was mechanical drawing, and included the drawing of tools, etc. The room is light and the tables are good for working purposes ; and the ventilation of the room is all that could be desired.

In the next class the lads ranged between 15 and 19. Commercial instruction was being given to incipient bricklayers and carpenters. They were being taught how to draw up estimates.

We made the acquaintance here of an English lad of nineteen years of age, a native of Manchester. His parents are residing just now in Dresden, and he is living with them. His father was the agent for a cotton firm in Manchester. The lad is studying to be an architect and contemplates returning to England. He attended the so-called Bau-Gewerbeschule (Architect's School), here for a year ; and last summer worked as a bricklayer.

He declared that the pupils over here are better grounded than they are in English schools. He says also that the Technical Schools, of which there are a good many in England, are too advanced for the working classes ; and he considers that a school like this Gewerbeschule is much more suited to their wants.

His intention is to go through four sessions at the Bau-Gewerbeschule (or Builder's School) and to do practical work in the summer.

The fees at the Bau-Gewerbeschule are 50/- for the half-year.

In the third class we entered the pupils were drawing flowers from nature and other objects from models.

The Director of this school told us he is coming to England in the summer, in order to visit schools and factories on behalf of forty newspapers. We begged him to pay a visit to Gainsborough where we feel sure he will be granted all the facilities he requires, and where he will be able to learn a good deal that will interest him in our technical schools and at our factories.

There are half-holidays on Wednesdays and Saturdays, and the pupils meet at one of the town playgrounds for sports.

In 1904 there were 971 pupils in the summer, and 1,005 in the winter of 1904—1905.

The number of pupils since 1895 was as follows :—

Day.	Summer.		Day.	Winter.	
	Evening and Sunday.	Total.		Evening and Sunday.	Total.
1896—97...233	727	960	328	708	1036
1897—98...221	721	942	304	736	1040
1898—99...142	625	767	246	648	894
1899—00...134	688	822	244	690	934
1900—01...124	698	822	232	638	870
1901—02...100	716	816	206	646	852
1902—93...111	725	836	296	663	859
1903—04...112	775	887	205	723	928
1904—05...142	829	971	218	787	1005

From 1898—1899 some classes that had hitherto belonged to the Gewerbeschule were transferred to the Municipal Continuation School.

There is a large lecture room at this school for special occasions, which is very well equipped: a workshop; and electric shop with two gas motors and well fitted for twenty pupils—for evening classes. Next year a shop for tool engines and for carpenters' work is to be erected.

The Dresden Reading Room is a new institution founded by the town and opened in December, 1902. On the ground floor is a People's Reading Room which is open to everybody free of charge. A number of useful books, newspapers and periodicals are to be had here.

At the Municipal Hospital at Dresden-Johannistadt, the foremen receive from 31/- to 55/- a week—the maximum after 18 years; the machinists from 20/4 to 37/6, the maximum after 21 years.

In both cases £15 per year are deducted for dwelling, coals and lights.

Stokers receive 20/4 to 33/3, the maximum after 21 years. £10 are deducted for dwelling, coals and lights.

The salaries for attendants to the sick run from 41/- to 91/- per month, the maximum after nine years' service. For nurses the salaries run from 25/- to 41/- per month, the maximum after three years' service.

Holidays are given each year from one week to three weeks according to the wages and salaries of the individual.

Pensions are granted after 40 years' service, or after the individual has completed the 65th year of his age. They vary from 30 per cent. of the wage after 10 years to 80 per cent. The minimum pension is £20/10/-. Widows and orphans also receive pensions.

The Guntz Baths recently erected are a most laudable institution for a populous city like Dresden. They will be open all the year round from 7 a.m., 7-30 a.m., or 8 a.m., according to the month, till 8 p.m. There are swimming baths for men and women ; and all kinds of other baths, including Turkish and Russian baths.

There is even a department for washing dogs.

The charge for the swimming bath is moderate. On ordinary days it is about  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d., and on days for the working classes about  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. The charge for children in both cases 1d. and  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. respectively less. The other baths run from 1/- and 6d. in the first class, and  $4\frac{1}{8}$ d. in the second class.

Dogs can have a swim for 3d. to  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. according to size ; can be washed from 6d. to about 11d., and can be shorn from 1/6 to 3/-

In all cases for men, women and dogs reductions are made if subscription tickets are taken.

(Signed). T. W. MOTTERSHALL.  
G. PROCTOR.  
G. W. BROWN.  
H. CALVERT.  
J. MANN.  
H. BEILBY.

## REPORT XIII.

### BERLIN.

An exhaustive account of the social conditions of the working classes at Berlin must not be expected in this report, for as the time allotted to us for our tour of inspection was almost wholly taken up elsewhere before we reached the German capital, we only had a week left to devote to Berlin and Hamburg together. It would have been necessary, however, to remain at least a fortnight in Berlin if we had taken only a cursory glance of all that is worthy of inspection there for our purpose. Still we will endeavour to give a general idea of this most interesting field of observation. In the short time at our disposal we covered a good deal of ground.

Our first day on arriving in Berlin was spent at the Workmen's Sanatoria at Beelitz, built by the National Insurance Department of Berlin, an institution that owes its origin to the Workmen's Insurance Acts of Imperial Germany. We have alluded more than once in previous reports to these Acts.

It has been explained that according to the spirit of the German Imperial Workmen's Insurance Law against sickness, one of the aims of the authorities is to try to use preventive remedies against disease. Hence efforts are made by means of Sanatoria like those at Beelitz to check the ravages of diseases, such as those of the lungs and the stomach, and rheumatism, in order that the workmen may be able to return to their daily work capable of earning their living and the livelihoods of their families. All workmen in Germany must contribute together with their employers, to the payment of premiums for their insurance against the possibility of being prevented by sickness from earning wages. The workmen pay half of the premium; the employers the other half. At the head of the National Insurance Departments, of which Berlin is one, there is a Council consisting of an official of the State Civil Service, as chair-

man, and a Board of Representatives of the employers and employed, elected by the representatives of both sides. All the Insurance Departments are required by the law of the Empire to take such measures as they may deem necessary for preventing the workpeople from succumbing to premature infirmity. Of course this is an advantage to the workman and his family, for it is better that he should retain his power to work, than that he should be forced to claim the privileges accruing from another of the Workmen's Insurance Laws, viz., a pension on account of premature infirmity. It is also an advantage to the Insurance Department, because the payment of pensions can thereby be deferred or avoided altogether. The authorities have come to the conclusion that they can best arrive at the desired end by building Sanatoria for workmen. They began by turning their attention to diseases of the lungs, because it is tuberculosis that most frequently disables workpeople rendering them incapable to work. But patients suffering from other complaints, such as rheumatism, diseases of the heart, and the digestive organs, and all complaints that are not of a contagious or syphilitic nature are taken in at Beelitz. The Insurance Department bears the cost of the treatment, and gives pecuniary assistance to the workman's family as long as he is an indoor patient at the Sanatorium. All contagious diseases are treated in other hospitals.

The Sanatoria we are speaking of are erected in the midst of an extensive pine forest. They are exclusively for the workmen and workwomen of Berlin. There is a series of buildings for men, and some distance removed from them is another series of buildings for women. The two sections are connected by subterranean passages, containing the pipes for heating, etc.,—the whole establishment being heated and lighted from one common source. When we were there, 560 patients were undergoing treatment; 630 can be taken in, and extensions are being made in both the men's and the women's sections in order that still more space may be at the command of the department, and that intending patients shall not be obliged to wait for their turn of admittance.

An establishment like this is never at rest so far as building is concerned. After the foundation stone was laid four years elapsed before it could be opened for use, Great care was displayed in deciding about the equipment, as it was intended that the most modern inventions should be utilized in every department. The president of the Berlin National Insurance Department, Dr Richard Freund, accompanied by a number of specialists travelled through Germany and Austria-Hungary to collect hints; and they went on to England to study the internal arrangements of our hospitals. These gentlemen were furnished by the late Empress Frederick with many letters of introduction, and King Edward, who was then

Prince of Wales, also received the deputation having previously let it be known that he was personally much interested in the scheme.

It may be mentioned that the Sanatoria have been repeatedly inspected by foreigners from all parts of the world. The members of the International Tuberculosis Congress took great interest in them when they were at Berlin, and amongst the British medical men who attended that Congress, there were four special delegates sent by the King. Shortly afterwards one of them, Dr Hillier, brought over a deputation nominated by the Friendly Societies of England in order that they might make themselves acquainted with what was being done in Germany in this field.

When completed the establishment will be three times as large as it now is, and will contain about 1,800 beds—the price of which comes out at from £392 to £442 (8,000 to 9,000 Mk.,)—per bed.

The premises cover an area of 140 hectares or 326 acres, situated in a pine forest extending over several thousands of acres. In the neighbourhood of the Sanatoria are also a good many Scotch firs (*pinus sylvestris*). The Sanatoria are thus surrounded on all sides by forest trees. The entire property is divided into parts by the railway, so that it has been possible to keep the hospitals for diseases of the lungs quite separate from the other hospitals—the former being on one side of the railway, the others on the other side. A similar division made by the main road has enabled the authorities to effect a natural boundary between the men's and the women's hospitals.

As regards space, light, ventilation, and the latest inventions of modern science, these buildings are fully up to date. The Sanatoria for both sexes; laundries, kitchens, bath rooms, with baths and sprays of all kinds including electric baths, operation rooms, a Röntgen cabinet; the engine houses and electrical machinery; ice-making machine; skittle-alley and whitesmiths' and carpenters' shops for the amusement of the men; as well as the reclining halls are all shown to visitors.

The patients are not compelled to do unusual labour but many of the men like to use the shops and a number of women while away their time with knitting. The materials are supplied free of charge and what the patients make they can take away with them or dispose of as they like. At certain hours those patients who are permitted by the doctors to do so take part in gymnastic exercises under the direction of a trained teacher.

The dining hall in which the patients take their meals together, is a splendid spacious room, provided with an orchestion worked by electricity that plays during meals. Beer, wine, and seltzer water are provided for the patients.

There are 500,000 persons in Berlin who contribute to the Imperial Insurance, and the capital to the credit of the fund now amounts to £2,941,176 (60,000,000 Mk.).

The expense of maintaining the Beelitz Sanatoria is as follows :— Salaries, Mk. 240,000, roughly £11,760 ; food, Mk. 450,000 roughly £22,056 ; other expenditure, Mk. 310,000, roughly £15,190 ; total per annum roughly £49,000.

The family of a patient receives support during his stay at Beelitz according to the contribution he makes to the Imperial Insurance Fund. It amounts to from one-fourth to three-fourths of his full wages.

There are about 2,000 workers over 70 years of age in Berlin ; who are in receipt of old age pensions ; and from 24,000 to 25,000 who are receiving infirmity pensions.

The total number of workers insured in the German Empire against sickness in 1903 was 10,914,933. Ten years ago—in 1893—the number was 7,574,942.

The working classes, as is usual with most people in regard to innovations, did not at first appreciate the benefits of Beelitz ; but there is now scarcely a dissentient voice as to its advantages. Patients obtain under the best of conditions the best medical treatment and care, good healthy, invigorating fresh air and perfect quiet and rest. They are not shut off from their friends, for on Sundays relatives and friends can come out to see them, and perfect liberty is given to them to wander about with their friends on the occasion of these visits in a certain part of the sylvan premises set aside for this purpose.

It is in general admitted that the stay in the hospital has a very remarkable hygienic influence on the patients. The ideas they imbibe here of ventilation, cleanliness and so forth are in general taken back with them into their homes.

Obstreperous patients are of course soon dismissed. Despite the advantages conferred on the patients generally, it happens not infrequently that many complain of the good food they get. These complaints are generally noticeable when the patients are getting better, when the restraint of discipline becomes irksome and the desire to get back to ordinary life makes them restless and irritable.

It is intended to found here a Dental Klinik at a cost of about £5,000 ; and artificial teeth are supplied to the patients when it is deemed necessary.

On the following day we paid a visit to the Berlin Labour Bureau (Central-Arbeitsnachweis). It will be remembered that a somewhat detailed account of the Frankfort Bureau was given in our report on Frankfort. An attempt to organize a Labour Bureau in Berlin

was first made in 1883 ; but the locality where the offices were held was unsuitable—viz., the arches of the City railway—and it was not sufficiently comprehensive. An amendment to the Premature Infirmary Insurance Act enabled the National Insurance Department to take the initiative and build a house. Dr. Freund's proposals met with support ; and the city undertook to subsidise the Bureau with about £1,000 per annum.

The municipality now contributes £2,000 per annum towards defraying the expenses, and a number of employers of labour pay an annual subscription also. The fees from the workmen are too small to make the institution self-supporting.

The business of the Labour Bureau is managed by a committee of twenty-one members, assisted by a special sub-committee of every branch of trade, consisting of employers and employed in equal numbers elected according to specially defined rules. The Chairman is an official of the Civil Service and has no vote.

The new house was opened in 1902 ; and the activity of the Bureau makes fresh head-way every year. The Bureau is open for unskilled workmen from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. in summer ; and from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. in winter.

Every applicant for employment pays a fee of 20 pfennige (2½d.) whereupon he receives a printed card to be filled out with certain particulars about himself, amongst which he has to state how long he has been without occupation. This card which holds good for three months entitles the holder to enter the waiting-hall. In the waiting-hall which resembles a large exchange, the inspector calls out the vacant situations and selects a certain number of applicants whose names are sent in to the respective employers of labour. Preference is given to married men and to those who have been long waiting for a situation. Those selected deliver up their cards and have to present themselves to the employer forthwith. Those who are not taken must report themselves to the office within 24 hours, otherwise their cards lapse.

The rooms are spacious. Adjoining them are small apartments where a tailor and a cobbler sit, both of whom undertake simple repairs for which they are paid 3/- per day. The charge made is 10 pfennige, i.e. 1½d. per job. There is a buffet also in the waiting-halls where light refreshments can be obtained at cheap prices. The institution consists of two houses. Separate rooms are provided for skilled and unskilled labour and for lads and women. Shower baths have been erected in the establishment where a workman can obtain a bath, including soap and towel for 5 pfennige—just over ½d.

There is room for 2,000 persons in each house, total 4,000 persons. The temperature of the rooms is kept normal and great attention is paid to ventilation. The cost of erection was roughly £31,862.



There were a good number of applicants for situations on the morning of our visit, but there was nothing unusual about the scene. About a thousand applicants come here daily in January, mostly artisans and ordinary workmen. On the day we were there, January 15th, there were only 120 applications from employers. It was stated that very few mechanics were applying for work. On the other hand there were about 102 upholsterers and paper-hangers, amongst whom employment is generally slack at this time of the year. Only four applications came in this morning from masters, whilst in April and October there are generally about 80 applications from that source.

We were somewhat struck by a remark made by one of the leading officials of the Labour Bureau :—" In England the key to the question of the ' Unemployed ' is the Trades Unions ! "

The average wage for unskilled workmen in Berlin for heavy work e.g. with stones and earth is 27/- per week or 4/6 day ; and for lighter work, men of from 18 to 22 years old, 22/- to 24/- per week, or 3/8 to 4/- per day.

The statistics of the Labour Bureau cannot be taken as giving an absolute idea of the number of ' unemployed ' because situations are obtained through various sources. The trades organisations also have their Labour Bureau ; and the various Bureaus work in harmony with one another. According to the official returns there were at the Central Labour Bureau in 1904 :—99,874 applications from workmen ; 90,499 vacancies announced by employers ; 67,017 situations obtained. In all cases the numbers exceeded those of 1903.

As far as we could make out, the figures for 1905 were :—132,950 applications from workmen ; 125,200 vacancies announced by employers ; 90,058 situations obtained. The figures given by the trade organisations for their Labour Bureau for 1905 were 99,874, 90,499, and 67,017 respectively.

The same forms are observed in the section for women as in that for men : the officials for this section are women.

Herr Körsten, one of the Socialist Deputies of the Reichstag, and Secretary of the Berlin Gewerkschafts-Kommission (Trades Union Commission), who had kindly given us introductions to the local provincial officials of the trades organisations throughout Germany was extremely courteous to us and showed us over the Gewerkschaftshaus, or official centre of the trades organisations, which contains the offices, rooms for meetings, restaurant, etc., etc., as well as a so-called ' Travellers' Rest ' or ' Lodging House for journey-men-workmen ' where bedrooms are supplied to journeymen workmen. He also obtained tickets for us to witness a sitting of the Reichstag or Imperial Diet. The Gewerkschaftshaus is managed

on thoroughly business principles ; and the chief intelligence of the party is centred here. The officials connected with the Statistics Department are authorities on their subject ; and everything is carried out with the utmost industry and zeal in the Berlin Gewerkschaftshaus in order to afford the working classes all the technical assistance that the party can give them. The day we were there a congress of delegates was being held to consider the attitude to be taken towards certain modifications concerning the Imperial Sick Fund which are said to be under the consideration of the Government.

This club-house of the Berlin Trades Union, which was erected in 1899, out of the funds at the disposal of the organised workpeople, is a simple, but imposing building, well designed to give plenty of accommodation, and all the rooms are light and well ventilated. The ground floor of the main block facing the street is partly let as shops, and partly as a large restaurant managed by a Berlin Brewery. The 'Lodging House,' that forms another block separated from the main one by a pleasant court-yard in which there is a splendid tree affording agreeable shade in summer, is under the direct management of the party. It provides excellent sleeping accommodation for journeymen-workmen, and there are reading and smoking-rooms as well as a separate restaurant intended exclusively for these strangers. The charge for beds varies from 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d., 6d., 7d., 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ d., to 1/6. Every man gets clean bed linen : no newcomer is required to use the linen of his predecessor of the night before. The bathing facilities are good. There are 192 beds—92 at 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per night ; 54 at 6d. ; 20 at 7d. ; 22 at 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ; and 4 at 1/6. In the course of 1905 the number of beds used was 67,313 (in 1904 65,154) ; the number of baths taken was 20,009 (in 1904, 18,180)- The rooms contain 2, 4, 6, and 11 beds respectively, officials of the party have a single room.

The total receipts for 1905 amounted to £1,754 (to £1,710 in 1904) ; the expenditure to £1301 (in 1904 to £1,090). The beds and the restaurant in this 'Lodging House' are only intended for strangers not for Berliners ; and the Committee aim at supplying everything as much as possible at cost price. Beer can be obtained for just under  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. the half pint and for just under 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. the pint. Bread with a good large piece of sausage costs about 2d. ; supper, consisting of roast potatoes and sausage and meat, is given for 3d. to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. The receipts for beer amounted in 1905 to about £352 ; for spirits to £25. The consumption of spirits by German workmen is still on the decrease. The rule of the house is that men must be in by 11 p.m., at latest (and then only with permission) by 1 a.m. Every effort is made to make things comfortable for the men so as to keep them from going into the town of an evening.

All persons have to be examined on admission to see if they are

clean ; and where necessary, the clothes are disinfected by a special disinfecting process. No charge is made for this process although it costs 1/6. Baths have to be taken by such persons.

No gambling is allowed in the smoking or reading rooms. In these rooms the men for the most part keep their hats on. We noticed, however, that on our entering the room with head uncovered all those who were seated in the smoking room doffed their head-gear. This mark of politeness, which is a trait in the character of the German workmen, deserves mention. No food or drink may be consumed in the reading-room. The object of this regulation is that the men should not feel that they are required to take drink as if they were in a public restaurant.

Another side-building contains a large hall approached by a wide-staircase. This hall, together with the galleries allows space for about 1,300 people. For the amusement of members there is a skittle alley where the charge is 9½d. per hour.

The subjoined statistics from the annual reports for 1904 and 1905 of the Berlin Gewerkschaft-Kommission (Trades Union Commission) are interesting and instructive :—

	1905.	1904.
Number of members of the Berlin Organisations .....	224,277	174,192
Receipts .....	£321,019	£237,600
Expenditure for strikes ; travelling expenses ; relief in cases of sickness ; burial money ; legal expenses ; relief for cases of infirmity ; administration and general expenses .....	£294,023	£239,189

The sum expended in support of strikes was £23,530 less than in 1904—viz. £94,050. There were 37,370 men and 6,290 women on strike last year—total 43,660. The sum lost in wages by the strikers amounted to £242,830 (Mks. 4,953,755). The Balance in hand of the Berlin Trades Unions on January 1st, 1906, was £90,159 (Mks. 1,839,255). The weekly contributions from members of the various trades vary from 2½d. to 1/8 ; most of them are 5⅞d. per week. Some of the trades in Berlin are organised in more than one Union. The question as to whether the workpeople in their Unions should devote more attention to politics than to questions affecting the improvement of their material condition seems to be coming more and more to the front in Berlin.

The most important strike of the year 1905 was that connected with the Electric Industry. In this connection the Berlin Chamber of Commerce pointed out that 500 screw-cutters on strike presumed to pass resolutions at their meetings on questions affecting the work of more than 60,000 workpeople employed in the whole metal

industry so that "the struggle became a trial of strength, the question of wages a question of power."

Business was good in all branches of trade 1905 and the Trades Unions contrived to obtain an increase of wages all round, coupled in most cases with a diminution in the hours of work. The increase in wages ranged from  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to  $\frac{5}{8}$ d. per hour and in many cases, the hours of work were diminished to 8,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  and 9 hours per day.

Herr Körsten kindly asked us to pay a visit with him to the Home Industry Exhibition in Berlin where we saw specimens of the productions of those workers who toil in the Thuringian textile industry, in the home manufacture of boots and shoes, in the making of toys in the Saxon mountains, as well as in the leather industry—for abnormally low wages. He explained the conditions of the people in question. Many of these workers labour in mountain districts or in over-filled cities, and few of them are permanently occupied. Many too are aged persons who, whilst receiving small means of support from other sources, are taken advantage of by those who act as middlemen. The old methods of communication between home-workers and their customers have disappeared and the prevailing conditions are hopelessly unsatisfactory for home industry.

The difficulties and anomalies of a social problem that are almost revolting were exposed at this exhibition. The exhibits gave an object lesson of a condition of things that fully equal, if they do not surpass, the revelations we know of the sweating dens that exist in Britain and America. We saw children's dresses made at Breslau for which the makers received at the rate of  $\frac{7}{8}$ d. per hour. This would amount to about  $8\frac{3}{4}$ d. per day of ten hour's work. Shoes in like manner were shown which were paid for at the rate of barely  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per hour. Lace too was exhibited for which about  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per hour was given—made by an old woman of 80. Details connected with the woollen industry of Thuringia—namely at Apolda, Stadtsulza and Eckardtsberga and in the surrounding country—were given us which were painful to listen to. The people from this district supply their goods to the factories at Apolda.

The Children's Protection Act of 1904 has already introduced some amelioration into the conditions of things, but there is still much to be done. On January 1st of this year more stringent regulations came into force.

Almost involuntarily we were of course obliged to feel that an exhibition on similar lines could be organised in London where the 'Song of the Shirt' is also sung by maidens and old women whose strength and time are exploited by the unscrupulous. We have heard of an old woman of 76 in London receiving the sum of 1d. for a wire hat shape that must have occupied her for many hours and of another old woman of 69 who has made sweet boxes at 2d.

the gross. Reliable persons have also told us of old men who make saucepans for 1d. each ; and of brushes sold retail in shops for 2/6 which brought in a return of 1½d. to the artificer ; of slippers costing 5/11½ that were bought from the maker at 8d ; and of ¾d. being given for sewing together a tie which is sold over the counter for 1/6. Cases too of the makers of shirts receiving 6d. for a shirt that took them a whole day to finish are not difficult to find. And when we say that such cases of exploitation of human labour are possible in England because the workers are supported by the rates—in other words that the Boards of Guardians of the Poor, were in the cases cited the promoters of sweated labour, our readers who learn this for the first time will open their eyes and will not be surprised that what is possible in our midst is to be found also in other countries !

In every country home-work is the cause of untold evil ; and the unscrupulous dealers in human labour take advantage of the conservative traditions of the denizens of mountain districts or of the miserable tenants of the worst dwellings of over-populated large cities in order to ply their nefarious but lucrative trade. Legislation and the factory inspector should find a field of activity here ; for, so long as certain kinds of home-work are permitted to exist under prevailing conditions, there will be sweating. The factory has taken the place of a large portion of home-work. But we will not suppress the fact that immense difficulties would attend the administration of a remedy.

Details of the mode of life of certain Berlin working-men's families whose existence is a very hard one were also laid before us. They were published by the Berlin Statistical Bureau in 1903, as the result of a special enquiry. Enquiries of this kind have been made by the city authorities since 1879. On the occasion reported on in 1903 representatives of the two kinds of Trades organisations took part in the enquiry.

In the pages referred to the veil was raised that disclosed part of the hardships endured by 908 of the poorest types of Berlin families. The households consisted of from one to thirteen members, in all of 3,828 persons. The total incomes of these 908 families amounted to about £77,920 making an average of £85 12s. per family per annum. The incomes ranged from £35 to £150. Some of the families consisted of many children whose parents could only scrape together about £50 to live on, families of eight ; also families of nine with £60 ; and of ten with £70. In such cases it was shown that the workman was poor as regards money, but all the richer as regards children !

Out of these 908 families, however, 399 not only made both ends meet but had a surplus ! Some 45 balanced their incomes with expenses ; but 464 had an average deficit of about 75/-. Rent

absorbed about a sixth of their income. In many cases there were three persons to one room ; the worst case was that of a family of eleven in one room, with an income of £85—the father and three members of the family earning wages. The expenses were £95. In general the food of the family took up half of the income. In such families there is no room for luxuries !

Amidst the luxury of the German capital we had no difficulty in discovering—as can be discovered in any large city—that there is no lack of stern poverty ; but we are bound to add that despite the poverty even of the very poor the people display a marvellous amount of self-respect, and lay stress on being decently clad when out of doors, and of keeping their children well clothed.

The representatives of organized labour everywhere expressed themselves as opposed to tariffs. At the same time it was admitted that wages had risen considerably despite the tariffs, for their rise was due to other causes.

Talking about the price of clothes paid by working men it was remarked to us that the tale about workmen having to pay £6 10s. for a suit of clothes was ludicrous. The usual price demanded was from 25/- to 50/- or 60/-. A good suit that a workman would buy could be purchased for about 50/-. This statement was subsequently confirmed by a tailor who works at home for ready-made establishments. He gave much the same figures, saying that the usual prices charged were 30/-, 40/- and 50/-, and that an inferior article could even be obtained for 15/-.

We were also invited by the committee of the Deutsche Gewerksvereine (the so-called Hirsch-Duncker) organisations to visit their house and to make ourselves acquainted with their methods. They are organised partly according to the English Trades Union system “for the protection and promotion of the rights and interests of their members on legal lines.” The number of members of this group is 120,000. The subscription for the various funds of the Association amount to about £3 per annum, which sum includes the contribution to the Sick and Burial Funds which are not obligatory ; the ordinary subscription is 15/- per annum. Their aims are not political, as their statute says ; they strive to protect the workmen, and to ameliorate their condition. The house is comfortably equipped, and they have a fund at their disposal of about £171,570, (Mks. 3,500,000) ; it is built and furnished on a more elaborate and comfortable scale than that of the organised section of Trades Unions as above described. The entrance hall and the staircase are quite imposing.

The Hirsch-Duncker organisations or “German Trades Unions” are also very active in the pursuit of their aim and spend large sums of money for the relief of workmen in need, for obtaining employment for workpeople, and for furthering education amongst the

working-classes. They are not in principle antagonistic to 'capital' as such ; but they insist on workmen being placed on equal footing with their employees as regards the obtaining of their own rights. They also advocate the settlement of all disputes by arbitration.

Very valuable statistics of a most comprehensive kind have been collected for many years by the "German Trades Union" also ; and they as well as the Socialistic organisations are always ready to furnish information on this question. The work done in this field by the late Dr Max Hirsch, by Herr Rudolph Klein and by Herr Karl Goldschmidt has been of the greatest value.

The President of these German Trades Unions told us that the tendencies of their organisation moved in the same lines as those of the Trades Unions in England. He was much pleased, he said, that English comrades had come to Germany to enquire into the conditions of life of German workmen. He would leave it to his English comrades to decide for themselves whether German workmen were incapable of doing good work, and whether they lived in a miserable manner. He desired, however to assure us that German workmen contributed to the development of German industry and had a right to aim at the social development of the working-classes. Between England and Germany there was, in the opinion of the German working classes no cause for discord or quarrel. The working classes of both countries should unite in the endeavour to develop and further the cause of peace and civilisation. This was the desire of the German working-man who wished to see friendship and not jealousy rise to the surface in the relations between the two countries. There must be rivalry ; but in view of common interests there should be no animosity in this rivalry. When Kings quarrel, he said, it is always the working classes who have to suffer. Englishmen and Germans should work in unison for the common cause.

Herr Goldschmidt also, a member of the Lower House of the Prussian Diet, in welcoming us submitted that the Governments and people of Germany and Britain were in favour of peace. He told us that the founder of their associations, the late Dr. Max Hirsch had studied the system of Trades Unions in England, and that the Deutsche Gewerkvereine had adopted all that was essential in the English system of Trades Unionism. We willingly accept the assistance of the law, he said, but we wish to advocate the individuality and independence of the working man. Our Deutsche Gewerkvereine have been maligned and misrepresented in England. We want to be independent of political parties. We look forward to a peaceful development of the conditions of the working classes and of German industry ; and we hope that your visit will be useful to the working classes in England and to English industry.

We declared in reponse that we looked upon the German working man as our colleagues in the great cause of labour, and that the sentiments of amity that we had expressed found an echo in the hearts of all right-minded Englishmen ; and we added that in Gainsborough and elsewhere in England a visit of German workmen undertaken in the same spirit as ours would be heartily welcome ; also that we should do our utmost to counteract as far as possible all attempts from all quarters whatsoever to foment hostility between Britain and Germany, and to frustrate the dissemination of false views about German sentiments towards the English nation.

The Club-house of the Deutche Gewerkvereine contains a very comfortable and well-managed restuarant under their own administration ; a Labour Bureau ; and a ' Lodging-house for journeymen-workmen.' The bedrooms in this Lodging-house are exceedingly comfortable. There are about 25 beds here, which in summer are almost always occupied. They are only open to members of this Association. Journeymen-workmen occupying them obtain supper, a night's lodging and breakfast gratis. The large hall for meetings and entertainments is noteworthy ; and there are four skittle-alleys.

The impression we took away with us after inspecting the Socialist Gewerkschaftshaus and the house belonging to the " German Trades Unions " was that the leaders of the working people in Berlin have great powers of organisation, that might be still further developed and utilized as an independent factor in the work of promoting the welfare of the working classes. In our opinion German workpeople should contrive to provide themselves on their own initiative with dwelling houses and the various kinds of beneficent institutions that we have described in our reports as originating amongst the employers of labour. As we do these things at home we venture to make these suggestions which, perhaps under present conditions are not easily realisable.

We were received by both sections of the trades organisations in the German capital with every mark of kindness for which we can but express our gratitude. As we have previously stated, our mission was not a political, but a social one ; hence we refrained from expressing any comment on the political views of our hosts, and in no case did we approach the leaders of any political party whatsoever. On the other hand, we obtained valuable information concerning the social condition of the German workmen from the representatives of the working classes, for, as repeatedly pointed out, it was due to the courtesy of the Central Department of the Trades Organisations that we got into touch with the official representatives of the Socialists ; and when we visited the factories where the workmen foregather in thousands at work, not only was no obstacle placed in our way by the employers of labour to prevent



us from approaching the workmen, but we were particularly asked to converse with any of them at pleasure.

Every Commune is bound by law in Germany to make provision for its poor ; and one of the obligations of those whose business it is to administer this department is to provide Night Refuges. We visited one of these, and were conducted round by the Manager.

The inmates of these refuges are divided into two classes. One class consists of those who constantly make use of them ; the others of those who are forced to do so by temporary circumstances. The former consists of individuals who never seem to care to look out for regular occupation. In this Berlin Night Refuge there is room for some 3,400 of the vagabond class. They arrive between 4 p.m. and 11 p.m. and have to leave the premises at 7 a.m. They are allowed to sleep here five times in the course of three months. If it is discovered that they have no inclination to work they are handed over to the police and sent to a House of Correction. At 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. they receive in the Refuge a nutritious sort of gruel soup and a large piece of bread. All the inmates have to use the baths and their clothes are disinfected.

In the Refuge for families there are 144 beds for men and boys ; the women and girls are separated from the men and sleep in another part of the Refuge where there are 240 beds. The beds are provided with straw mattresses and blankets. Sick persons are sent to the Hospital. If a mother has to go to the hospital her children are taken to an orphanage.

There is a separate department for men and women suffering from sexual diseases.

In reply to our enquiry how it was that there were so many persons in the Refuge, seeing that we had been repeatedly informed that there was a demand for labour in all industrial Works, the Manager told us that about ninety-five per cent of the men to be found here, although able-bodied and well-dressed, would not work even if they could get work.

According to the statistics just published in the Annual Report 5,630,021 persons in all have been taken in by the Berlin Refuges since they were founded thirty-seven years ago. Last year (1905) the number was 309,359—namely 243,641 men, 55,718 women and children, and 265 infants at the breast (who are not included). The men varied in age from twenty to forty years ; the women from forty to sixty, but amongst the women were also 777 whose ages fluctuated between seventy and eighty.

Happily the pictures of distress and hardship we have just portrayed are not typical of Berlin life. It is a city of over two millions of inhabitants, numbering according to the census of December 1st last 2,040,148 persons, having increased in popula-

tion since 1900 by 151,300. It is the capital of the kingdom of Prussia and the chief seat of the German Empire. Although in the midst of the sandy March of Brandenburg, its situation between the Elbe and the Oder conferred strategic importance upon it, and it became quite early in its history an important centre of trade. At the beginning of the 18th century, when times were hard for Brandenburg-Prussian industry, i.e., from 1700 to 1728—Prussia became strictly protectionist. Later the duties were somewhat relaxed; but Frederick the great put the screw on again and, according to Professor Schmoller, this was done to the advantage of Prussian industry. Whether the King was as successful as he anticipated he would be, is an open question, as we were told; but anyhow Berlin's industry began to flourish. He propped up to the utmost of his power the manufacture of silk and woollen goods, ribbons, cotton goods, porcelain and sugar. The Napoleonic wars threw the country back for a while but only to enable Prussia by the introduction of reforms and good laws to make a better leap forward. The fiscal policy was altered to suit the times and the Zollverein which was brought into being, secured a basis for the forward march of economical life in Prussia and Germany, paving the way for the enormous development in the heavy industries of which we have spoken in previous reports.

In 1801 there was only one machine factory in Berlin; but by 1851 the results of enterprise began to be felt. From 1851—1860, 621 new factories were erected within the radius of the city;

1861—1871.....	457
1871—1880.....	864
1881—1890.....	525
1891—1895.....	131

The falling off since 1871 is due to the enormous rise in the value of land at Berlin and to the competition that raised the price of labour. Manufacturers have gone to the immediate vicinity of the capital or to provincial towns.

The ready-made clothes industry gives occupation to a number of persons in Berlin—about 200,000; in this branch the ready-made mantle trade takes the lead, having a turnover now of about £7,500,000 which is about six times as great as it was a few years ago after the Franco-German war of 1870—1871. About two-thirds of what is made in this branch are exported. Next to the mantle trade comes the trade in ready-made suits of clothes; and the manufacture of artificial flowers, buttons, articles of trimming, etc., must not be omitted.

In recounting\* some marked features of the character of the Berliners one may say that they are exceedingly dexterous and sharp in their powers of observation as well as diligent, sober and humorous.

Berlin does a large trade in gold and silver goods and articles of jewellery as well as in a number of other articles for export trade.

But the German capital owes its great development in wealth to the metal industry. At the beginning of the 19th century the Berlin machinery industry, when England almost exclusively exported machines to all parts of the world, was of no significance whatever. By the thirties signs of growth were visible; and by 1850 Berlin, though only then possessing 30 factories with 1900 workmen, was looked upon as the centre of machine-building in North Germany. We have only to re-call the achievements of the first Herr Borsig, whose factory was founded in 1837, the year when Queen Victoria came to the throne. Ten years afterwards the Firm had turned out its hundredth locomotive, and in 1902 its 5000th.\* When the last census of factories was taken it was found that there were 434 factories in Berlin for the manufacture of machines and all that concerns machines, employing 16,937 workmen. Berlin has, however, had to yield somewhat to the provinces in this respect in consequence of competition.

By the introduction of electricity the Berlin machine industry entered upon a new phase, and this was due to the energy and ability of Werner Siemens.

Summing up, one may say that about 375,000 workmen and workwomen are occupied in the various industries that are carried on in Berlin.

Herr Commerzienrat Loewe kindly permitted us to spend a morning at the works of Messrs Ludwig Loewe. Our visit there was extremely interesting. The Firm has close relations with England in small tools, machinery and castings.

Talking about the high American tariff that affected some of the Firm the remark was made to us:—"Oh! we don't pay it; it is the Americans themselves who pay the 45 per cent ad valorem duty on our goods that we send there." It is also admitted that the German tariff enabled them to get higher prices for German manufactured goods in the German market.

These Works are magnificent and thoroughly up-to-date. There is a very fine erecting department; ventilation is everywhere perfect; the light good; and the floors are warm. There are also good facilities for transporting. Every effort is made to lighten the men's labour as much as possible so as to make it a pleasure for them to work. Here also we noted that there was a low percentage of lads. There are a good many American tools here which are very good and have the reputation of being cheaper than those of English make and of being of more modern design. There are only a few English tools, the best ones coming from Messrs Herbert, of Coventry.

\* In the Autumn of this year (1906) the 6000th locomotive was turned out; and by the end of the year it is stated by the Firm that the number will have reached 6100.

Referring to German competition with England we were assured that if Germans are willing to pay the prices asked by English manufacturers, they can get the same goods from these works as the only objection raised against Loewe's goods is their price, there being no doubt about their quality. Loewe's Firm sells small tools of twist drills of Novo steel as agents for an English Firm and is also the agent in Germany for American tool companies that are in competition with itself.

We asked if the prices quoted by Messrs Herbert were the same as those quoted by this Firm; and the reply was in the affirmative, with the addition that perhaps Herbert's prices were a little higher as they keep a large stock, and charge the prices of building for stock, and are able to deliver quickly. But it was stated that Herbert's machines would not be cheaper than those of Loewe. If Herbert supplied a milling machine to Loewe, Loewe would have to pay the duty.

In the finishing department all sold machines are first tested. In the show-rooms the finished machines are shown to customers at work. The Firm of Ludwig Loewe has supplied a number of machine tools to Messrs Marshall and Sons, of Gainsborough.

The lavatory and wardrobe arrangements for the men are exceedingly well devised. All the men come straight to the lavatories in the morning where each has a numbered stand. Warm water is laid on in the winter, cold in the summer.

The Firm has a school for apprentices where they learn the theory of their work. There are 70 of them aged from 14 or 15 to 17. The school is recognised by the State as a Continuation School. Engineers and experts from the works give the instruction in the scientific part. Instruction is given in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, drawing, German, technology, and book-keeping as well as other subjects. The course of instruction is from 3 to 4 years. The apprentices serve their time in the army after concluding their years of apprenticeship, and then want to go to see something of the world. If they like, they can return to service of the Firm. Having learnt in these works they become pioneers of Loewe's machines.

Loewe's Firm makes the typograph machines we saw at Leipzig; and automatic machines. He has a school for typesetters from all parts of the world who come to learn how to use the machine. When one of these machines is bought here, the buyer wants his men to be taught how to use it. There is a tool department for every shop. All details are made standard to fit any machine. In various parts of the works there are letter boxes hanging on the walls bearing the inscription:—"Valuable proposals will be paid for."

There are 1,500 men employed in the works. The hours of work are  $9\frac{3}{4}$ , from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m., with a pause for dinner from 11-45 a.m. to 1 p.m. On Saturdays the works close at 4 o'clock.

The average wages earned by the men at these works are as follows, as we learnt from a list kindly supplied us by the Firm :—

Mechanics.....	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. to 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	40 to 100	pfennige	per hour
Turners.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 8 $\frac{5}{6}$ d.	45 to 75	"	"
Planers.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	45 to 90	"	"
Men at smithing machines	5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. to 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	50 to 95	"	"
Drillers and Smiths.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	45 to 80	"	"
Grinders.....	5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. to 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	50 to 90	"	"
Men who harden and... temper.....	5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. to 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	50 to 70	"	"
Pattern-makers.....	5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. to 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	50 to 65	"	"
Joiners.....				
Wood-turners.....				
Moulders.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	45 to 95	"	"
Core-makers.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	45 to 80	"	"
Furnacemen.....	4 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. to 7d.	37 to 60	"	"
Whitesmiths.....	5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d. to 7d.	50 to 60	"	"
Tin-workers.....				
Saddlers.....				
Painters.....	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	53 to 65	"	"
Bricklayers.....	7d. to 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	60 to 65	"	"
Carpenters.....	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. to 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	40 to 65	"	"
Ordinary (unskilled)..... workmen.....	4 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. to 5 $\frac{7}{8}$ d.	35 to 50	"	"

Several large Firms had been kind enough to express their willingness to allow us to pay a visit to their works. In acknowledging their courtesy we can only add that nothing but lack of time prevented us from availing ourselves of the privileges so generously offered to us. Amongst them were the Maschinenbau Aktien Gesellschaft, vorm L. Schwartzkopf; Messrs. Siemens & Halske, Aktien Gesellschaft; the Allgemeine Electricitaets Gesellschaft; and the Aktien Gesellschaft fur Anilin Fabrikation. It will easily be understood that with only four days at our disposal it was impossible to avail ourselves of all the advantages offered to us.

Some details were, however, placed at our disposal about the conditions of life for workmen in the shops of the Allgemeine Electricitaets Gesellschaft (the General Electricity Company) which are all the more valuable because they come from a highly intelligent gentleman who worked in the shops with the workmen as a "volunteer." He is conversant with the conditions of life of British working men in English shops and it will be seen that he endorses views that we have already expressed of the German workmen.

In these works the hours vary according to the description of the work. The ordinary workman—more or less unskilled—usually works in the shops from 7 a.m. till 6-30 p.m., with breaks from 8-30

a.m., to 8-45 a.m., and 4 p.m. to 4-15 p.m. for breakfast and afternoon coffee respectively ; and from noon till 1-30 p.m. for dinner. This gives ten hours in the works. The more skilled workmen work either from 7 a.m. to 5-30 p.m., with pauses as above or in eight hours shifts, their being two shifts, viz from 6 a.m. to 2 p.m. and from 2 p.m. to 10 p.m. with only one break in each shift of a quarter of an hour. The arrangement of these shifts is as follows :—say two men are engaged one at a time on a certain piece of work, A works from 6 a.m. till 2 p.m., when B comes on from 2 p.m. till 10 p.m. The following day B works from 6 a.m. till 2 p.m. having had only eight hours break between his two shifts. On the other hand he now has 24 hours free, not coming in till 2 p.m. on the following day, A working the two intermediate shifts. By this arrangement a man practically works 16 hours in one 24 hours span, and is free the next 24 hours, the idea being as it seems that each man gets alternately a free evening to himself. There are also certain classes of work where the men work as a rule longer but these are few and usually not hard. There is also a shift of men working by night on various jobs, but this varies in length and character according to the pressure of work.

Men are paid here either by the hour or by piece work. The former system is usually adopted for unskilled workmen or for men not tackling any fixed piece of work. Unskilled workmen earn anything up to four shillings a day which is the maximum, the majority earning from 3/- to 3/6 per day. Skilled workmen can usually earn 7d. per hour doing piece work if they work quick enough. On the other hand they are as a rule not allowed to earn more than that amount. For example if a workman is paid 30 Mks. for a piece of work for which he has 50 hours to do it in, and he does it quicker, in 45 hours, he will only be allowed 27 Mks. for the piece of work done in 45 hours, as he may not exceed 60 pfennige per hour (7d.) This system is meant to check a workman from rushing his work and at the same time to invite him to work reasonably fast. On the other hand, in certain cases where the work lasts longer than was anticipated or there is some unforeseen difficulty about it, and a good workman is consequently prevented from getting his seven pence per hour, making perhaps only 5½d., he is allowed to make the hours, for which he has earned only 5½d., up to seven pence by getting through his next piece much quicker—i.e., at the rate of 8½d. per hour instead of seven pence.

Thus a skilled workman earns about 5/- per day and sometimes a little more, for example, when he works overtime.

For their breakfast in the works the men generally eat rye bread spread with some kind of sausage, and drink either coffee or beer ; at the afternoon meal the meat sandwich is sometimes exchanged for cake or buns. Married men usually go home for dinner, and single

men frequent restaurants in the neighbourhood where they are supplied with food at moderate prices. Coffee and beer can be purchased at the works at all times of the day, coffee costing just under a half-penny a pot and beer under  $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. The men have their own coffee pots which they keep in the works and get them refilled at intervals by the coffee-women in attendance. They get through a good deal of liquid nourishment—coffee or beer—in the course of the day. Whatever profit is earned by the Company from the sale of these drinks is paid over to a special Sick Fund from which men receive 2/- to 3/- per week when ill. All fines are also paid over to this fund.

The shops are divided up into departments of different kinds of work and in general there is an Obermeister (a principal foreman) and a Vorarbeiter (or leading hand) over every gang.

Here, as in all other works that we have described, the sanitary arrangements are very good. The men change their clothes on arriving at and leaving the Works and always wash themselves in the lavatories provided for them. The closet houses and urinals are also properly attended to. The Works are well heated in winter. Rubbish boxes are kept into which all waste paper, etc., which has been used for the men's breakfast-parcels must be thrown. Sheds are provided where the men may stand their bicycles free of charge.

Those men who live beyond a mile from the works usually use an electric tramway for going backwards and forwards to their homes. The monthly ticket costs them 6/-. It is noteworthy that workmen can obtain railway tickets on the municipal and suburban lines at very cheap rates in order to enable them to live outside the town where the rents are lower. Single men can get rooms for a minimum charge of 15/- per month. Married men usually have a dwelling consisting of two rooms, one of which is used as a kitchen and sitting room, the other as a bedroom, and in the neighbourhood of these works the rent for such dwellings varies from 4/- to 6/- per week. A workman who earned 30/- per week, and had a wife and two children, sketched out his expenses as follows:—

Food for the family, per week, 18/- ; rent of dwelling, 6/- ; various expenses, e.g., coffee, beer, Sick Fund contribution and other donations from his wages,  $1/50$  ; tobacco, clothes, amusements, taxes, etc., covered by the remaining,  $4/50$ .—Total 30/-.

The legal holidays, not including Sundays, are about fifteen in the year. There is no half holiday on Saturdays and the men never go away on leave.

There is practically no gambling amongst the men ; but they amuse themselves with drinking beer and playing billiards and cards. The younger men appear to be better educated than the

older men. Although some people imagine that the German workman has no particular taste except for sitting in his leisure hours with his family drinking beer and smoking, this is a vast mistake, especially as far as Berlin is concerned. Many of them have a taste for music, like the Welsh, and have a good many choral and musical societies; there is no opportunity—or very little—for developing an innate love of sport as in Northumberland, but of late years a number of cycling and swimming clubs have been organised, especially by the Socialist party, in Berlin and Charlottenburg (a suburb of Berlin) where there are a good many factories of various kinds. In regard to out-of-door amusements, however, it must be borne in mind that German workmen have not so much time at their disposal as English workmen.

On the whole it cannot be said that the workmen in the best German works are dissatisfied with their lot, though one cannot blame them for trying to ameliorate it. German workmen are good-natured as a rule; but they do not show much initiative. With rare exceptions they know nothing outside the work they are actually employed on, and apparently they do not take any interest in other matters. They work steadily and hard, according to their lights. It appears that they seem to have an idea that the British workman is the better workman of the two; and certainly show regard for him. They are honest and one must add in general as a class clean and sober. In the German capital the workmen generally marry at about 25 or 26.

The subjoined opinion given in a letter by a gentleman who worked for some time in Messrs Siemens and Halske's works as a "Volunteer" was also shown to us and may be reproduced:— "About the German workmen whom I came across I should say they are much slower than our men of similar class, less energetic, less intelligent, but they are patient and industrious and are good routine workers. As a rule they are not of much use in dealing with unforeseen emergencies. They need more guidance from the foremen and greater fulness of detail as to how the work is to be done. Physically they take too little exercise for the amount of beer they consume and so become stout and flabby at an early age. One of the chief engineers of the Bureau Veritas (a German) told me in conversation that he considered one of the chief resources of Britain was the quality of the workmen; and he did not think German workmen came up to ours. He said that designers and draughtsmen in Germany were better educated and better trained than in England; but he thought German workmen were much inferior to British workmen. He said he had worked in England and Scotland as well as at home and could draw a fair comparison."

The chief expenses of a Berlin working man's household may be calculated as follows:—



Bread 10 pfennige per lb. The German 4lb. rye loaf, which is equivalent to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  English lbs, costs 40 pfennige, equal to  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. At this rate a 4lb. Berlin rye loaf (Engl. lbs.) would cost  $4\frac{1}{4}$ d. A Gainsborough 4lb. wheaten loaf costs  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d., so that the Berlin working-man's loaf is a trifle cheaper. The German working classes—in fact almost all North Germans of any class—prefer rye bread to wheat bread.

Meat, which has been from 2d. to 3d. a lb. dearer than usual for the last six months, costs :—\*

Pork,  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $11\frac{2}{3}$ d. per Engl. lb.

Beef, answering to rounds, about  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. per English lb.

Bacon  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. per English lb.

Household sugar,  $2\frac{3}{4}$ d. per English lb.

Lump sugar,  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per English lb.

Butter,  $1\frac{2}{3}$ d. per English lb.

Coffee, about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per English lb. (Tea is scarcely drunk at all in Berlin working men's families).

The rent of Berlin working men's dwellings is high, and it is not easy for an English working man to make an adequate comparison with British conditions. In the heart of the town a good dwelling on the flat system containing two good rooms, a kitchen, a cellar, an attic and closet, in the dwelling will cost from £30 to £31 per annum, or thereabouts, including water rates (water rates are always included in the rent). But a dwelling of this kind would only be inhabited by a superior type of workman. The ordinary Berlin working-man in general will not take a dwelling consisting of more than one room and a kitchen, and with this type of family it is impossible to prevent the people from sleeping in the kitchen. A dwelling of this kind costs about £15. Great efforts have been made to induce the people not to sleep in the kitchen. Houses have been built in which all the kitchens are so arranged that beds cannot be put up there and two excellent rooms—a large one and a small one—have been supplied. The dwellings have remained unlet, because the working people say "No: we should have to heat the other room, and we don't want to go to extra expense."

The Berlin working-classes do not on the whole attach much value to their dwellings as dwellings: they look upon them mainly as places to sleep in. One has to bear in mind that there is a traditional custom embodied in this view of things, and that the working classes have not yet grown out of it. About forty years ago the better situated middle classes always lived in their back small rooms—their bedrooms and dining rooms; the so-called front

\* The prices of meat have risen all round since last January.

rooms or 'gute Stuben' (best parlours) were never used except when visitors came; and the working-classes still retain these ideas; and look upon the 'gute Stube' or 'best parlour' as a luxury that cannot be afforded in an expensive large town. The same views as to the 'best parlour' obtain also in provincial towns and in the country; and they correspond with those on the same subject in England, where even amongst the well-situated middle classes the fire is not lighted in the 'drawing-rooms' in the morning. Moreover when examining into the German system one must not forget the stringent rules as to space that obtained in fortified towns—and most large German towns were, until a few decades ago, all fortified.

Considerable progress has been made throughout Germany in the matter of workmen's dwellings and a number of Building Societies exist for the purpose of providing workmen's families with good and healthy dwellings. We have referred to these societies in previous reports. There is a so-called "Spar and Bauverein" in Berlin (Building and Savings Society) which contains amongst its members a number of working men. By belonging to the Society these members are entitled to hire a dwelling in a house belonging to the Society. The names are taken down in order of application and lots are drawn for an apartment when it becomes vacant. The object of the association is, according to the statutes, to secure to poor families healthy dwellings fitted up in a suitable manner at moderate rents. The shares are of the value of £15 and no member may hold more than ten shares. Members may pay for their first share in weekly instalments of 30 pfennige—i.e. 3½d. Interest is paid at the rate of four per cent, but no shareholder receives interest until he has paid up his full £15. An entrance fee of 1/- is required from each member. The business of the society is administered by a Board of Directors consisting of five members elected by the Board of Supervision, and by a Board of Supervision consisting of twenty-four members elected by the general meeting. The Directors are elected for an indefinite time, but six months notice can be given by either side; and one-third of the members of the Board of Supervision retire annually by rotation but are eligible for re-election.

The Society has at present five blocks of dwellings in various parts of Berlin and Westend (a suburb of Berlin) consisting of 613 dwellings, and it is about to build other blocks at Tempelhof (also a suburb) and Westend, the latter block destined to contain a thousand dwellings.

The rents of the existing dwellings run from about £10 10s. to £12 for one room, a kitchen, cellar and attic; from £12 12s. to £14 for two small rooms, kitchen, etc., and up to about £19 and £20 for a dwelling with two large rooms, kitchens, etc. Dwellings of three

rooms with kitchen, etc., run up to £27 and £30 per annum. There are bath-rooms and laundries in the attics which can be used by the tenants free of charge, but they have to heat what water they want at their own expense. The courtyards are open and shady with grass plots and flower-beds; and are used as playgrounds by the children. There is a library attached to the block we saw where the tenants can obtain books for one pfennig (about half-a-farthing) a book for a fortnight. A room is also provided for meetings. The tenants have their chess clubs and musical societies. These dwellings are mostly inhabited by the better type of workmen. One of the one-room dwellings we saw was inhabited by a man engaged in a factory at 25/- per week. He has a wife and one child and pays £12 per year. The wife has a sewing machine and does dress-making and assured us that they got along exceedingly well. They sit in the kitchen and sleep in a well furnished bedroom. One of the two-room dwellings we visited cost £15 per annum. The people are very comfortably off. It is said that all the better class workmen in Berlin could devote a larger amount of their income to rent if they were so minded, but they prefer not to do so.

It must be known that for many years deputations have been sent to England from Germany to enquire into the condition of working men's dwellings in all parts of the United Kingdom and full details are known over here about the British system. These details have been published in the 'Zeitschrift der Centralstelle für Arbeiter-Wohlfahrtseinrichtungen' by Professor Albrecht who is an authority on this subject; and a great deal has been written on the subject of English working-men's dwellings by other Germans during the last ten years. In all parts of Germany great attention has been given to this most important subject, and wherever suitable, hints have been taken from England. But it is found that in German towns the flat system is indispensable for many reasons. The people prefer it; and, as the price of land is high, the system is more suitable. Moreover the German system is more suitable to the climate because the dwellings are thereby warmer in winter.

In going through the workmen's quarters in German large towns we were struck by the fact that nowhere have we seen the same abject dirt and misery that one meets with, e.g., in London and Liverpool or Glasgow. And we can add that not only have we not seen this dirt, but that it actually is not to be seen by anybody going through the streets or inside the dwellings, except in those of persons most deeply sunk in poverty and misery.

There is a permanent exhibition at Charlottenburg a suburb of Berlin, of everything concerning the work done in the Empire for the protection and well-being of the working-men, something similar to institutions of a like nature at Vienna, Paris, Amsterdam, Brussels and Zürich. It is conveniently situated in the neighbourhood

of the Berlin Technical University at Charlottenburg. The necessary funds for the purchase of the ground 1,87 acres, amounting to £51,127 (Mks. 1,043,040) were voted by the Reichstag. For the maintenance of the Exhibition £2,450 (Mks. 50,000) have been voted annually. A lecture-room containing 195 seats has been attached to it, and lectures are frequently given here on subjects connected with the exhibition. The exhibition-building will be enlarged this year.

Where possible, engines in their natural size are exhibited driven by electric power, and the practical side of industrial life is displayed for the instruction of the public and of students; but in most cases models only can be used or drawings and photographs. A printed explanation is attached to all the exhibits. The Museum was visited in 1905 by 16,000 persons. It is under the immediate care of the Imperial Home Office. An official of that Department, Herr Geheimrat Werner, Professor Albrecht and Dr. Kayserling were kind enough to show us over it.

Great importance is attached by the Home Office to the educational influence of the exhibition, and there can be no doubt that it does act in this way on the working classes for most of the visitors come from these spheres of the population.

Everything connected with modern requirements of ship-building in so far as they refer to the saving of life and the prevention of accidents is also shown here, including the latest improvements in water-tight compartments; and all that is done in industrial works for the prevention of accidents, can be carefully studied at this exhibition. Another section of the exhibition deals with social Hygiene. From statistics we saw here we were able to infer that owing to the measures taken by the State for the relief of the working classes in sickness, the mortality bills in Prussia had gradually become less full since 1885. There were nearly eleven millions of workpeople in Germany insured against sickness in 1904, and the number has considerably increased since then. Special attention has been directed to the treatment of tuberculosis for which over seventy sanatoria exist.

Before leaving Berlin Count Posadowsky, the Secretary of State for the Imperial Home Department, did us the honour of allowing us to wait upon him to return thanks for the exceedingly kind support he had given to us to enable us to carry out the arduous task with which we had been charged by the working men of Gainsborough. It would have been impossible for us to have carried out our mission had we not everywhere received the assistance of the Imperial Government, the employers and the workmen. Steps had been taken before we left England to obtain this support which was readily and ungrudgingly accorded.

His Excellency received us in his private house and conversed with us for nearly an hour in the most affable and easy manner on a number of questions connected with the life and activity of German and British workmen. He also enquired fully into our own several occupations at Gainsborough and into several matters affecting Gainsborough. We were given an opportunity of speaking quite freely with him on all these subjects; and the Minister was kind enough to show an interest in hearing the impressions made upon us during our journey through Germany. As his Excellency speaks English fluently and is a constant visitor to England and Scotland he is exceptionally conversant with British conditions. We felt that we were in the presence of a real authority on the subjects he discussed with us—an official of the State who thoroughly understands the points of view from which working men regard questions that affect their welfare, a personage who is thoroughly in earnest when he talks about them.

(Signed). G. PROCTOR.  
 J. MANN.  
 G. W. BROWN.  
 H. BEILBY.  
 T. W. MOTTERSHELL.  
 H. CALVERT.

## NOTE ON THE PRICE OF BREAD.

The statements made in the notes on pages 90 and 108 concerning the price of bread require further elucidation to avoid misunderstanding. I have made careful enquiries in view of the rise in the duties on wheat and rye since the Gainsborough Commission were in Germany last winter. It is very difficult if not impossible to make a general statement as to the exact price paid by German workpeople for bread. In this view I am supported by the answers given me at the offices of the Trades Unions. Whereas to my special enquiries made at Frankfort in May and August I was assured that there had been no change since January last, I found myself confronted with contradictory evidence in various districts of Berlin. The British Board of Trade recently applied to the Berlin Organised Trades Unions for information on this and other details connected with the working classes in large cities in Germany, and papers were issued containing a number of questions, amongst them being questions as to the price of bread. A number of these papers with the answers were shown to me. In many cases it was stated that 50 pfennige (5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) had been paid for 5 German lbs.; in others for 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and in others for 4 lbs. This would work out at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.,

and 5½d., respectively for 4 English lbs. Amongst the many bakers I have myself consulted I have met with a similar divergence of answers ; and indeed in the west end of the city I find that the bakers foist loaves of still lighter weight upon their customers, whilst one often finds bakers living in one and the same district selling at widely different prices. These anomalies arise from the fact that in Berlin no regulation exists prescribing the weight of a loaf of bread so that the bakers are free to bake as they please.

The following details communicated to me by a master-baker with a large and flourishing business in the south east district of the city, in the heart of that portion of the town which is inhabited by the working-classes, may be taken as thoroughly reliable, and as giving a true picture of the situation.

In reply to my questions he told me that his 50 pfennige (5⅞d.) loaves now weighed 4 lbs. (i.e. 4½ English lbs.), so that at this price the 4lb. English loaf would cost 5½d. His loaf, he said, was now somewhat lighter than was the case eight weeks ago. I enquired if the change was in any way due to the increase in the duty on rye. He replied " The price of rye flour, which is perpetually varying, is now Mks. 23 for the double cwt. (i.e., 22/6¼ for 220 English lbs), and is now lower than it was at the beginning of the year." In other words, although the duty has been doubled, the price of rye flour is now lower than it was under the old tariff. He continued :—" We have been baking lighter loaves on account of the extra wages we have had to pay since Whitsuntide, and also on account of the rise in prices of coal and wood. There was a strike in the spring and the result thereof is that our employees no longer board and lodge with us. The masters now have to pay Mks. 22 (21/6½) per week where formerly they paid Mks. 10 (9/9½) besides board and lodging. This is a loss to the masters because we can always give sleeping accommodation to our men, and as for their meals, the dinner must be cooked in any case, and it does not make much difference whether two or three more sit at the table or not ; more especially as, although the men no longer dine with us they are eating from our bread all day long for which they pay nothing."

I then enquired how he explained the differences of prices charged by different bakers. His reply was : " Every baker in Berlin uses his own discretion as to the size of his loaves. In the west you will doubtless find the loaves lighter at all times than in the districts inhabited by the working classes ; but in these latter districts also there is no regulation rule. Some give a full weight loaf (i.e., 5 lbs.) others a lighter one ; and if they find their customers do not complain they ' bake light.' A baker just beginning business is pretty sure to give better weight than his older colleagues in order to attract customers. Quite recently I ran short of bread and

borrowed some from a colleague living only two streets off and found that his loaves were lighter than mine."

But another factor has to be taken into account. The tradesmen of Berlin, especially in the working-men's district, have formed an Association (Vereinigte Geschäftsleute von Berlin), and these associated tradesmen give discount to their customers. The bakers belong to the association and the procedure is as follows :—For every purchase of bread the customers receive a stamp according to the amount of the purchase, and these stamps are redeemed in cash at offices established in various parts of the city. Until the beginning of September of this year this discount amounted to 10 per cent. ; a notice now hangs in the bakers' shops to the effect that owing to the increase of wages, and the increase of the price of coal, wood, etc., required in the making of the bread the discount in future will only be 5 per cent.

Now, taking the present weight and price of rye bread to be, as given above, 5½d. for a 4lb. English loaf, if we deduct 5 per cent. from the price, we shall find that a Berlin workman is now getting 4 English lbs. of rye bread for 5d., and that up to September 1st. the same quantity cost him 4½d. This bears out what the Gainsborough Commission found to be the case throughout their journey in Germany, namely that German workmen paid practically the same for their bread as was paid in England by English workmen for their bread.

In this connection I will add the following details communicated to me by my baker-informant :—1 lb. of RYE FLOUR gives 1½ lbs. of dough for baking ; and 1 lb. of good WHEAT FLOUR gives 1⅔ lbs. of dough for baking.

## REPORT XIV.

### HAMBURG.

Our tour of enquiry into the social condition of German workmen came to a close at Hamburg—the great Free and Hansa City, and the most important trade centre of the Continent of Europe and the second largest town of the German Empire.

Next to London, Liverpool and New York it is the most important commercial city in the world.

Hamburg's water area comprises 1233 hectares or just  $3046\frac{3}{4}$  acres, which is roughly one-seventh of the total area of the city.

At the last census on December 1st, 1905, the population of the city numbered 800,852; in 1900 the figures were 705,738, and at the end of 1903 they were roughly 750,000. In five years the population increased by 95,114 i.e., by just over  $13\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. If we include the population of the adjacent towns of Altona and Wandsbek we shall find that over a million persons are concentrated in this district, and this does not include the immense number of foreigners who come to the Harbour.

It is said that Hamburg was founded by Charlemagne, who erected a fortress here in 803 which he called Hamma-Burg, i.e., the Fortress in the Forest; but many think that a settlement of some kind already existed here in his time, and that the place only came into note on account of this fortress. Be that as it may, Bishop Ansgarius made a public entry into the town, in 823 which from this time became a point of support for Christianity, that was spreading in these parts.

The Count of Holstein, under whose lordship Hamburg stood, obtained for the town a variety of privileges and immunities which served as the basis of its future independence. Hamburg became a member of the Hansa League and grew strong in the 13th century through its struggles with the Danes and Wends. In 1510



the city was declared by the Emperor Maximilian I. to be a Free Imperial town. Nineteen years afterwards Hamburg adopted the tenets of the Reformation; but was subsequently left entirely untouched by the ravages of the Thirty Years' War.

This immunity from the devastations of that period enabled the town to rise to a state of prosperity whilst other German cities went back; but it did not escape being visited by the plague in the 17th and 18th centuries; and it suffered from internal and external feuds, notably in regard to the latter, with the Danes.

In the latter half of the 18th century her direct trade relations with America helped to push Hamburg forward; but in 1806 the city was occupied by the French and annexed to the French Empire; and from that year until 1814 Hamburg suffered enormous losses. Napoleon's decrees prohibiting trade with England were disastrous to Hamburg's prosperity. All goods from England were burnt regardless of ownership. The town was subjected in 1813 to capture by the Russians and to a bombardment by the French. General Davoust revenged himself on the inhabitants with the utmost barbarity, because they tried to throw off the French yoke. The Bank was robbed of private property to the amount of  $11\frac{1}{2}$  millions of marks (£563,725), and all kinds of requisitions were levied on the citizens. It was not until May 30th, 1814, that the French evacuated Hamburg after having caused losses to the citizens estimated at at least 250 millions of marks (£12,254,900).

In 1842 one third of the city was destroyed by fire, whereby 20,000 of its inhabitants became homeless; but despite certain periods of plague and commercial crisis Hamburg has maintained her freedom during all the convulsions that have taken place in Germany since 1815.

Hamburg has two legislative bodies, the Senate and the Assembly of the Commonalty (die Bürgerschaft). The Senate represents the 'State of Hamburg' in its relations with the German Empire and with foreign countries. It consists of eighteen members elected for life, of whom nine must be jurists by profession, and at least seven must be merchants. The presidentship is of annual duration. The Assembly of the Commonalty consists of 170 members, eighty of whom are elected by direct general election, forty by the owners of landed property, and 40 by the members of the legal and administrative corporations—so-called notabilities. A Committee is elected by the Assembly of the Commonalty, consisting of 20 members amongst whom only five may be lawyers. The duty of this committee is to supervise the maintenance of the constitution and in pressing cases to vote money at the request of the Senate and to pass resolutions until these steps can be endorsed by the Assembly of the Commonalty.

The administration of the city is divided into seven departments at the head of each of which is a Senator, appointed by the Senate. Each department is divided into deputations, the members of which are elected by the Assembly of the Commonalty.

Every citizen is bound to accept his election as Senator or Member of a deputation under penalty of losing his rights of citizenship.

The head of the State of Hamburg is the Chief Bürgermeister.

Under the conditions that prevailed up to 1888 the port of Hamburg continued to be free ; but in 1888 it joined the Zollverein or Customs Union of the German Empire and many changes and innovations were introduced affecting the historic and traditional habits of business of the merchants. Many looked into the future with anxiety ; but the sequel has corroborated the wisdom of the new policy. For purposes of export a certain part of the port has remained " free," but only warehouses may be erected on the land comprised in this area. The outlay connected with the harbour-works of recent years amounted to about 133 millions of marks—about £6,520,000, of which sum the Empire contributed 40 millions of marks, equal to £1,962,045.

The chief articles of export were sugar to the amount of 136 million of marks, equal to £6,666,666, and sheeps-wool, cotton, woollen and cotton goods, iron goods, machines, hides, saltpetre, etc.

The territory of the Free Harbour is the place where the magnitude and importance of the old Hansa town is best contemplated. Here we were able to learn on the spot that it is not only in the iron and manufacturing districts of the Empire that Germany has gone ahead. The condition of the shipping, the activity in the ship-building yards, the movement in the business part of the town are all a living and striking proof that the trade of Germany is prosperous and increasing. The very looks of the people on the quays, the intelligent gestures of the young boys as well as the sturdy willing and manly appearance of the full-grown population point to their belonging to a race that must go ahead. In the spirit of independence and worldly acuteness that is imprinted on their countenances we could trace a likeness that displayed kinship with similar traits of character with which we are familiar at home.

Of course this was more apparent to us in a city like the old Hansa Town Hamburg which has had commercial relations for centuries with England, many thousands of whose citizens talk our language, and all of whom have been trained from birth like their forebears to ideas of liberty and freedom innate in sea-born folk.

The following figures relating to the development of shipping in the port of Hamburg during the last twenty years which were furnished to us by the courtesy of the Harbour Inspector, Herr

Wilhelm Siegmund, will give a graphic idea of the prosperity and the continuous increase of the importance of Hamburg to which we have just referred:—

Statistics of the shipping of Hamburg 1885—1905.

Net Register Tons.

Arrivals in Hamburg:—

	No. of ships.	Total tonnage 1000 reg. tons.	With freight.	Tonnage 1000 reg. tons.	Without freight and with ballast.	Tonnage 1000 reg. tons.
1885.....	6790	3704	5856	3444	934	260
1890.....	8176	5203	6978	4815	1198	388
1895.....	9443	6254	7783	5813	1660	441
1900.....	13102	8038	9774	7349	3328	689
1903.....	14028	9156	10046	8365	3982	791
1904.....	14843	9611	10352	8738	4491	873
1905.....	15116	10382	11490	9415	3628	967

Departures from Hamburg:—

1885.....	6798	3712	5142	2895	1656	817
1890.....	8185	5214	6040	3831	2145	1383
1895.....	9446	6280	6940	4336	2506	1944
1900.....	13109	8050	9546	5552	3563	2498
1903.....	14073	9221	10603	6412	3470	2809
1904.....	14816	9610	11279	6653	3537	2957
1905.....	15164	10380	10973	7012	4191	3368

Subjoined are statistics dealing with the arrivals of vessels during the last three years according to their nationality:—

Arrivals according to country of origin.

Country of origin.	1903.		1904.		1905.	
	No. of ships.	1000 reg. tons.	No. of ships.	1000 reg. tons.	No. of ships.	1000 reg. tons.
German Ports .....	5133	911	5531	929	5452	965
Northern Europe.....	1954	569	2343	663	2384	826
Great Britain & Ireland:						
Coalships .....	1683	1288	1617	1236	1736	1358
Ships with other kinds of freight .....	2416	1546	2364	1581	2399	1656
Holland and Belgium...	644	284	651	323	715	375
Mediterranean .....	234	246	261	270	253	272
Rest of Europe .....	434	508	419	563	421	584
Total for Europe.....	12498	5442	13186	5565	13360	6036
Non-European countries	1530	3714	1657	4046	1758	4346
Total.....	14028	9156	14843	9611	15118	10382

Formerly English bottoms carried all the corn from the Black Sea ; now it is shipped in German and other vessels ; and it is commonly stated in Hamburg that the English have lost a good deal of ground here in shipping. We were told that about 25 years ago the late British Consul General used to assure everybody that three-fourths of the shipping in the Harbour of Hamburg carried the British flag. This proportion has considerably changed now. The subjoined table which was placed at our disposal, explains what is here stated :—

Number of ships that arrived at Hamburg :

	No. of ships.	Registered tons.	From German Ports.	Reg. tons.	From British Ports.	Registered tons.
In 1871	5439	1,887,505	613	43,999	2505	1,132,879
„ 1881	5975	2,805,605	844	65,302	2553	1,515,312
„ 1891	8673	5,762,369	1389	261,570	3322	2,337,887
„ 1901	12847	8,383,365	2777	550,914	3959	2,571,084
„ 1905	15116	10,380,775	3517	717,684	4135	3,014,137

It will be seen that these statistics do not testify to a backward movement on the part of British shipping in the port of Hamburg, but to a very great forward movement in the past of German shipping. This forward movement which began after 1871 was most striking in the decade from 1891 to 1901 and it is still continuing.

In this connection we were informed that a large amount of English capital sails now under the Norwegian, Swedish, Spanish, French and Greek flags on account of certain advantages thereby accruing to the capitalists, connected with subventions and national certificates. This is of course good for the capitalist, but injurious to the native Britisher who lives from the returns to his labour.

Perhaps the most significant remark from the point of view of the British workman that we heard in the Harbour of Hamburg was that the German shipowners could not do the trade they do without the assistance of the coal they receive from England. “Without English coal,” said our informant, “these German steamers could not run for a week !”

In the following lines will be found a list of the chief shipping companies at Hamburg together with the number of vessels they own :—

The Hamburg American Company, formed in 1847, the oldest German shipping company and the largest steamship company in the world. The fleet of the Company consisted at the end of 1905 of 157 ocean steamers and 192 river steamers (built and building), the total tonnage (reg. tons) being 811,943. This is an increase of 47,000 reg. tons as compared with

1904. In 1886 the reg. tonnage of the ships of the Company amounted to 65,257 reg. tons. In 1899 the tonnage amounted to 405,689 reg. tons. In 1905 the tonnage amounted to 811,943 reg. tons. Of the ten ocean steamers amounting to 89,700 reg. tons building in 1905, the 'Amerika' (22,500 reg. tons) has proved to be a great success, and the Company hoped to be similarly successful with the 'Kaiserin Augusta Viktoria' (25,000 tons) now being built by the 'Vulcan' at Stettin. The latter ship will start on her first voyage on May 1st next.\* The Company attaches great value to its turbine-steamer 'Kaiser' which is to be used for service connected with the North Sea watering places. The net profits of the Company in 1905, after deducting the interest on the Preference Shares, were Mks. 36,142,987 (£1,771,715), as compared with Mks. 27,829,722 (£1,364,202) in 1904. The increase in business was due to the Russian-Japanese war. The dividend declared in 1905 was 11 per cent.: in 1904 it was 9 per cent. The Workmen's Benefit Institutions of the Company received a further addition by the inauguration of a new fund—the 'Veteran Fund of the Hamburg American Line' (Veteranen-Stiftung der Hamburg-Amerika Linie) amounting to Mks. 300,000 (£14,706), for the purpose of giving subventions to aged servants of the Company.

In 1905 the German Levant Line had 30 steamers of 68,487 reg. tons; the German East African Line 20 steamers of 65,338 reg. tons; the Wörmann Line 39 steamers of 89,259 reg. tons; the Hamburg South American Steamship Company 27 steamers of 123,376 reg. tons; the Sloman Line 20 steamers of 38,157 reg. tons; the Kosmos Line 28 steamers of 121,487 reg. tons; the German Australian Steamship Company 27 steamers of 110,838 reg. tons.

If we look back upon German shipbuilding we learn that it began in the days of the Hansa League. No ships were then allowed to be built for or sold to foreigners, a regulation that was directed against the Flemings, the English and the Dutch. In 1441 the Hansa Diet passed a regulation enjoining that only citizens of a Hansa town might build ships. Danzig, however, was opposed to restrictions of this kind because of its favoured situation for obtaining wood from Prussia, Poland and Galicia and because it was easy to obtain iron from Sweden. Owing to these advantages the town was specially suitable for ship-building. Danzig oak and fir-wood were exported in those days to England, Holland, France, and other ship-building countries and right down to the nineteenth century. In 1453 this regulation was rescinded so far as Danzig and Prussian towns were concerned; and despite the opposition of the Hansa League Danzig built a number of ships for England and Holland from the end of the fifteenth

\* The success hoped for was attained. The 'Kaiserin Augusta Viktoria' made her first trip in May last.

century on. With the decline of the power and reputation of the Hansa League its ship-building declined also. In the 17th and 18th centuries German ship-building improved; and we find that whereas Danzig executed foreign orders already in the 15th century and Königsberg in the 16th, Hamburg did not begin to do so till the 17th and Lübeck not till the 18th century. But German ship-building could not keep pace either with England or Holland or even with Skandinavia.

The chief ship-building Firm now in Hamburg is that of Messrs Blohm and Voss, which has four floating docks; another firm is that of Reiherstieg, which has two floating docks.

The Hamburg Inspector of Factories, Herr Wilckens, gave us some valuable information. From the Factory Inspector's report for 1904 we learnt that the industrial development of Hamburg was slow up to 1888, and that progress in this direction was first visible only after the city joined the German Imperial Customs Union (referred to above) in that year.

By 1902, 48,714 men, women and girls were employed in 2065 different sorts of works; by 1903 the number had increased to 51,325 in 2294 works; and by 1904, to 59,028 in 3769 works.

In 1905 the numbers were as follows: There were 63,926 workpeople employed in works of various kinds; the number of these works was 3,794. The subjoined table shows the comparison between 1904 and 1905 —

	1904	1905	1905	1904
Factories .....	1044	1033		
Number of workpeople (male and female) employed therein			49,825	47,364
Workshops with motor-driven machines .....	1596	1466		
Number of workpeople (male and female) employed therein			7,623	6,614
Mechanical workshops connected with ready-made clothes and linen goods .....	1154	1270		
Number of workpeople (male and female) employed therein			6478	5050
	3794	3769	63,926	59,028

The largest factory in Hamburg employed about 5,000 hands in 1905. There are 98 factories employing over 100 hands.

In 1905 the proportion of boys and girls to men and women workers was as follows:—men, 73.55 per cent.; women, 22.79 per cent.; boys and girls, 3.66 per cent. In 1904 the figures were:—

men, 74.42 per cent. ; women, 22.19 per cent. ; boys and girls, 3.39 per cent.

Efforts are continuously being made amongst the workpeople to shorten the hours of work ; and a greater importance is attached by many of them to the diminution of hours of work than to an increase of wages. It is now only in a few cases that the hours of work in Hamburg exceed ten ; and in a large number of works the hours are nine. There was a strong movement amongst the workpeople in 1905 to introduce the custom of working right through, and so shortening the pauses. Owing to the conditions of life in the city a long pause in the middle of the day is not of much value to the workpeople. The employers of labour have already to a large extent met the wishes of their employees in this respect.

The statistics for 1904 showing the number of hours of work were as follows :—

In 92 factories employing 2,650 grown-up workpeople, the hours of work were over ten.

In 420 workshops with motor-driven machines employing 1,250 grown-up workpeople, the hours were over ten.

In 542 factories employing 28,669 grown-up workpeople, the hours of work were at most ten.

In 467 workshops (as above), employing 1,625 grown-up workpeople, the hours of work were at most ten.

In 399 factories employing 14,818 grown-up workpeople, the hours of work were less than ten.

In 558 workshops (as above), employing 3,507 grown-up workpeople, the hours of work were less than ten.

The tendency in Hamburg is to lower the hours of work below ten. With few exceptions wages are paid weekly on Saturdays at the Works. Payments for piecework are made according to the usual custom. There are 97 Labour Bureaus in the State of Hamburg. The demand for labour in 1905 in the shipbuilding trade and in all other trades was good.

The Factory Inspector's report for 1904 makes a noteworthy allusion to the advantages that accrue from an amicable discussion between employers and employed in cases where differences arise. A well-known Firm complained to the Inspector of the conduct of the men which was leading up to a strike. The Firm was advised to have a Committee of the workmen appointed, which body should lay before them the wishes or complaints of the men. They did so, and after the subjects in dispute had been thoroughly thrashed out an understanding was arrived at and the strike avoided.

Out of a total of 59,028 workpeople there were 2,942 accidents reported in 1904 making an average of 4.98 per cent. ; or omitting

those engaged in the ready-made clothes manufacture, amounting to 5050, the average would be 5.45 per cent., as the number of accidents amongst these is almost nil. Of these 2,942 cases, 2,783 were males and 159 females. In 1905 out of 63,296 workpeople there were 3,286 cases of accidents reported (3,096 males, 190 females), making an average of 5.14 per cent.—a slight increase as compared with 1904.

Very significant are the regulations for the protection of children employed in factories and workshops, enacted in 1904. It took about eighty years before this question could be settled by law in Germany for the necessity for measures of the kind had been felt already as long ago as the twenties of last century. At that time children of both sexes of any age used to be employed in the spinning and weaving mills from early morning to late in the evening and even during the night. The first measures taken restricted the age to nine years; 1869 the States of the North German Bund prohibited the employment of children in factories under the age of 12; the German Empire in 1891 raised the limit of age to 13; and in 1904 the new law came into force further raising the limit of age to 14. Doubtless it will be some time before the people get accustomed to the new restrictions, but the parents themselves must see to strict obedience to the law.

With regard to the general employment of labour, the workpeople of Hamburg have had to take into account the fact that employment fluctuates very considerably here. Skilled workmen have at times had to accept work which in general is done by unskilled men. In many cases, however, there was a lack of skilled labour in 1904 and the same complaint was made in 1905.

As elsewhere in Germany the housing question of the working classes presents great difficulties in Hamburg. The rents of the smaller workmen's dwellings are high here. Within the last two or three years a large number of these smaller workman's dwellings have been built in the neighbourhood of the harbour and of the districts where the chief factories are situated. The rents of the new dwellings consisting of two rooms and a kitchen amount to about £11 to £21 per annum; but conditions here are not altogether satisfactory. Members of the family have to sleep in the kitchen in many cases and frequently there is no cellar or attic room for stowing away certain necessary goods and chattels. A building society that devotes itself to the building of good, cheap, and healthy dwellings for those whose earnings are small, was founded in 1904 with a capital of about £50,000 and houses have been erected in various parts of the town containing something under 2,000 dwellings let in flats. The Hamburg Building Society completed last year a new substantial block containing 289 dwellings at a cost of Mks. 1,300,000 (£63,725) with gardens in front.



In this connection it may be pointed out that the old-fashioned historic court-yards of the city are a black spot as regards the moral and sanitary welfare of the poor of Hamburg ; but it has at length been resolved to take sweeping measures for the removal of the worst of them. In many cases they are the dens of vice, crime and disease ; but it must not be forgotten that they are the relics of olden days when people of all classes lived in more confined spaces than are now considered to be conducive to health.

Wherever we have been we have noted that the question of the housing of the working classes in German towns is the main question that now deserves, and receives, very close attention on the part of the municipalities. So much has been done for the welfare of the working-men by the State in Germany that we have little doubt that attention will shortly be turned to this question also.

The wage tariff for the Hamburg harbour workmen is as follows :

For goods—whole day, roughly,  $4/5$  ; half-day, roughly,  $2/2\frac{1}{2}$  ; three-quarter-day, roughly,  $3/3$  ; whole night, roughly,  $5/7$  ; half night, roughly,  $2/9\frac{1}{2}$  ; whole Sunday or holiday, roughly,  $5/7$  ; half Sunday or holiday, roughly,  $2/9\frac{1}{2}$ .

For special articles :—Phosphate, saltpetre, sulphur in sacks, cement in sacks, per day, roughly  $5/-$  ; ore, gravel, salted hides, pig-iron, grain, gambia, guano, sulphur, salt, camphor, turpentine, roughly  $5/2\frac{1}{4}$  ; all these articles per night, Sunday or holidays, roughly  $6/2$  ; half-days, half-nights, or half-Sunday, or half-holidays are paid in proportion.

A full day is reckoned from 6 a.m., to 6 p.m., with pauses from 8 to 8.30 a.m., and from noon to 1-30 p.m.,—i.e., ten hours. If no pause be made for dinner, the day is reckoned as a full day at 2 p.m. Half a day is reckoned from 6 a.m., to 11-30 a.m., or from 1-30 p.m. to 6 p.m. A three-quarter day is reckoned from 9 a.m., to 6 p.m., with a mid-day pause from noon to 1-30 p.m., or if no mid-day pause is taken, from 9 a.m., to 2 p.m. A full night is reckoned from 6 p.m. to 4 a.m., with supper pause from 6 p.m., to 7 p.m., and a midnight pause from midnight to 12-30 a.m. A half-night is reckoned from 7 p.m. to midnight ; or if no supper pause is taken, from 6 p.m., to 10 p.m. If work is continued after midnight or 10 p.m., when no pause has been taken, the night is reckoned as a full night's work. A full Sunday or holiday is reckoned from 6 a.m. to 9-30 a.m., and from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m. A half-Sunday or half-holiday is reckoned from 6 a.m. to 9-30 a.m., or from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m.

Payment for over-time :—

After 6 p.m. up to 8 p.m., roughly 7d. per hour ; from 4 a.m. to 6 a.m., after working through the night—roughly  $1/2$  per hour ; after 2 p.m., when work is done during dinner hour—roughly  $1/2$  per

hour ; after midnight when work is done during evening pause—roughly  $\frac{1}{2}$  per hour ; when work is done during dinner hour and full day is not reckoned—roughly  $\frac{1}{9}$  per hour ; when work is done during breakfast or midnight pause—roughly 7d. per hour.

If work be done on board ships not lying alongside quay, men are conveyed gratis once a day to the ship and back. Piecework for discharging cargo of oats, roughly 7d. per ton ; any other grain,  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d. ; pig-iron  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. : gravel and ore,  $5\frac{7}{8}$ d. ; oil cake,  $9\frac{1}{4}$ d.

Night work is paid as follows in the harbour : On Sundays and holidays for the whole night, 6/- ; on the Lower Elbe, 5/- ; a half night in the harbour, 3/- ; on the Lower Elbe,  $2\frac{1}{6}$  ; over-time from 4 to 6 a.m.,  $\frac{1}{5}$ .

If after a man has been engaged, the work cannot be carried out and this without any fault of his, or if his work is interrupted without his fault, he will receive his wage, provided the interruption last more than one day.

Every man receives his wages in cash. Except in special cases of necessity the hours of work may not exceed thirty-six.

The canteen and dining-room for the use of the dock-workmen is an excellent institution where the men can obtain refreshments of all kinds at moderate prices. A dinner is supplied here consisting of soup, meat, potatoes, and vegetables for  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. We had a very excellent meal at one of the so-called "Coffee-halls," or canteens, and found the food palatable and toothsome, and the prices exceedingly low. Coffee, cocoa, tea, milk, butter-milk and soda-water, can be had for a half-penny a glass ; beer at 1d. and  $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. a bottle ; slices of bread and butter and cake for a half-penny ; and good-size portions of sausage, corned beef, meat or cheese for a penny. Sailors of all nations frequent these places, and English is spoken fluently by those who have the management of them. The kitchens, larders, and store-rooms are kept scrupulously clean.

The Harbours of Hamburg extend along the right and left banks of the Elbe for eight kilometers (five miles) from the Elbe bridge to Altona. The largest portion of the territory of the Harbours and the land appertaining to them lies in the territory of the Free Harbour covering 1019 hectares, equal to 2518 acres, which is marked off by floating palisades in the Elbe and by the Customs Canal. It comprises 504 hectares, equal to 1345 acres, of water and 515 hectares, equal to  $1373\frac{1}{2}$  acres, of land ; and the whole area contains 30,000 inhabitants. Houses inhabited by about 19,000 persons had to be removed in order to erect the new warehouses and construct new waterways. The total value of the imports in 1903 was 4057 million marks equal to £198,872,550 ; of the exports 3560 million marks equal to £174,569,804. The chief articles of import were in 1903—grain to the amount of 202 millions of marks equal to

£9,901,960; and coffee to the amount of 152 millions of marks equal to £7,450,980.

The Harbour Inspector is appointed by the Senate, after he has been proposed by the Police Authorities and his appointment has been approved of by the Hamburg Board of Trade and Navigation. He has to carry out the instructions of the Senate and is under the control of the Police Authorities. He is entrusted with the protection of the dock-labourers against any danger to life and limb, both whilst they are at work and whilst they are being conveyed to their respective places of employment in the Harbour.

The Harbour Inspector has the right to board any vessels lying in the port and to enter any premises situated in the precincts of the harbour where labourers are employed. Any person refusing to permit him to board such vessels or to enter such premises is liable to a fine not exceeding £7 10s. or imprisonment not exceeding six weeks.

Our visit to the docks and shops of the Hamburg American Company, for which we obtained special permission from the Directors of the Company, was highly interesting. The Company occupies the Kaiser Wilhelm Harbour, and the Ellerholz Harbour for the use of which it pays an annual rent of Mk. 1,350,000 equal to £66,176.

There are about 1400 men employed in the shops. The men are decidedly smart at their work, and labour under very favourable sanitary conditions. In the carpenters' shops guards are used for the saws and belts, and suction pipes draw off all the dust, etc., from the sawing. All the belts are sheltered and not merely the main driving-belt. All the newest inventions concerning machines are utilised here.

In the upholstery department seventy women are employed. They use sewing machines that are all run by electricity. We were struck by the feeling of comradeship that subsists amongst them. On the day of our visit the betrothal of one of the girls had been made known, so her comrades had arranged a number of flower pots on her table as gifts of congratulation!

We noticed that warmers are placed in every department for the purpose of keeping tea and coffee, etc., warm.

The prices of drinks consumed by the workpeople and supplied by the Firm are as follows:—

A bottle of tea costs roughly  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. ;  $\frac{1}{2}$  a litre i.e.,  $\frac{7}{8}$  of a pint of milk roughly  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ;  $\frac{1}{2}$  a litre i.e.,  $\frac{7}{8}$  of a pint of coffee, roughly  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ; a bottle of soda water, roughly 1d. (just under) ; a bottle of beer (of which four kinds can be obtained) roughly 1d. (just under).

The canteen is open from 5-30 a.m., to 6 a.m. ; from 8 a.m., to

8-30 a.m. ; from noon to 1 p.m. ; and from 5-20 p.m. to 6 p.m. ; and in summer, on hot days, from 3 p.m., to 3-15 p.m.

The standard wages are as follows :—

Carpenters, roughly  $5\frac{3}{4}$ d. per hour ; joiners, roughly  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. per hour ; painters and upholsterers, nearly  $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. per hour ; blacksmiths, mechanics, locksmiths, plumbers, mostly piece-work, 6d. per hour ; sail-makers roughly  $4\frac{3}{4}$ d. to 5d. per hour. The hours of work are ten.

When making a tour round the Harbour in the launch of the Harbour Inspector we were conducted through the long rows of warehouses. We walked through the fruit sheds, the largest in the world. One million cases from Messina and 600,000 cases from Spain represent the quantity stored here during the course of the season. It is in this fruit market that the prices are made and the fruit is sent to all parts. There is a duty of four marks ( $\frac{3}{9}$ ) on 100 kilograms of oranges equal to 220 English lbs. That is to say the duty is  $\frac{1}{5}$ d. per lb. ; and as from three to four oranges go to the lb. it is difficult to understand how people can say that the consumer can be charged this duty—namely, less than  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. on three or four oranges ! Apples enter free of duty. The Sloman line brings the fruit from Messina.

Hamburg's fruit market is supplied from Syria, the eastern and south-eastern coasts of Spain and the southern part of Italy and Sicily. Of the 400,000 cases of oranges exported from Jaffa only about 10,500 came to Hamburg in 1904 ; but the new colonists of Jews from Russia and Roumania hope to obtain a better market for their goods in the future in Germany.

The pineapples that are sent to Hamburg come for the most part from the Azores, but they are all shipped in English bottoms belonging to London shipowners.

The trade with oranges, lemons, pineapples and other so-called southern fruits is now in a highly developed stage ; but we can with difficulty trace anything concerning it further back than the year 1820. Between 1840 and 1850 hardly more than a dozen ships brought fruit to Hamburg from Italy and Spain. In the days of sailing ships Hamburg's fruit trade was beset with many difficulties ; later the trade was carried on by means of steamers most of which were of English origin, and in those days the Hamburg market depended consequently on the markets of Hull, London and Liverpool. For a long time England enjoyed this advantage, being far in advance of Germany in regard to steamers. The first attempt made by Hamburg to run a steamer direct from Spain to Hamburg and independently of England laden with fruit was in December, 1858, when the steamer " Pamela " started with 7,000 cases, but never reached her destination, having sunk at the mouth of the

Weser. It was not until 1871 that the first direct consignment by steamer arrived in the port of Hamburg; it was a Dutch ship that brought it, the "Gothenburg," and her cargo of fruit consisted of 12,000 cases of Messina oranges. Of course it was the event of the day amongst German fruit merchants. But the market still remained for a long period in English hands.

Just as Germany began to go ahead about this time in every economic venture, so she did in the matter of Hamburg's fruit trade. In 1872 the firm of Robert M Sloman, junr., started a line of steamers to the Mediterranean. The line consisted in 1903 of twenty-two steamers averaging 1600 net register tons each. But although the ships brought the fruit, many years had to elapse before sheds were available for its reception, and the fruit merchants had to agitate a good deal before they obtained what they wanted. Owing to the frost in winter they were subjected to immense losses. In 1886 a shed was assigned to them. In 1888 Hamburg joined the Empire for purposes of Customs, and fresh arrangements had to be made for the storage of the fruit. This state of things continued till April, 1892, when the massive building in which it was stored fell a victim to fire, and goods to the value of millions perished. Another shed was assigned to the fruit merchants, but the Customs squabbles between Berlin and Madrid in 1893 menaced the very existence of the trade. The 4/- duty on oranges was raised to 12/-, and in 1894 to 18/- per 100 kilogramms. This latter duty meant 1d. a lb.; and of course, like all unreasonable duties, it was injurious to the trade. The import of cases of oranges from Spain went down in 1894-95 to 26,255 from 196,087, the number imported in the year before. In 1895 the duty was lowered again to 12/- per 100 kilogramms, but this was also too high, for it represented a duty over  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. However, in 1896 the Hamburg Government decided to build suitable sheds, and from the following year the fruit trade began to develop in a healthy and prosperous manner. In 1899 a Customs treaty was concluded between Germany and Spain, and the import of oranges rose from 5448.6 tons in 1898-99 to 16,744.4 tons in the following year. Since 1900 the amount has increased to about 50,000 tons from Spain.

Hamburg has now a warehouse area of 22,115 sq-metres (221,150 sq ft) at the disposal of its fruit trade. Twenty-nine cranes worked by electricity, each of 3,000 kilogramms (6,601 English lbs.) capacity, are used for unloading the ships.

An important trade in grapes is also done between Hamburg and Portugal and Italy; and between America and Hamburg with apples.

A remark made by the Quay and Docks Inspector, Herr Schmidt, in connection with the consumption of fruit is noteworthy. He said that he had not noticed one case of drunkenness during a

series of years amongst those of the dock workpeople, who are continuously engaged with the handling of fruit that comes to Hamburg. He says that Hamburg workmen as a rule do not get drunk on beer but on spirits, and so he concludes that those who take pleasure in the consumption of these fruits have no appetite for the potatoe-spirits—schnaps—usually drunk by workmen in general. Hamburg workmen consume a good deal of beer as well as spirits. The men engaged in these sheds generally take home with them a few oranges, which they can purchase for about 3 or 4 a penny, and it is assumed that in consequence of the facilities that are within their reach in the matter of fruit they have no inclination to enter the public-house on leaving their work. The new duty on oranges will be 3/3 instead of 4/-, and lemons are to be admitted free of duty.

We see from the statistics that up to 1884, from three to four thousand tons of oranges, tangerines and lemons, used to be brought to Hamburg from England. In 1885 this amount went down to 575 tons and in 1886 to 197 tons. Since that date the English 'Southern fruit' trade has entirely ceased, whilst that with Italy and Spain, but chiefly with Spain, has enormously developed. The import of all other fruits—pineapples, bananas, grapes, and American apples has made great strides. Take for example the year 1903-04:—

Oranges, tangerines and lemons.....	80,868 tons
Pineapples .....	1,632 tons
Bananas .....	1,026 tons
Cocoanuts .....	1,943 tons
Almeria grapes.....	2,849 tons
American apples.....	23,472 tons
	—————
	111,790 tons

Although the carrying trade is carried on chiefly in German bottoms, it appears that British ships are also participating in it in larger numbers now than in former years. In 1897-98 there were only 4 British ships; in 1901-02 there were 23; in 1902-03, there were 30; and in 1903-04, 33.

The wages of the men engaged in the unloading of fruit are reckoned in two ways, partly by time, partly by piecework. They average from 4/2½ to 4/3¾ per day. They receive a fixed wage of 3/6½ per day, the rest being calculated according to piecework, accounts being made up every four weeks. Assistant workers are divided into two classes—receiving respectively 3/6¼ and 3/4 per day.

Nine years ago there was a strike amongst the Hamburg dockmen; it was about Christmas 1896 and lasted into 1897. Eighteen thousand men took part in it. They gained nothing by it

at the time. They were offered an increase of 30 pfennige equal to 3½d. which they refused, standing out for 50 pfennige equal to 5½d. In 1900 the increase then offered was conceded to them. Last year they wanted 5/-, but the rise was not given; but now they have an increase in regard to grain, namely 5 pfennige or about ½d. per ton more.

Whereas we were assured that the modern German freight steamers were far better equipped for loading and unloading purposes, with better cranes etc., than are the English tramps; it was as readily admitted that the arrangements in the Harbour of Hamburg for unloading coals were miserable—far behind the times. The German tramps certainly cost more than do the British ones. Ours are said to be cheaply built, and it is to be feared, that owing to this reflection, which may or may not be just, we are losing some of the carrying trade to the Germans, not perhaps to an appreciable extent; but it is a gain to them even if we do not yet feel the loss.

As regards coaling we were told that whereas an English coaling ship is discharged of her cargo in eight hours, the Hamburgers owing to their poor arrangements require twenty-four!

One of the most interesting and useful institutions for the welfare of the working classes that we have seen in Germany was the 'Volksheim' in Hamburg—'People's Home.' It was founded and is managed by a number of Hamburg lawyers; the foundation stone of the new house was laid in the spring of 1904, and the house was opened early in 1905. The home is situated in one of the working-men's quarters of the city.

The ruling idea of the founders of the scheme was to establish an institution where the working classes could obtain intellectual recreation and special legal advice in matters affecting their interests. On the other hand it is not exclusively for working-men and women; all are welcome to the lectures, etc., who take interest in them; but mainly those whose means do not permit of their taking part in meetings of the same kind elsewhere. Small independent masters of trades, many of whom are not in so good a financial position as the working-men, can find here an opportunity for obtaining knowledge and social privileges.

The promoters of the 'Volksheim' are men of discernment and they know that a good deal of natural intelligence and mental training is to be found amongst working-men; they wanted to get persons of this calibre together who strive to obtain intellectual recreation in order to give them an opportunity for hearing the works of the best writers and composers. Meetings for this purpose are arranged for Sundays, the fee for entrance thereto being 1d. Associated herewith are a number of "workmen's clubs," organised for literary purposes. There is also a public library which contains some 12,000 volumes, and where books are lent gratis; and lectures

are given on Thursdays on subjects of general knowledge and on matters dealing with the requirements of the working-classes.

Advice, too, is tendered here gratis on matters connected with workmen's insurance and disputes of all kinds. There are rooms for the use of the Apprentices' Association and the Girls' League; and a large committee of ladies and gentlemen interested in the movement supervises all the business arrangements of the 'Home.'

Last year there were 208 paying members: the subscription is £1 per year.

The promoters also try to get at young boys who when left alone fall into bad ways and lead a wild and irregular life. Instruction in English, French, and stenography is given on certain evenings in the week; and gymnastic classes are held for their good. The institution is self-supporting; and undoubtedly supplies a need. It would be well if more of such institutions existed in German towns for the intellectual entertainment of the superior type of working-men.

Another institution in one of the workmen's quarters of the town is the "Arbeiter Heim" or "Workmen's Home" founded and supported by a Frau von Putkammer. Single men can lodge and board here; or they can come for a night if there is room. The Home is managed by a specially appointed Inspector and Matron. The price for a bed, several of which are set up in one room, bath and coffee and rolls in the morning is about 4½d. The "Home" is frequented by all kinds of workmen—tailors, gardeners, book-keepers etc. The price of a dinner comprising soup, meat and potatoes, is about 4¾d.

Both of these institutions just mentioned stand of course as solitary islets, so to speak, in the midst of the working-men's part of this great city; but they serve to show that their existence is needed and appreciated.

The Municipal Baths were opened in August 1904, at a cost of £43,430; they are erected on a site given by the town, and the State of Hamburg pays a subvention of £8,186 per annum.

In summer there are sometimes 5,000 persons of both sexes bathing here. A 1st class bath with two towels costs 5¾d.; and a 2nd. class bath with one towel costs 3½d.; charge for an extra towel is just under ½d.

There is a very good arrangement here for supplying the establishment with fresh air. The bathing arrangements are excellent and the establishment is extremely well fitted up.

Owing to the short time that remained at our disposal we were unable to see as much of the workmen's life of Hamburg as we should have liked. A visit to the shipbuilding yards of Messrs



Blohm and Voss would have been more than instructive, but unfortunately we were at Hamburg just at the time when the Firm had some differences with their men, so that a request for permission to see their yards was out of the question. We were afforded, however, a glance at Hamburg cigar manufacturing through the kindness of Messrs L Wolff. This Firm employs 12,200 hands, and keeps a supply of fifteen millions of cigars always on stock. Besides their Hamburg factory they have some twenty-three others in Hesse and Thuringia. The chief of them are at Waldkappel, Lichtenau, Fürstenhagen, Brotterode, Klein-Schalkalden, Northeim, Steinbach-Hällenberg, Unterschönau, Wasungen I., Wasungen II., Seligenthal, Sontra.

According to the factory regulations none of the men or women may be employed underground ; and the rooms in which they work must be at least three meters high (9,840 ft.) and there must be 7 cub. meters of space allowed for each person.

In reply to our question as to whether the work had any pernicious effect on the health of the men and women employed here we were introduced to a man who had been 35 years in the service of the Firm and was perfectly hale and hearty. About 150 hands are employed at the Hamburg-Factory, two-thirds of whom are females. Married as well as single women are employed here.

The wages earned are as follows :—The women and girls receive from 15/- to 20/- per week ; and the men from 20/- to 30/-. Christmas presents, as is almost universal in Germany, are given ; and the Firm has its own Sick Fund for the benefit of its employees. Every provision required by law for the supply of basins and soap and water for washing of hands is strictly adhered to.

The father of the present members of the Firm gave a sum of £6,000, the interest of which was to be devoted to those who have been twenty years in the service of the Firm. After twenty-five years' service an employee receives a gratuity of £5.

Two millions of cigars per week are sold by this Firm. They obtain their leaves from Sumatra, Java, Havanna, Brazil, Mexico and Borneo. As far as we could understand, the tobacco from the German Colonies, including New Guinea, is considered to be bad.

An interesting feature of the trade is the attention paid to the names of the various brands, and to the artistic designs of the pictures used on the inside of the boxes, as well as to the patterns of the bands placed round the cigars. It appears that the same brand of cigar may be sold under many names ; the choice of the names being mainly regulated by the retail-dealers who act in accordance with the taste of their customers.

From careful enquiries that we made we were convinced that the regulations that have been enacted within recent years concerning

the sanitary conditions under which persons engaged in the manufacture of cigars, have been an untold boon to the cigar industry of Hamburg.

Before leaving Hamburg the Bürgermeister, Dr Burchard, who had taken measures to enable us to see all that was possible in the short time at our disposal, had the kindness to receive us at his private house. We had a conversation with him of about half-an-hour's duration and he broached several points referring to the conditions of life of workmen in Germany and England.

Before concluding the series of our reports we desire to express our most sincere thanks to all those who have assisted us in carrying out the objects of our mission to Germany. We were selected by the Gainsborough working-men themselves in order to find out whether the social condition of German working-men was as miserable as it was portrayed to us in Gainsborough by certain politicians. On our behalf steps were taken to enable us to collect for our comrades in Gainsborough such authentic facts concerning German working people employed at manufacturing centres in the various centres of industry as would give a truthful picture of the conditions under which labour is carried on in the country of our great rival. We have done our level best to elicit the truth from all sides; and the contents of our fourteen reports cannot but show that a very considerable amount of work was put into the six weeks assigned to us. It was a source of disappointment that we could not, owing to want of time, extend our journey, as originally intended to Upper Silesia; but it is probable that interesting details on the conditions of this field of labour in the German Empire will be added in the book that will shortly be published containing all our reports. In that book we shall also individually express more fully our thanks for the assistance that was afforded us.

Meanwhile we submit that our reports give a fair and reasonable picture of the conditions under which German workmen labour. These conditions differ in many respects from ours; and this would be the case also were we to compare our lot with that of the workmen in any other country. Whatever the diversity of conditions, however, it is quite clear that the German industrial workman is immeasurably better paid now than he was twenty-five years ago, and that he is similarly better clothed, better fed and better lodged than he was then. He has, moreover, ample facilities for healthy recreation for himself and family. In regard to the provision made for him by the State in the event of sickness; in the event of his meeting with accidents during the exercise of his vocation; as well as in the event of his becoming unable to earn his living through physical debility or old age, he is in a decidedly better position than the workmen in our country. He pays no more in a protectionist country for his bread, his coffee, his sugar, his clothing

or his boots than we do in England. It would be of no use to offer him white wheaten bread and jam, which we consider in England to be necessaries. He prefers his brown rye bread and other delicacies at which our people would turn up their noses. His meat is just now dearer than it is with us; but in normal times we do not consider that he is worse off relatively in this respect than we are when we make due allowances for national differences of taste.

In Prussia his children are well educated in the elementary schools for nothing, and in other German States for a trifling sum; whilst excellent opportunities are within the reach of his children for acquiring still higher education as they grow older.

The obligation to serve in the army for the defence of his country, is a physical moral and material advantage to him; and whatever irksomeness this obligation causes a very small minority of Germans is vastly outweighed by the advantages it brings to the others individually and to the State as a whole.

We repeat again that the authorities of the State, the employers, and the employed, treated us throughout our journey of enquiry with the greatest courtesy, confidence and frankness. Nothing has been concealed from us and all doors have been readily and ungrudgingly opened for us. The object of our mission was at the outset laid before the Government, before a number of leading manufacturers and before the acknowledged responsible officials and parliamentary representatives of the working classes; and we were supplied from all these sources with the facilities we asked for. We have seen German workpeople labouring both under favourable and under indifferent conditions; and we believe that the tendency on the part of the legislature and of employers is to improve these conditions. Although our object has not been to uphold Protection against Free Trade—indeed our opinions on this subject remain individual as they were when we started for Germany—we are bound to state, as we have repeatedly stated in our reports, that under the policy of Protection followed by Imperial Germany since 1878 she has made progress by leaps and bounds in industrial prosperity; has developed into becoming Britain's greatest commercial rival in Europe; and that her working classes are in the enjoyment of a vastly larger share in the comforts of life than their parents would have dreamt of hoping for in their own generation.

(Signed) G. W. BROWN.  
J. MANN  
T. W. MOTTERSHELL.  
H. BEILBY.  
G. PROCTOR.  
H. CALVERT.

The total value of the imports and exports of Hamburg and of the import of grain and coffee in the last three years was as follows:—

Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Import of Grain.	Import of Coffee.
1903.—£198,872,550	£174,509,804	£10,588,235	£7,450,980
1904.—£207,000,000	£185,931,372	£10,098,040	£7,549,020
1905.—£232,941,176	£210,833,333	£13,137,235	£8,137,255

## SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

### UPPER SILESIA.

*Owing to lack of time it was found necessary in January last, to strike out Upper Silesia from the original plan drawn up for the visit of the Gainsborough Commission to the chief industrial districts of Germany. In order, however, that an account of the conditions of labour in so important a centre of German industry should not be omitted in this volume, it was decided that the Editor should undertake this portion of the task. He made a point of taking with him a gentleman who from early boyhood has had intimate experience of both British and German methods and conditions of labour. The subjoined report contains the results of this enquiry.—EDITOR.*

The preceding pages have given many pictures representing the progress in industrial enterprise made by Westphalia, Rhineland, Bavaria, Saxony and Prussia; of what the diligence, perseverance of a Krupp, a Schuckert, a Siemens, a Borsig have been able to attain; and of what German workmen under able leadership have achieved. In the east of the Empire also, in Silesia, men from the ranks of the people have contributed to show that something besides worldly wealth and influence can overcome obstacles and difficulties, and that self-restraint, and painstaking, indefatigable hard work, enlarged views and mental capacity contribute most of all the forces of a country to the augmentation of its wealth and permanent well-being. Frederick the Great secured Silesia and foresaw in a vague manner the probability of a development of its mineral treasures.

At the beginning of the 19th century the greater part of Upper Silesia was still covered with forests and was scantily populated by an indigent population. The people were not distinguished for

intelligence but were rather remarkable for their dirt and propensity to theft ; the ordinary rustic workman could neither read nor write, compulsory attendance at school was then unknown, and a labourer preferred to let his children earn a few pence by work rather than acquire school knowledge. The whole country was then in the possession of rich Grand Seigneurs ; and reserved for agriculture and sport ; and labourers and their families, according to existing annals, were addicted to superstition, servility, and schnaps. It was not until the hidden treasures of the earth began to be exploited and when other influences were felt that Upper Silesia came to the front. First there was the development of its coal mines in the thirties of last century and afterwards followed the development of its industry. The latter was the natural consequence of the former.

In connection with the names of those who led the way to industrial success in these parts we have to register the influence of lessons obtained from England ; and the names of Winckler, Grundmann, Godulla and Borsig, to all of whom Upper Silesia's industry owes so much are indelibly written in the annals of Germany's early industrial development. Franz Winckler in his efforts to discover the secrets which would enable him to utilize to the full the fine ores that were to be found in his mines, went over to England, the only country in Europe where these secrets were then known. His journeys to England were undertaken at the instigation of, and, it is said, by order of King Friedrich Wilhelm IV. In this connection it may be mentioned that a few years ago Winckler's grandson, the present Count von Tiele-Winckler, undertook a journey to America in conjunction with other distinguished Germans connected with the mining industry for the purpose of obtaining valuable information and that Kaiser Wilhelm II, the above-named Monarch's great nephew followed the results of this journey with great interest. Franz Winckler was employed in a mine at Miechowitz, and after the death of his employer, he himself being a widower, he married his late employer's widow. A story became current amongst the people of Upper Silesia that Franz Winckler, who was ennobled by Friedrich Wilhelm IV under the name of Franz von Winckler, never returned alive from England, but that he was arrested there as a dangerous spy and executed or poisoned, and that when his widow applied for his remains a coffin full of stones was sent to her ! As a matter of fact he neither died in England, nor was he the victim of poison or of the gallows ! He died in Germany, shortly after undergoing a " cure " in Karlsbad, in August 1851 from the effects of a paralytic stroke. The heir to the properties of Franz von Winckler and his second wife, was his daughter by his first wife, Valesca von Winckler. Fräulein Valesca von Winckler continued to retain the services of her late husband's friend Friedrich Grundmann and

made him her manager. Grundmann was a young Saxon who had also gone to Upper Silesia to earn his livelihood as a miner. Subsequently Fräulein von Winckler married a lieutenant of Mecklenburg descent, a Lieutenant von Tiele. The family now became known under the name von Tiele-Winckler; and a few years ago Herr von Tiele-Winckler the present owner of Miechowitz, was raised to the rank of a Count. Another of the pioneers of Upper Silesia industry was Karl Godulla, born the end of the 18th century at Makoschau, a little village in the western part of Upper Silesia in the midst of a large forest. His father was a day labourer and at the age of eleven he was left an orphan, his parents and brothers and sisters having been all swept away by the cholera. He wandered to some relatives in Poland earning his bread as he went along, but returned to his native district two years later. An inn-keeper took him in out of kindness as a sort of odd hand, and he made himself useful, and showed such intelligence that one day when Count Ballestrem, a landed magnate of Plawniowitz in the neighbourhood put up at the inn, the landlord suggested he should take him with him and give him an opportunity of getting some education. The Count did so, and young Godulla made remarkable progress. In due course the lad said he would like to devote his life to forestry and Count Ballestrem sent him to one of the foresters of his extensive estate. The neighbourhood swarmed with poachers, and the peasants were accustomed to help themselves to wood from the Count's forests, cutting down trees as they chose for the purpose, excusing themselves naïvely on the ground that as they worked for his Lordship they were entitled to take wood from his forests. Hitherto the foresters had not ventured to interfere; but Godulla had other ideas and told the people: "You receive payment for your labour, and when you take wood out of the forest it is theft. If you do so I shall report you and have you punished according to law." He was not to be held back by the warnings of the foresters who knew the character of the people, and having reported thirty-two peasants who were all sent to prison, the culprits vowed vengeance against him. They seized him one Sunday morning in the forest, broke his arms and one of his legs, and left him hanging by his feet to a tree covered with thirty-two wounds! He was found in a state of unconsciousness by some country people on their way to church. Strange to say he recovered, but he was henceforth unfit for the career of a forester. His patron then had him taught farming. At the age of twenty he had developed such skill that the Count gave him a neglected farm to look after, hoping he would bring it in order. Then he farmed according to English methods and the estates soon became a "model" farm.

Not far from the farm was a large heap of slag that had been continuously deposited here for a series of years by the workpeople of one of Count Ballestrem's Smelting Works. Godulla often

watched how the zinc was separated from the ore at the Works and was convinced that by smelting over an open fire a large part of the zinc remained in the slag unsmelted. The English methods were superior and Godulla had read all about them in the newspapers ; but all he could do was to make experiments. Finally he perceived that the smelting process should take place in retorts as was done in England and Belgium. Ruhberg, a clever employee of the then Count von Pless, had already discovered the secret in 1802 but the Silesian smelting works were for a long time sceptical as to its value. For a song Godulla purchased from Count Ballestrem the huge mound of slag. Godulla submitted the slag to the process he had contemplated and secured a very large sum for the zinc with which he purchased an estate. Zinc ores and other minerals were discovered under the soil of this estate, and he continued to make fresh purchases and became the owner of several smelting works and coal mines. He introduced the truck system amongst his men giving them provisions, etc., in place of money, because he knew that if they had any money they would spend it all on schnaps, and they and their families would be without proper food and raiment. It may be noted that the truck system has for many years been prohibited by law in Germany. Godulla became enormously rich and the superstitious people of the country declared that he had a pact with the devil and avoided meeting him. He was unmarried and after his death from cholera at Breslau, whither he had fled from home to escape it, it was found that he had left the bulk of his immense fortune to Johanna Gryczyk, the daughter of a simple couple who were employed in his household. She was sent to school and on her eighteenth birthday King Friedrich Wilhelm IV. ennobled her under the name of Johanna Gryczek von Schomberg-Godulla ; and shortly afterwards she married Count Hans Ulrich von Schaffgotsch.

My object in citing the above details about the early history of the lives of these men is to show that two of the richest representatives of industry in Upper Silesia owe their great wealth to persons of very humble origin possessing extraordinary intelligence. The mining population there are satisfied that any diligent miner has it in his power to become the manager of a mine ; for this sort of thing has been enacted in their very midst.

That part of Upper Silesia which is specially devoted to industry is in the south-eastern corner of the province of Silesia where it meets the Russian and Austrian frontiers. The climate is inclement, for the country is subject to the cold east winds coming from Russia. The district is, however, rich in mineral treasures, e.g., coal, iron, zinc and lead. The seams of coal are thick and do not lie very deep. The forests that formerly existed here have gradually ceded to the invasion of industry. Mining was known here as far back as the 12th century, and industry made some progress up to the 15th century ; but mainly owing to the great

amount of water in the mines, an obstacle that modern appliances have been able to get rid of, there ensued a long period of inactivity. During the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) industry and mining were practically suspended in Silesia until Prussia, under Frederick the Great, secured the province, a historical fact upon which some stress may be laid, for the annals of great nations not infrequently establish the necessity of annexing under certain conditions neighbouring countries that contain mineral wealth. Under Frederick the Great, State capital was invested in the mines and smelting works in Upper Silesia, and thus the way was paved for the era of development that dates from the middle of the last century. From this time the country was opened up by railways; business-like methods prevailed, and the population began to increase and agricultural labourers forsook the fields for the mines and furnaces. The earnings of the people began to increase and the scourge of plague and famine to disappear.

The annual value to the kingdom of Prussia of the industrial products of Upper Silesia is estimated to-day at over twenty-two millions of pounds sterling—£22,026,431.

The improvement in the conditions of life of the working-classes has taken place parallel with the progress of industry. The following table shows the development of the population of Upper Silesia from 1781-1858 :—

1781.....	12,329
1794.....	17,392
1806.....	20,038
1807.....	33,823
1820.....	32,437
1849.....	84,794
1852.....	94,081
1855.....	106,136
1858.....	118,437

The population now exceeds 1,000,000. In 1905 the number of workpeople employed in the various industries of Upper Silesia amounted to 154,741; and the amount paid in wages was £7,010,358 (in 1896 the amount paid in wages was £3,839,085 and the number of workpeople was 109,830).

In the preceding reports it has been repeatedly pointed out that wages have considerably increased throughout Germany during the last thirty years. This assertion is confirmed on p. 227 of the "Special Consular Report on Industrial Education and Industrial conditions in Germany presented to the Department of Commerce and Labour Bureau of Statistics at Washington (1895)" where we read: "Wages have steadily risen since 1880 and the cost of food has not risen in a corresponding degree." It is also endorsed as regards Upper Silesia in the "Statistics of the Upper Silesian



Mines and Smelting Works Industries for 1905" collected and arranged by Dr. H. Voltz and Berg-Assessor M. Witte. From these latter statistics we learn the following :—

Of the total number of workpeople above cited, 86,660 were employed in the coal mines in 1905 ; and the sum paid in wages was £4,168,470. The average wages earned in Upper Silesia in the Mining and Smelting Industries were :—

	Coal and Ore Mines.			Iron Smelting Works.			Zinc, Lead, and Silver Smelting Works.			Cokes.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1887.—Males above 16...	27	16	5	32	8	3	32	16	3	28	13	0
„ —Males under 16...	10	13	9	11	4	8	11	18	8	10	13	8
„ —Women	10	1	10	12	15	6	13	0	0	12	17	0
1905.—Males above 16...	50	0	0	47	16	0	49	0	0	48	4	0
„ —Males under 16...	14	0	0	17	6	0	13	1	0	14	12	0
„ —Women	14	16	4	17	3	0	17	9	6	14	11	6

The above figures only give the AVERAGE wages. Therefrom it will be seen that the AVERAGE wages of the colliers have increased by about 80 per cent. in the last eighteen years, whilst the wages of lads under 16 and of women have increased about 40 per cent. The table deals with the wages of skilled and unskilled men all taken together, and is therefore only of theoretical value. Practically speaking the wages of skilled workers have increased considerably higher. As compared with 1904 there was an increase in 1905 in all the above industries. It must be noted that from 1873 to 1889 industry had a series of sixteen bad years. Since 1889 there has been almost steady improvement.

There is a permanent want of workmen in Upper Silesia and consequently a continuous influx of labourers from Austrian territory, notably Galicians and Ruthenians. Owing to prevailing conditions, Russians find no employment in the works or mines although they come over as agricultural labourers in large numbers. Ruthenians are allowed by the Prussian Government to work here continuously, but Galician workmen must return to their native country for six weeks every year.

A very good general idea of the conditions of the housing of the workpeople in the industrial districts of Upper Silesia is obtainable from the report of the Commission of enquiry appointed in 1890 by the "Oberschlesischer Berg und Hüttenmännischer Verein." The report was published in 1892 and contains the following picture of what a well-known writer on Polish-Silesian conditions, S. Jacobi, said in 1790. He wrote of the rooms in which the families lived :— "A receptacle called a room contains in winter-time a numerous family—half-naked children and used-up old men, a sight altogether revolting

o a sense of shame; and next to these exist—a harmonious pendant to the picture of the family—calves and pigs; and in the immediate vicinity are all the stores of potatoes and vegetables meant for food. Everywhere a receptacle of this kind reveals the strongest proofs of poverty, disorder, and dirt. And in this receptacle, in which the most pestilent atmosphere prevails, the family sit and eat food of the most inadequate kind with scarcely any nourishment in it and remain healthy and contented. Spirits are the idol of the people.”

If the people had been left to themselves they would probably have continued in this condition. In the district with which we are dealing, from two-thirds to three-fourths of the population are connected with industry. In general there are more married men in the Smelting Works than in the Mines. In some cases the number of the married people goes up to from 70 to 75 per cent. In a portion of the industrial district, especially where there are mines, the colliers often farm their own land. They are encouraged in various ways to build their own houses. In 1890, 8,830 male operatives from the Mines and Smelting Works (i.e. 12.4 per cent.) of the districts Rybnick, Tarnowitz, Pless, Gleiwitz, Zabrze, Kattowitz, and Beuthen, where the enquiry took place, lived in houses of which they were the proprietors. It is stated in the same report that 1,769 houses containing 11,135 dwellings had been built by the workpeople with the assistance of the Works and the State—i.e. free site, cheap materials, or loans. As to the value of this system various views prevail. Some say it has not been altogether a success, because the workpeople are not for the most part capable of retaining their houses and they borrow from other sources besides the State and the Works; and further, because the houses frequently change hands and fall into the possession of tradespeople, innkeepers etc. Assistance is now only given to older reliable workpeople who have saved money. Anyhow, it has been found that the workpeople are better off in the dwellings of the Works, because the hygienic conditions are superior and the people can live nearer to the place of employment. On the other hand, it is recommended that the men should be encouraged to be houseowners in cases where they own about an acre of land and live in districts which are only scantily populated; and it is further urged by some that by having a house of his own a workman becomes more thrifty and remains on the spot so that a good stock of workpeople is obtained. In all the dwellings built by the Works the area of the rooms is considerably greater and the rooms are higher. It is recommended that rooms should not exceed 3 m. in height (9.84 feet). Otherwise they would be too cold in winter. About 64 per cent. of the unmarried operatives live at home with their parents—the rest in lodgings or young men's barracks.

Through the kindness of the Director of the “Kattowitzer Aktiengesellschaft für Bergbau und Eisenhüttenbetrieb” we were

permitted to inspect the Ferdinand Mine at Kattowitz and the mine belonging to the same company at Myslowitz. By the help of letters from the Minister of Trade and through Herr Bergrat Williger we obtained introductions to the Managers of the Royal Works and Mines at Königshütte; at Graf von Tiele-Winkler's mine "Preussen"; at the "Donnersmarckhütte" at Zabrze; at the "Friedenshütte"; the "Friedensgrube"; at Lipine; at Borsig's Works; and at Rosdzin.

The future of the Upper Silesian coal seams lies in a southerly direction, that of the Westphalian towards the north. The southern districts in Upper Silesia are still devoted to agriculture and are partially covered with forests, but signs are already not wanting of the gradual encroachment of industry. The largest coal mines are in the hands of the State; the iron industry belongs to private enterprise.

The Ferdinand Mine employs about 3,000 people. No women have worked in the pits for the last sixty years. Four-fifths of the workpeople connected with the mine do piecework. As we were allowed to descend the pit we were enabled to see the men at work as well as the general conditions of the mine. This and the mine at Myslowitz are the most comfortable mines for the men that we have seen. As compared with England the galleries are much higher and the temperature lower here in Upper Silesia, and the danger is considerably less. In going through the pits we walked with naked lamps.

The best paid men are the cutters, and their average wage is Mks. 4.50, i.e. just under 4/5 per day, and many earn up to 5/- and more. The fillers, mostly unmarried men, aged from 18 to 25 earn an average wage of Mks. 3.50 i.e. 3/5½ per day: the trammers, Mks. 2.60 i.e. 2/6½ earning up to 2/10¾.\* The boys begin work in the mine at 16 and receive up to 18 years of age about 1/6 per day; from 18 to 20 they work as fillers. Then comes the period of two years soldiering. It is noteworthy that a large number of the men from the east do not return to Upper Silesia after their soldiering time is over: in general they remain in the west and take to electrical and other work. Judging from those we saw they must be a healthy set of fellows. Those that return do so at about the age of 24 when they work as trammers and have to get into the regular routine of work again. Of course, every man does not become a "cutter" and the advance is regulated according to the number of fillers employed. The "cutters" remain "cutters" for the rest of their lives, those of them who prove to be really good

\* Since May last, when this report was written, there has been a general rise in wages at this mine. The cutters now earn on an average Mks. 5 per day (4/11); the fillers Mks. 4 (3/11); the trammers Mks. 3 (2/11½). The rise which has taken place without any coercion whatever is due to the flourishing state of the market and to the lack of workmen in these parts.

workers being promoted to the rank of sub-officials i.e. upper-cutter (Ober-Häuer), leading hand (Steiger) or foreman (Ober-Steiger).

We took a turn through the village of Bogutschütz where some of the men of this pit live, and then through the district of Karbova which is now part of the town of Kattowitz where we could inspect some of the town dwellings. In the village we saw a sample of dwellings and the Young Men's barracks connected with the pit. The country dwellings are simple and suitable to the standard of life of the people—a kitchen, a dwelling-room containing beds, with a shed for a goat or pigs, a cellar and a fair sized garden for vegetables—rent 4 Mks. (3/11) a month i.e. about 47/- per annum. Where there are two rooms and a kitchen, the rent was 70/6 per annum. These dwellings belong to the mine: in houses not the property of the mine-owners the rent was about double the amount just quoted. The scrupulous devotion of the people to the adjuncts of their religion was everywhere perceptible, e.g. the furniture of the rooms was scant but there was an abundance of religious pictures and images, the chests of drawers being converted into a sort of domestic altar with figures, pictures, candlesticks and artificial flowers. The people are almost all Roman Catholics. The style of nourishment was also very simple and the type of kitchen furniture and utensils much below the quality that we usually find in our miners' dwellings. One of the dwellings we inspected was that of a cutter who earned 4/6 per day. He had been many years in the service of the same mine and had had sixteen children from two wives, only six of whom were now living! That the conditions of life of this family were meagre is not surprising but it is due to the family to say that despite the simplicity and barren appearance of the surroundings, scrupulous cleanliness prevailed in the apartment. The husband is a steady hard-working man. It must not be forgotten in dealing with the conditions of the people here that they receive an annual allowance of coal from the pit e.g. a cutter has about 5½ tons of coal, a filler 4½ tons, a trammer 3 tons; a labourer and the younger workpeople about 1½ tons of coal.

In general it may be said of the people that they are fairly intelligent good workpeople, but disposed to levity in many ways. There has been an improvement in regard to drink within the last ten years but the disposition prevails to spend more on drink—chiefly spirits—than is desirable both amongst the younger and the older men. The people are decidedly unthrifty and very little is handed over to the Savings' Banks. As regards amusements, the people are very musical and fond of private theatricals and dancing, pleasures which are carried on in a more innocent manner than an outsider might imagine, the members of the family taking the greatest interest therein.

In the Young Men's barracks at Bogutschütz the men can get a

dinner consisting of about  $6\frac{1}{2}$  oz. of cooked meat (beef or pork), soup, vegetables and potato dumplings for  $4\frac{3}{4}$  d. The market price of meat at Kattowitz per English pound was as follows: Beef  $6\frac{1}{4}$  d. to 7d.; pork  $6\frac{1}{4}$  d. to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  d.; mutton 8d.; veal  $6\frac{1}{4}$  d.  $8\frac{1}{4}$  d. and  $8\frac{1}{2}$  d.; brawn  $6\frac{3}{4}$  d. Rye bread costs here at the rate of  $4\frac{2}{3}$  d. for a loaf weighing 4 English pounds. All meat is at least  $1\frac{1}{4}$  d. per English pound dearer than formerly. The mine supplies its workpeople with potatoes at about  $1/7$  per cwt. which is from  $2\frac{1}{3}$  d. to 6d. less than they can be obtained elsewhere.

The Knappschaft's Hospital to which we were taken, capable of containing 260 patients, is extremely well fitted up. In 1904 there were 684 patients treated here for accidents and 1775 for other complaints. The Hospitals at Königshütte and Zabrze are larger; but this one is well situated and well managed. Every provision is made for the men in view of the dangers of their occupation.

When we descended the pit we were taken through a shaft 300 meters (984 feet) deep. At one of the galleries where the seam was 7 meters thick—i.e. about 23 feet, there were three cutters and two trammers; the former received  $5/1\frac{3}{4}$  and the latter  $3/5$  per day. Amongst the fillers was a Ruthenian: compared with the Germans he could not do half the work. This was a good specimen of a Ruthenian: as a rule they cannot work better. The mine is provided with the apparatus for saving life, the same kind that was taken by the Germans to Courrières.

From the wage lists of the Ferdinand Mine we were permitted to select at liberty specimens of the wages earned. The following were the daily wages earned by the better class of cutters after deducting the various subscriptions:—

Mks. 5.25 ( $5/1\frac{1}{2}$ ); Mks. 5.35 ( $5/2\frac{7}{8}$ ); Mks. 5.54 ( $5/5\frac{1}{8}$ ); Mks. 5.88 ( $5/9$ ); Mks. 6.06 ( $5/11\frac{1}{4}$ ); Mks. 7.30 (this is exceptional), ( $7/1\frac{3}{4}$ ). And the following sums represent a very good month for the trammers:— Mks. 4.04 ( $3/11\frac{1}{2}$ ); Mks. 4.55 ( $4/5\frac{1}{2}$ ); Mks. 4 ( $3/11$ ); Mks. 3.78 ( $3/8\frac{1}{4}$ ); Mks. 4.50 ( $4/4\frac{7}{8}$ ); Mks. 4.62 ( $4/6\frac{1}{4}$ ); Mks. 3.60 ( $3/6\frac{1}{4}$ ); Mks. 4.16 ( $4/1$ ).

In the case of one of the unmarried trammers we discovered after questioning him that during the month of April he had earned Mks. 107.82 net i.e., £5/5/8. His expenses were:—

£	s.	d.		Mks.	pf.
		$5\frac{7}{8}$	Sleeping accommodation in the Company's barracks per month.....		50
1	14	$3\frac{1}{2}$	Food .....	35	0
	4	$4\frac{1}{8}$	State Insurance stamps, 2nd class.....	4	50
<hr/>					
	1	19	2	40	0
3	6	6	Balance, therefore, at his disposal for clothing, pleasure, etc.....	67	50
<hr/>					
5	5	8		107	82

i.e. he has about £40 per annum, after defraying his main expenses, to clothe and amuse himself. Unfortunately, as above pointed out, the people—especially the younger ones—do not save here; they are not thrifty. They play cards a great deal and billiards also. On Sundays there is no regular work done in the mines, only necessary repairs, i.e., what is needed for the safety of the mine; it is paid for at a higher rate. Girls only work here at the top of the pit. Their work is hard. We conversed with four of them, strong girls, aged 22, 21, 22 and 24 respectively, whose wages were 1.60 per day ( $1/6\frac{3}{4}$ .) The day we paid our visit we noticed a number of prisoners at work above ground. These men are allowed by the State to work here and at Myslowitz when there is an extra demand for labour.

At Myslowitz just over 2,500 hands are employed and there are nearly 90 women amongst them who work, as at the Ferdinand Mine, at pushing the cars at the mouth of the pit and at sorting the various kinds of coal. Here we saw the best electric generating station to be seen in Upper Silesia: there are two turbine engines from the Allgemeine Elektrizitäts Gesellschaft of Berlin. Everywhere down here we have noticed that the mines and works are equipped with plant of modern type.

A good deal has been done at Myslowitz where everything is quite modern, for the general comfort of the workpeople. The wives of the men have an excellent laundry where they can come and wash their family linen free of charge, and a capital drying ground is attached to it. There is also a good steam drying room with mangles, and a pleasant garden hard by where the children can play. The Company has also erected quite a model Kindergarten for children between the ages of 3 and 6. The hours of instruction are from nine to noon and from two to four, and no charge whatever is made. We paid a very interesting visit to this school and found the children clean, tidy, healthy, well-dressed and happy. In the early morning they are supplied gratis with milk and bread. On the day of our visit 210 children of the workpeople attended the class. There are three classes, about 70-80 in each. The school was built last year and is fitted up with quite modern appliances, with good lavatories and closets. The class rooms are spacious and airy and are adorned with mural paintings suitable to the understanding of the children.

The dwellings for the workpeople are also noteworthy. The Company has 750 of its own, and 250 are rented for the people. The Company pay from 10 to 12 Mks. per month for these rented dwellings,  $9/9\frac{1}{2}$  to  $11/9$ , but lets them to the people for the same price that it takes for its own dwellings, viz: 6 Mks. per month ( $5/10\frac{1}{2}$ ). A fresh block of buildings is now being built every year, each block contains twelve dwellings costing about £1,800. The dwellings consist of two rooms and a kitchen. These flats are very

well appointed and each family has a small garden with a shed for a pig or a goat. Anywhere else in the immediate neighbourhood, i.e., in the town the rent would be about 15 Mks. (14/8), here only 6 Mks. per month (5/10½).

The Galician workmen are always provided with a separate lodging-house, as their ideas of cleanliness etc., are not the same as those of the Germans. They have to return for about six weeks to their own country for State reasons and during their absence their lodging-house has to be thoroughly cleansed. They are placed ten in a room and are only required to pay 6d. per month for their lodging. The cleanly appearance of the lodging house for unmarried Germans is a striking contrast to the begrimed condition of that of the Galicians! There are three men in a room, and the charge is the same (6d. per month). This charge together with 1/- per head paid by the company goes to the attendant. A library and reading room are provided for the use of the tenants, and the whole house is lighted by electricity.

The minimum wage of a cutter at this mine is 4/- and the maximum 5/10½ (6 Mks.) A filler receives from 3/- to 3/6; a labourer from 1/9 to 2/8; boys up to 16 years of age get 1/6; and women from 1/- to 1/6 per day.

We were allowed to descend the Myslowitz pit and were taken to see the whole process of filling up with sand (Sand-Versatz) the cavities made by the extraction of the coal. This interesting process of packing the cavities was minutely explained to us. The sand is conveyed to a cavity in the pit by means of water through pipes. The water flows off again and the sand remains in the cavity. The process of filling up the cavities with sand is also adopted in Western Australia, but not with the aid of water; belt conveyers are used there.

Rather an amusing reason is assigned by the women here for their discontent with the dwellings erected by the Company:—viz, that they ought not to pay any rent at all for them seeing that their husbands have already worked for the money they have in their pockets!

In the canteen at the disposal of the unmarried men in the barracks a dinner can be obtained on week-days consisting of soup, boiled beef, and a sauce and potatoes for 4¼d.; on Sundays soup, roast joint and stewed fruit are supplied for 5⅞d., just under 6d. There are from 80 to 100 men who use the canteen. Beer can be obtained at the usual price of just over 1d. per bottle; this is equivalent to about ¾d. per pint. Bread costs 1d. per English pound. A fire is lit in the morning at four o'clock so that the men can get their coffee comfortably before being at the mine at 5, in order to descend the pit at 6 o'clock. Every week fresh bed-linen

and a clean towel are supplied. The men make their own beds but their rooms are cleaned out for them.

The Stores belonging to the Company are only administered for the benefit of the miners. Purchasers receive a return of about 8 per cent. per annum on their purchases. Everything they buy is entered in a book.

At Königshütte, a real workmen's town, which has a population of 66,042 inhabitants, we visited the slaughter yard and were able to compare the Russian and the native (German) pigs when slaughtered. Those from Russia are exceedingly fat and the layer of fat on the back which the Upper Silesian workpeople are fond of under the name of "bacon" is from 5 to 6 inches thick. Only a limited number of Russian pigs may be imported per week. At Königshütte only 480; for Upper Silesia 1,350. Some twenty horses were killed per month at the time of our visit and the price of the horse-flesh per English lb was  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. Last autumn the number slaughtered was considerably more, from 80 to 100. The other prices for meat at the slaughter yard per English lb. were: Beef  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d. to  $7\frac{1}{2}$ d.; veal,  $7\frac{1}{3}$ d. to  $9\frac{1}{2}$ d.; pork,  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. to  $7\frac{7}{8}$ d.; mutton  $7\frac{1}{3}$ d.

The coal mine here belongs to the State. It seems as if the authorities, could they have their way, would like to take over the whole of the coal industry. As it is, the Prussian State owns two of the largest coal mines in Upper Silesia and is the proprietor of four in all. A band is kept at this State mine for the colliers, which plays at all their fêtes and funerals, and once a month a concert and dance are given for their entertainment and the men bring their wives and families at pleasure. There is a big miner's fête once a year, generally on the last Saturday in June. The Works contribute 3/- per man and as there are 6,000 men, the total expense amounts to about £900. People in England can form no idea of the interest taken by the miners in the annual fêtes; the men all appear in their quaint historic miner's uniform.

The Directors founded a school not very long ago for supplying some 30 girls, daughters of the colliers, with a practical training in house-keeping. The instruction is given by two mistresses twice a week. On one day one section of the girls goes to market and makes the necessary purchases and cooks a dinner, whilst the other section has instruction in arithmetic, household management, and sewing. The girls made such progress within the first two months after it was opened that, although the object had been to get them merely trained to go out as housemaids, they all became engaged to colliers belonging to the pit as soon as their training was over. Early marriages are the rule in these parts. The Kindergarten supplied for the children from 3 to 6 years of age under the charge of two mistresses is of a simple kind not to be compared with the ones at Myslowitz or Donnersmarckhütte. It costs the mine about



£150 per annum. About 130 children come here, mostly of Polish parents. They only speak Polish and so have to learn the names of everything in German.

Wages are paid at this pit twice a month, on the 15th, and on the last day of the month. The average wage earned by a cutter here is  $4/10$  per day (Mks. 4.92) for a nine hours shift : a good cutter can earn up to  $5/10\frac{1}{2}$  (Mks. 6). A trammer earns from  $2/11$  to  $3/5$  ; a labourer  $2/2$  to  $2/7\frac{3}{4}$ . The leading hand gets 5/- a month.

Women work in the building trade in these parts, being used for mixing mortar, and they are employed at the top of the pit to push the trucks and sort the coals. Permission to employ women is given for ten years at a time ; in the Iron Works in the town we saw some forty women pushing railway trucks.

The blocks of workmen's dwellings inhabited by the colliers of this mine are good. Each block contains twelve flats consisting of two rooms and kitchen, cellar and shed for domestic animals such as a goat or a pig or chickens ; but there is an absence of garden and of all attempts to introduce aesthetic attractions in the surroundings. Streets are not made and we were given to understand that the making of them is attended with difficulties on the part of the municipalities. The rent of the flats is from £9 to £10 and £10 15s. per annum. The houses look decidedly better than those for a similar type of men to be seen at Sheffield and West Bromwich.

We were struck by the somewhat lax way of working of the Polish workmen here, notably amongst the carpenters and bricklayers. For example, we saw two men sawing a light beam such as one Englishman would saw alone and in less time. The men were working in the street, road making. The bricklayers receive less wages here than they do in Berlin but they do not get through anything like as much work. We were given to understand that the bricklayers here would lay from 400 to 500 bricks per day whereas a Berliner would lay up to 900 : an English bricklayer would dispose of 1,500 in the same time.

The information about the price of bread at Königshütte which was kindly given us by one of the largest bakers whose customers are almost exclusively workmen's families was of some value. The bakers use two kinds of rye flour, one kind costs  $11/9\frac{1}{4}$  per cwt. the other  $7/10$ . The workpeople here eat the bread made from the latter sort. A loaf weighing 8 lbs. 400 grammes costs 1 Mk. ; one weighing 5lbs. 300 grammes costs 60 pfennige ; and little rolls of fancy white bread called " Hörnchen " are used for making up the weight. A loaf weighing 4 English lbs. of the former of these kinds would cost  $4\frac{2}{3}$ d. ; of the second kind  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. Three huge rolls of wheaten bread cost  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. ; and two large twists of the same bread sweetened cost  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. ; and four Hörnchen of the same bread  $1\frac{1}{8}$ d.

These wheaten rolls are eaten with coffee in the morning and afternoon.

The bakers belong to an "association" of tradespeople called the "Rabatt-Spar-Verein" (Discount and Savings Association—"Königshütte") that gives discount on all purchases. This discount is given in the form of little stamps according to the amount of the purchase and the stamps are exchanged for cash twice a year, between the 1st and 15th of June and the 1st and 15th of December (cf. p. 208—the Berlin Report). A purchaser receives one stamp for a cash payment of from 10 pf. to 19 pf. ( $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. to  $2\frac{1}{8}$ d.); two stamps for one from 20 pf. to 29 pf. ( $2\frac{1}{8}$ d. to  $3\frac{3}{8}$ d.); three stamps for one from 30 pf. to 39 pf. ( $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $4\frac{1}{8}$ d.); nine stamps for one from 90 pf. to 99 pf. ( $10\frac{3}{4}$ d. to  $11\frac{5}{8}$ d.) and 10 stamps for one of 1 Mk. ( $11\frac{3}{4}$ d.). All stamps are stuck into a small book that remains in the possession of the purchaser, and for 100 of these stamps a purchaser receives 5 Mks. ( $4/10\frac{3}{4}$ ). The "Association" comprises tradesmen of all kinds and serves the same purpose as Co-operative Stores.

At the Friedens Mine the cutters get from  $4/5$  to  $5/10\frac{1}{2}$  for piece work per day, the trammers  $2/11$  to  $4/1$ ; enginemen  $4/5$ . Good baths are supplied here. The men bring their own towels and soap. Formerly both of these were supplied gratis, but as the towels were so constantly stolen a change had to be made.

There is a good deal of water in these Upper Silesian mines. The machinery here raises  $1\frac{3}{4}$  cubic meters of water per minute out of the pit and could raise 6 cubic meters. At the Ferdinand-mine about 9 cubic meters are raised per minute; at Myslowitz 12.5 cubic meters. For some time they were obliged at Myslowitz to raise 28 cubic meters. In this regard the conditions are better in England than here: in Upper Silesia ten times as much water as coal is taken out of a coal mine.

The new houses built by the Company here for their workpeople are exceedingly good. They have a wide tract of land in front which is being converted into a large park for the use of the tenants; and the Company is spending considerable sums on adding to the tennis-ground, which is already in existence, a football field and a large ground for games—what they call a "Sport-Platz" (Playground). The mine was only taken over in 1899 and the company began to build new houses for their workpeople in the following year. The houses for the employees of the blast furnaces are separated from those of the colliers and from the playgrounds, and are exceedingly well-built. The rows of these new houses occupy a splendid site facing the embryo park. We inspected some of the flats which are well-ventilated, airy and comfortable; some of the people go in for strips of oil-cloth and carpet on the floors. Taking into account the care and attention that has been devoted

to the question of housing the workpeople we could not help remarking with surprise that the water for domestic purposes was uncomfortably far from the houses and has to be carried by the people in buckets or cans ; and that the sewage from the closets is collected into cess-pools close to the rows of houses. The cause of the latter inconvenience we understood was due to local conditions which prevent the sewage from being connected with the drainage of Beuthen, the town in the immediate neighbourhood. There is a very good Bath-house here where a daily average of 800 baths are taken—free of charge. The maintenance of the establishment is paid for by the Firm and costs about £13 per month. The Company maintains funds for providing assistance in case of distress to the employees of the mine and the blast-furnaces ; a hospital ; cool-rooms, where the people may keep their meat ; a Kindergarten ; and a sewing school for the elder girls of the families of the employees.

At the Friedens-Works everything is based on inventions of Bessemer, Thomas and Gilchrist. The Iron-works have existed for 40 years. But for Thomas and Gilchrist the Germans could not have produced large quantities of steel, as their ores contain too much phosphorus ; in other words this invention has laid the foundation for the German Steel production ; in Westphalia immense quantities of ore used to be rejected formerly as of no use, and as soon as the success of this invention was assured the owners fell back upon the old ore.

Wages are as follows :—the first furnace-men receive in all 5/- per day ; the second about 4/- the third about 3/- the chargers  $3/10\frac{1}{2}$  ; ore-fillers  $3/5$ . At the rolling mills we understood that the highest wage was  $6/4\frac{1}{2}$  per day—the man in question is an excellent workman ; the second hand receives  $4/5$ . At the hammer the wages are  $6/10\frac{1}{4}$  and  $4/11$  per day respectively ; at the sheet-rolling mills,  $6/4\frac{1}{2}$  and  $4/5$ . About 70 to 80 women are employed in the Works , they receive from  $1/2$  to  $1/5\frac{1}{2}$  per day according to the nature of their work. Boys receive  $1/6$  and  $1/9\frac{1}{4}$ . There are about 5,000 men employed here. We came across an Ober-Meister (head-foreman) who has been in the service of the company for 26 years.

Wages are not paid on Saturdays lest the men should waste too much of their money on drink, but on Fridays. On wage-days in order to prevent the money going to the public-houses, these places are closed by law at 4 p.m. The order has proved very useful, and the workmen, but especially their wives, are very satisfied with it—the latter receiving the money that would otherwise have been wasted on drink.

In summer the men at the furnaces are provided with lemonade free of charge ; but they pay a moderate price for any coffee or beer that they take from the canteen. Water with ice in it is also

supplied gratis. We learnt that the men in these works do not complain of the hours of work but that they sometimes ask for more wages. They do not seem to be at all influenced by Socialist agitators, and strikes do not occur here.

A Co-operative Stores establishment was founded here a year ago in order that the people could obtain their goods at cheap prices and not have to go a long distance to procure them. As far as we could observe the Stores are much frequented. On the evening of our visit they were crowded with purchasers. Of the employees, at the time of our visit, 267 were children of the workpeople. Meat is sold here from 6 to 8 a.m. and from 8 p.m. till the Stores are closed for the evening. We noted the following prices:—

Beef  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.,  $6\frac{3}{4}$ d., and  $7\frac{1}{8}$ d. per English pound.—Beef without bones  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d.; veal 8d.  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d.; pork  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d.; Russian fat bacon,  $6\frac{3}{4}$ d.; lard,  $3\frac{3}{4}$ d.; coffee,  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  shillings; soda water,  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per bottle; lemonade and raspberry-vinegar,  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. and  $\frac{7}{8}$ d.; sausage,  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.,  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d.,  $10\frac{1}{2}$ d., 1/-, and  $1\frac{1}{3}$  shillings per English pound according to sort; butter  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. Jams are greatly in demand amongst the workpeople: apricot jam, orange marmalade and quince marmalade varying from  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. to  $7\frac{1}{8}$ d. per English pound; a sort of plum jelly, 2d. Sugar 2d.; rice  $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. to 2d.; wheat flour  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d.; potatoes  $1\frac{1}{6}$  shillings per cwt. Fresh haddock  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb; cod  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 3d.; herrings, two for  $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. A 4lb (English measure) loaf of bread baked at the Stores, would cost  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. or 4d. according to quality.

Articles for the household, crockery, drugs, clothing, boots and shoes, hats, millinery, etc., etc., can be had here. Men's boots cost  $5\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $6\frac{1}{7}$ ,  $7\frac{1}{7}$  and  $8\frac{1}{7}$ ; women's boots 6/-, 8/-; children's  $11\frac{1}{2}$ d. to  $4\frac{1}{11}$ . The families of the furnace-men are allowed to receive goods on credit up to a certain sum. There is a canteen attached to the Stores for the workmen, which is opened at 5 a.m. Coffee with milk and sugar can be obtained for  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per pint; and a large roll and a half for 1d. At 8 a.m. breakfast with sandwiches is obtainable, and at noon a dinner is supplied for  $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. The canteen could supply 1,200 dinners; an average of 500 men dine here every day, and sometimes there are as many as 800. Separate portions of meat can be had as follows:—

Hashed Meat.....	}	4 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.
Rissoles with carrots and peas.....		
Salt beef and sauerkraut.....		
Roll or slice of bread and sausage.....		1d.
Coffee with milk and sugar— $1\frac{3}{4}$ pints.....		1d.
Milk— $1\frac{3}{4}$ pints .....		2 $\frac{1}{8}$ d.

At Zabrze at the "Donnersmarck Blast-furnaces and Coal Mines" (Donnersmarckhütte) we found institutions for the welfare of the workpeople that can fully compare with those in the western parts

of the Empire. In 1872 the property was converted by its proprietor, Count Guido Henckel von Donnersmarck, into a company (Oberschlesische Eisen und Kohlenwerke Aktien-Gesellschaft). Zabrze is a town numbering now about 88,000 inhabitants. During the last seven or eight years new streets have been constructed ; the drainage is better than it was and there is a plentiful supply of good water. There were in May of this year about 7,000 men employed at the various works (no women are now taken), and it may here be remarked in confirmation of what has already been said about the absence of thrift amongst the people that only about 100 of them use the Saving's Bank ! For example, in three years Mks. 30,000 (£1470), have been saved by the workpeople of the company, i.e., an average of Mks. 10,000 (£490), per annum. This sum was deposited by 80 depositors out of 7,000 workmen which would work out to £6/3/- per annum per head of the 80 depositors. Though good for the 80 depositors it is a sum that is quite trifling for a body of 7,000 workmen.

The amount disbursed by the Company in wages is roughly £318,630 (Mks. 6,500,000) ; the premises belonging to the Company at Zabrze cover 700 Morgens, i.e., 420 English acres.

Mr. E. O. Forster Brown in a paper read before the Mining Institute of Scotland on February 9th, 1905, stated that the power-plant at the Donnersmarckhütte was "capable of producing 1,060 kilowatts of continuous current at 230 volts, and 2,800 kilowatts of three-phase current at 1,000 volts, a total of 3,860 kilowatts. Two-thirds of this output is generated by gas-engines, supplied with gas from the blast furnaces, belonging to the colliery, and the remainder by horizontal tandem compound-condensing steam-engines. The current at 1,000 volts is transmitted to a distance of 3 miles. Electrical power is applied to pit pumps, sinking pumps, ventilators and hauling and winding gear. The centrifugal sinking pump is constructed and hung in the shaft in the manner before described ; it is at present pumping 400 gallons to a height of 460 feet (140 meters), and the motor is supplied with current at a pressure of 1,000 volts. The electric winding-engine, constructed on the Ilgner principle, is of 125 horsepower."

The coal discovered here about the end of the 18th century was considered suitable for coking, and iron ore was found in the immediate neighbourhood. The first coke furnaces commenced work in 1852. The company has now coal mines and coke furnaces and engine works here. The annual capacity of the Company's works is as follows ;—1,500,000 tons of coal ; 190,000 tons cokes ; 8,500 tons coal tar ; 3,000 tons sulphur, ammoniak and benzol ; 120,000 tons puddle and pig iron, and ferromangan ; 12,000 tons steam engines, boilers, pumps, etc., 12,500 tons retorts ; 4,000,000 slag bricks ; 1,000,000 ordinary bricks.

The mine was first worked in 1797, but as the abundance of water caused a good deal of inconvenience it was abandoned until the present Prince Guido Henckel von Donnersmarck took it over. Subsequently, in 1872, a Company was formed which took over other mines as well. This is the only mine in Upper Silesia where there has been fire-damp, but no accident has taken place.

The Company contributed in 1905 to the Sick and Accidents Funds prescribed by law ; and for medical treatment and medicine to the families of the employees sums amounting to £3,900 ; as well as £9,900 to the State Accidents Fund. The voluntary contributions of the Company to institutions for the welfare of their workpeople are of a wide-reaching nature. The Fund for workpeople who have become unfit for work, and their widows and orphans applies only to the employees of the Blast-furnaces because the miners are insured under another Fund. The pensions now being paid amount to £1,350 ; they are divided amongst 105 workpeople unfit to work, 150 widows, and 104 orphans. The amount invested in this Fund amounts now to £19,887. There is a special Fund for supporting the institutions for the welfare of the workpeople that was inaugurated in 1899. It is formed by paying over annually 5 per cent. of what remains of the profits of the Company after calculating a dividend of 4 per cent. for the shareholders. The sums paid over have been as follows:—

1899.....	£3,039
1900.....	£3,318
1901.....	£2,777
1902.....	£2,772
1903.....	£2,773
1904.....	£2,757
	<hr/>
Total...	£17,436
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Amongst the beneficent Funds of this Company is one which is specially noteworthy. It is intended to afford relief in case of temporary non-employment, and is a sort of Insurance Fund against non-employment caused by unexpected slackness of work through no fault either of the Firm or of the men but due to the temporary state of the market. The men are not dismissed as was formerly the case, but are "suspended" and receive a so-called "Wartegeld." For example, a man in such a condition leaves his work but receives during suspension 80 per cent. of his wages. The men take it in turn to go off work. In former times in large English works the men used to be "suspended" at times of slackened work ; but to receive any compensation whatever at such times was never heard or dreamt of, nor did the men expect such consideration.

As regards the food of the workpeople in these parts it is noteworthy that whereas the quality now appears good and vastly more nutritious, as already pointed out, than formerly, there is a want of knowledge of cookery amongst the women. We pointed out that at Königshütte the girls who had learned housekeeping in the school attached to the mine were snapped up as wives in a trice by the colliers. Here, too, at Zabrze the Donnersmarckhütte Company have erected a School for giving instruction in housekeeping which is a model of its kind. The School-house is flanked by a garden where also chickens and goats are kept. The girls instructed here are looked upon as "the future wives of the workpeople." The girls—42 strapping lasses—arrived well-dressed and well shod; and they wore coloured aprons over their skirts. Three-fourths of them were children of the workpeople the others came from the town. On the day of our visit a dinner had to be cooked. Six stoves of the size such as they would have at home stand in the room and in an adjoining room six dinner tables. Seven girls were told off to each stove and each lot had a separate table. The mistress guided the making of the dinner asking questions as to what ingredients had to be taken and their weight. First the fire was lit in due form and every action followed as a result of a question and an answer. When the dinner was ready the tables were orderly laid with a linen cloth and the girls sat down. We were invited to sit down to partake of the meal—soup and boiled meat and vegetables—which was exceedingly good. There is a laundry down stairs to which are attached mangling and ironing rooms. Upstairs—a creation of the Director of the Company, Herr Hochgesand—are rooms arranged like model workmen's dwellings of a kitchen and one room, where a certain number of the girls live for a period of six weeks. Four girls live together, two of whom are responsible for the kitchen and two for the other room. During the course of six weeks instruction they are supposed to acquire the knowledge required for keeping house in a workman's home. Everything was being conducted with perfect order and cleanliness and the girls appeared to take great interest in their work. They have a regular housekeeper's book given them in which all expenses are entered. When a girl marries she receives from the school a list of all the linen and various utensils necessary for the household with prices attached and a plan of how to divide the work of the week. In the office samples of grain and groceries etc., are kept of good and bad quality in order that the pupils may learn to distinguish between the two.

The price of bread here is 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. for a loaf weighing 7 $\frac{1}{2}$  German pounds i.e., 5d. for a loaf weighing 4 English pounds.

In the Continuation School there is a department for sewing where the girls are taught to cut out garments. The methods are explained in class and the pupils take the pieces home to work them

up. For the boys there is a school where they are taught wood-carving and carpentry under the supervision of a master from the National School. Three-fourths of the children are the children of workpeople at the Works. The laundry provided by the Firm is gratis.

In order to encourage an interest in gardening amongst the workpeople a class is given where full practical instruction is given about pruning, and the growth of flowers and vegetables. For this purpose, too, a garden is kept and some 25 to 30 boys are amongst the pupils. A most excellent swimming-bath, surpassing in appointment many of the best municipal swimming-baths has been erected, where the workpeople may bathe gratis. There are also shower baths which are now much used, especially by the miners. Boys come in classes from the municipal schools. In April there were 721 of them most of whom can swim. The total number of persons who used the swimming bath in April was 3,136, in winter the numbers are less. The water of the swimming bath is continually flowing. It comes from one of the Company's mines from the same spring which supplies the whole works with very excellent drinking water.

The Company's Continuation School for the boys is an excellent institution. There are 10 masters, some of whom are officials of the Firm; the others come from the National Schools, and 240 boys whose ages range between 15 and 18. They are taught drawing, German, geometry, etc. The instruction takes place from 5 to 7 p.m., and the boys attending the school may leave work an hour earlier. The maintenance of the school costs the Firm about £245.

In the library, which is kept for the workpeople, there are 10,000 books, including a number of English and French ones; amongst the English books the works of Dickens are specially prominent. The so-called "Siechenhaus" or "House for the Aged" is fitted up with every reasonable comfort for the aged widows and infirm men. In the dining-room the furniture, including armchairs, is of wood, stained green, and the table is provided with a cloth. There is room for 44 inmates in the house; when we were there, there were 33 of these pensioners. The only complaint the old people had to make was that they were bathed; they called this regulation a hardship because many of them have never had a bath before in their life!

The Company go so far as to maintain a theatre for the diversion of their employees. The company came over from Beuthen for six performances during the winter, once a fortnight. The workpeople only pay a small sum for their tickets, and once a month the company comes to play a classical piece for the sole benefit of the workpeople. Tickets of admission are given to them gratis. The Director-General selects the play, amongst those that have been



given may be mentioned : Othello ; The Merchant of Venice ; The Bride of Messina ; and modern plays, such as Dr. Claus, My Leopold. The audience in each case was enthusiastic, and gave full vent to their feelings of grief or pleasure. The attention with which they follow the plays is a proof of the hunger for education that prevails amongst them.

The wages in the mine here are : For cutters  $4/5$  to  $5/-$  ; trammers  $3/-$  to  $3/6$  ; labourers,  $3/6$ . Skilled men receive a minimum of about  $5/-$  per day and can earn up to  $9/9\frac{1}{2}$  (10 Mks.) Apprentices receive  $4\frac{3}{4}d.$ ,  $9\frac{1}{2}d.$ , and  $1/4$  respectively per day during their three years apprenticeship and  $2\frac{1}{2}d.$  per week is placed in the Savings Bank for them and the total sum deposited is handed to them when they leave after the termination of their apprenticeship. In order to protect the apprentices from the temptations of the public house on Sundays, arrangements have been made that they should have a master from one of the schools to play with them. Cricket has not yet been introduced, but football and other games are in vogue. In winter they play chess, dominos, halma etc. Last year some 200 of the children of the workpeople who seemed to need a change of air were sent to the mountains at the expense of the Company for a six weeks' holiday. This year they remained at home and met early in the morning, took a bath and then played games in the park. Dinner was served for them all in the Club House and in the afternoon they were taken for an excursion in the neighbourhood. After supper they were sent home. Each child receives in the course of the day a good supply of unskimmed milk.

There is a Choral Society consisting of over 100 members and the band is the best in Upper Silesia.

Our visit to Borsig's Works was very interesting. Messrs Borsig's principal clients have always been and are still the Prussian State Railways. Up to 1903 they had constructed 5,244 locomotives, the latest figure for 1906 is 6100. Up to 1903 Germany had received 3,938 ; Austria Hungary 35 ; Holland 179 ; Norway and Sweden 48 ; Denmark 82 ; Belgium 8 ; France 12 ; Italy 76 ; Spain 22 ; Russia 782 ; India 32 ; Portugal 6 ; Cochin China 4 ; China 12 ; Roumania 1 ; Mauritius 1.\*

The average wages at these Works in Upper Silesia for mechanics, fitters, turners, smiths, moulders, men at the rolling mills and furnaces are for skilled men  $7/10$  to  $8/4$ , for the older unskilled men  $3/-$  to  $3/6$  and the younger ones  $2/6$  per day ; the ordinary labourer earns from  $2/3$  to  $3/-$  per day. About 4,000 men are employed at the Works and 2,000 in the coal mine. In the coal mine a cutter earns from  $3/9$  to  $5/10$  per day, the younger men  $2/6$  to  $2/8$ , and they receive coal gratis, varying in amount from 3,000 to 7,000 kilograms, i.e. 60 cwt. to 140 cwt. At the rolling Mills founded in 1867 we saw a fine set of men earning from  $6/-$  to  $7/-$

\* For the number of locomotives built at Borsig's Works, cf. p. 196.

per day ; at the Forging Shop where they make two shafts in one piece cutting them in two with a hydraulic press—a splendid sight—we were much interested. The best leading hand in this shop earns up to 8/- at piecework, the others from 6/- to 7/-. The foreman at the forge receives £11 7s. 6d. per month, a dwelling and coals ; and there are several men here who get as much.

There are in all eight Siemens-Martin furnaces here for making basic steel at 25 tons charge. A 20 ton shaft was cast the morning of the day of our visit, and the Works were then fully occupied with orders for 5 to 6 months to come.

We were not favourably impressed by the accommodation provided for the unmarried men in the Young Men's barracks ; nor did it appear to us that the men in the barracks for the Germans were contented with their lot, and the men showed this very distinctly by their demeanour. The men cook for themselves. The sleeping quarters assigned to the Galicians and Ruthenians were even less inviting. On the other hand the rows of workmen's dwellings built of red bricks for the families of the employees are very attractive to look at and have been laid out with care. Each garden attached to the tenements contains one or two fruit trees. In the older houses the water supply is outside ; in the new ones each dwelling is provided with water and a sink. There is plenty of air between the rows of houses and long rows of trees that afford agreeable shade.

The rent paid by the workpeople for their tenements is ;—For one room and a kitchen,  $\frac{4}{5}$  per month, i.e., 53/- per year ; for two rooms and a kitchen,  $\frac{7}{4}$  per month, i.e., 88/- per year. In order to show what a great difference there is between Berlin rents and those in Upper Silesia for the working classes, it may be mentioned that the rent for a living room and a kitchen at Messrs Borsig's colony of workmen's houses at Borsigwalde, near Berlin, close to their Berlin works, is  $\frac{17}{6}$  per month, just four times as much as their people pay in Upper Silesia ; and that for two rooms and a kitchen the rent amounts to 27/-. There is a very excellent bathing establishment near the Works with shower baths, but we were assured that it was not much used, the people not caring much for bathing.

The "Preussen" mine, belonging to Count von Tiele-Winckler, may be taken as a specimen of the modern mines in this district. Electricity is used here for most power purposes, with the exception of winding. The generating station is very large and fully up to date ; everything is in splendid order. The wall is lined with the same tiles as those with which the floor is paved. There are three large two-phase dynamos of 456 kilowatts at 3,000 volts, and another three-phase dynamo of 450 kilowatts at 500 volts ; also a steam turbine power engine in reserve—system Brown, Boveri, Parsons.

Mr. E. O. Forster Brown, who visited this mine also in 1905, writes as follows:—

“The pumps in use for sinking and pumping from the lodge-room consist of the following: One centrifugal sinking pump hung in the shaft, and pumping 330 gallons a minute to a height of 279 feet (85 metres). The pump, in two steps, revolves at 1,450 revolutions a minute and is driven by a motor with current at 500 volts. No. 1 lodge-room contains two high-pressure centrifugal pumps, each horizontal, in two parts with two steps in each part, and a motor between the parts. Each pump can pump 1,100 gallons per minute to a height of 689 feet (210 metres). The motors run at 1,420 revolutions a minute with current at 3,000 volts. The No. 2 lodge-room contains a plunger-pump, driven direct by the motor without gearing, and pumping 345 gallons a minute to a height of 525 feet (160 metres). The motor runs at 200 revolutions a minute with current at 500 volts.”

The bathing arrangements here are excellent. The divisions between the cabins and shower baths are constructed of wire-glass. Baths, including soap and towels, are gratis. The men bathe in groups—the married and grown-up ones—six under each douche; the younger men in another part.

Here we saw very excellent dwellings for the workpeople. The houses are built in rows. For the most part the dwellings consist of one room and a kitchen. There are two flats in each storey—rent 8/10 per month—the wages of the tenants varying from 3/1½ to 3/5. Each dwelling has attic, cellar, and shed outside attached to it. The young men's barracks here are well appointed—the men pay roughly 6d. per week and this includes linen and light. Bed-linen is changed once a month; towels once a week. There is good ventilation and there are 22 beds in a room, one above the other—hot and cold water is supplied for washing. We noticed that the men were interested in Gulliver's travels in the German version—several pictures hung up in the room; and we got into conversation with a number of the young trammers to find out what they did with their wages. Roughly speaking their wages were about 2/11½ per day. Taking a month to be four weeks they would receive:—

	Mks.	£	s.	d.
For 24 days at 3 Mks. per day .....	72	=	3	10 7
Deductions for insurance .....	2·80			
Oil for lamp .....	2·00			
Rent in barracks .....	2·00			
Dinner, breakfast, and supper, 28 days at 1 Mk. ....	28·00	34·80	=	1 14 1
Balance.....	37·20		1	16 6
Beer per month, say 20 pfennige per day	5·60		5	6
	31·60		1	11 0

To my question whether any of this balance of say £20 3s. per annum was taken to the savings bank or sent home to the parents the replies were in the negative. The men declared they had to spend a good deal on boots, but it was admitted on all sides that nearly all of the money went on spirits, tobacco and personal amusements. The items for clothes and boots were described as high. "What Schnaps do you prefer? we asked. "Spirits" was the reply and we were given to understand that this was "potato spirits" which they mix with raspberry vinegar and sugar. Of this they consume a good deal in the course of the day, in preference to beer or any other drink. Bread costs them at the rate 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. for 4 English pounds. The men generally consume about 7 $\frac{3}{8}$  English pounds of bread in two days. They waste it, throwing it about and leaving a lot on the table at meals. A number of the men dine here on Sundays. Unfortunately too much bad spirit is consumed here, so that the appetites of the men are not so good as they otherwise would be.

The cutters here earn on an average about 3/3 per day—a good cutter—up to 5/-; a trammer earns 2/11 $\frac{1}{2}$ ; an engine driver about 6/-.

The "Schlesische Aktien Gesellschaft für Bergbau und Zinkhüttenbetrieb" (Silesian Mines and Zinc Works Co.) was founded in 1853 in accordance with a Royal Charter for obtaining spelter, copper, silver, lead ores, coals for the production of zinc, lead, copper and silver; and to trade in these metals and ores. The Company which now has a capital of Mks. 23,529,000 equal to £1,153,382 determined in the fifties of last century to centralise its zinc smelting at Lipine; and in 1872 and 1873, it purchased coal mines in this neighbourhood.

The total number of the employees in 1905 including the officials, was 9949. The conditions of labour are satisfactory—since the Company was founded it has succeeded in obtaining a good type of men. There are some 600 officials and workmen who have been in the service of the Company for 25 years continuously.

The average wages in the Zinc Smelting Works (after subtracting the Insurance subscriptions) were:—

	1905.	1906.
		Jan.—March.
Foremen and leading hands .....	5/5	6/6
Bricklayers, Carpenters, Engine-drivers...	3/-	3/1 $\frac{5}{8}$
Furnacemen .....	3/4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —3/9	3/4—3/10 $\frac{1}{4}$
Slotters.....	3/4 $\frac{1}{4}$	3/5
Smiths and Fitters.....	2/11	3/3
Labourers .....	2/2—2/3	2/2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Carters.....	3/4	3/3
Gate-keepers and Night-watchmen (men no longer capable of work) .....	1/6 $\frac{7}{8}$	1/7 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lads.....	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.
Women and Girls .....	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.—1/3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1/3
Young Girls.....	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

It will be noted that compared with England most of these figures were low, indeed some very low, in 1905; in some cases there was a rise in the early part of this year; but they were fully up to the standard of the district, and it was stated that the Company always aims at giving a regular wage without sudden fluctuations. The money wage is lower than in the same industry in England. On the other hand it will be seen that the workpeople pay a much lower rent than in England and enjoy certain privileges which have been so far unknown amongst us at home.

In the Roasting Works the average wages were:—

	1905.	1906.
		Jan.—March.
Foremen and leading hands.....	6/-	5/10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Solderers.....	4/-	4/3
Fitters, Carpenters, Smiths.....	3/4 $\frac{1}{4}$	3/10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Stokers, Engine-drivers .....	2/10	2/9 $\frac{3}{4}$
Other skilled men, Roasters, etc. ....	3/7 $\frac{1}{2}$ —3/9	3/9 $\frac{1}{4}$ —3/10 $\frac{3}{4}$
Labourers .....	2/1 $\frac{1}{2}$ —3/8	2/-—3/5 $\frac{1}{4}$
Lads .....	1/1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1/1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Women .....	1/2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1/3
Girls .....	1/2	1/2 $\frac{1}{4}$

Wages are paid to the colliers on the 2nd and 15th of the month; the employees in the Smelting Works receive payments on account on Saturdays and the balance of their wages is handed to them at the end of the month.

The men are all insured by law against sickness, accidents, premature infirmity and old age. The miners are insured in the "Knappschaftsverein," an institution connected with the miners' calling, that is of old date; the others under State and other insurance schemes. Near Lipine there is a special hospital built on modern lines under a special doctor; its nurses are Roman Catholic sisters. In 1885 a special fund was inaugurated by the Company for giving pensions and support to the employees of the Company, their wives, and children, and their widows and orphans. At the end of 1905 this fund amounted to £37,224.

Special attention has been paid to the improvement of the dwellings of the workpeople. All the old houses, which were unsuitable for family life, have been gradually removed, and several rows of new houses, equipped on modern lines, have taken their place. These dwellings consist of either a kitchen and two rooms, or of a kitchen and one room; there are about three-fourths of the former and one-fourth of the latter. Each dwelling is provided with a separate cellar and a separate attic, and a shed for wood and coal. The streets and the entrances to the houses are lighted by electricity; good water is supplied by the local authorities; and the drainage is in a satisfactory condition. The Company owns at present about

1,500 workmen's dwellings and others are being built. The cost was about £2,200 for twelve flats. We visited some of these dwellings. The first consisted of one room and a kitchen and was inhabited by a man and his wife and three children; the man is an engine-driver earning about £6 per month, a wage which is about the same as that earned by a man of his class in England. The rent of this dwelling is 8/9 per month, i.e., about £5 5s. per annum. The wife told us that she paid 8½d. per English lb. for beef, and at the rate of 5d. for a loaf of bread of 4 English lbs. The deal floors in this as in all workmen's dwellings in this part of Upper Silesia are not painted; and they are seldom carpeted. (In the West of Germany all floors in every kind of house without distinction are painted light brown oil-colour). The second flat was inhabited by a smelter and his wife and seven children. It consists of two rooms and a kitchen. The rent is 10/9½ per month, i.e., roughly £6 9s. 6d. per annum. The man earns about £5 10s. per month, which sum for a country district is about the same as that earned in England. One of the children is employed in the Works at 12/- per week and one of the daughters is in domestic service at the schoolmaster's. The total wages earned by the family at the time of our visit amounted to about £100 10s. or roughly 38/8 per week; and they receive from the Company from 5 to 6 tons of coal gratis per annum. Their dinner, which was shown to us, consisted of soup, meat and sauce with sauerkraut and potatoes. The furniture of the rooms was rather meagre; but there is a stove in each room. The third dwelling visited consisted of a kitchen and one room. It was inhabited by a leading-hand employed at the rolling-mills who earned about 4/1 per day, i.e., about £63 14s. per annum; a wage which is rather low compared with England. The rent is 7/10 per month; i.e., £4 14s. per annum. The husband does not drink beer or spirits and his wife is exceedingly tidy. We noticed that they attach importance to the appearance and comforts of their rooms. Flower pots were placed in the windows; nice pictures hung on the walls; and the furniture was good. The wife had a sewing-machine standing in one room. There were no children here. The dinner consisted on the day of our visit of veal and potatoes. We went into a fourth dwelling, that of a collier (a cutter). It consisted of three good-sized rooms and there were bits of carpet on the floors which contributed to make them look comfortable. There were also flowers in the room and some birds are kept. The man is in receipt of high wages for he pays about 4/6 per month to the Miners' "Knappschaftsverein." There were eight children in this family; the eldest daughter, aged 22, is engaged in dressmaking, and the eldest son, aged 16, is employed in the Mine and works with his father; three children were still at school and three were at home. All the children were tidily dressed. The furniture of the rooms was good. The above dwellings are typical specimens of how the Company's workpeople are housed. The dwellings planned for the

future are on the same lines. There are also dwellings to be had of one room, let at 3/- per month. As a general rule the rent of a workman's dwelling here costs roughly at the rate of 3/- to 3/6 per room per month.

In due course the streets will be properly laid out and trees will be planted; at present the rows of houses stand almost in the fields, as it were. Everything is in the stage of development; and owing to the extension of the mines a large part of the country is not available for building purposes.

At the Stores which exist in Lipine for the benefit of the workpeople the fee for membership is 5/-. All profits are divided amongst the purchasers in proportion to their purchases. Last year a profit of 8 per cent. was made.

In the Bath House all the arrangements are good. Each bather has a separate cabin for undressing close to the shower-bath, the floor under the douche is sunk a little below the level of the main floor. The employees bathe free of charge: soap is supplied, but they bring their own towels. There are separate bathing places for the women. In former times it was common to hear amongst the people, "I have never had a bath." The day before our visit 160 women bathed here. The electric arrangements for lighting purposes are well organised. The sanitary arrangements throughout the Works as regards water-closets and urinals are also good.

We were much struck by what we were told about the library which contains 2,000 volumes, for it was evident from what we heard that the people here are keen on acquiring knowledge. In 1905 about 150 book books per day were taken out. There is a good assortment of books and illustrated periodicals for the children as well as novels and books of a higher grade. The people here are very fond of illustrated periodicals which are filed and bound, and the children like books about natural history with pictures. For the benefit of the skilled workmen—the fitters, etc.,—books on Physics, and Chemistry and other branches of Science are kept. A book may be retained for three weeks and on return the time may be prolonged for another three weeks. The Library is open on Mondays, Wednesdays and Saturdays from 4 to 8.

In the Laundry provided by the Company the linen of all the workpeople can be washed. Everything is supplied gratis, except soap. After being washed the linen is run up in a lift to the mangling room where there are steam drying arrangements. There is plenty of room in the laundry which is well ventilated.

The charge in the Young Men's barracks is 2/- per month.

We obtained a glance into the conditions of labour in the zinc industry at Lipine through the kindness of Herr Bergrat Remy, and at Rosdzin, which belongs to the heirs of Georg von Giesche, through Herr Saeger, the Director-General of the Company. The zinc industry is of great importance for Upper Silesia, which province produced in 1903 over twenty per cent. of the zinc produce of the whole world (cf. Voltz, above cited). Upper Silesia exports nearly one third of its zinc to Great Britain and Russia, the largest amount to Great Britain.

In the 16th century spelter was obtained in the neighbourhood of Beuthen and exported via the Oder and the Vistula for use in the manufacture of brass. But this industry suffered in part through the 30 Years' War (1618—1648) and in part through the persecutions the Lutheran miners were exposed to on the part of the Hapsburgs. At the beginning of the 18th. century Georg von Giesche, a merchant of Breslau, discovered spelter again near Tarnowitz and Beuthen and obtained an exclusive concession for the mining of it for the whole of Silesia in 1704 from Kaiser Leopold for 20 years. This exclusive concession was renewed four times for his heirs, each time for 20 years until 1802, when the latter obtained the rights only for those mines which they specified. The Works are still carried on under the name of Georg von Giesche's heirs (Georg von Giesche's Erben).

In former times the ore was roasted with wood fuel, afterwards coal was substituted with furnaces of the nature of baking ovens. As above stated a certain Ruhberg discovered in England at the beginning of last century the secret of how to produce zinc and thus founded the Upper Silesian Zinc industry. In the second decade of last century Upper Silesian zinc successfully competed with Chinese zinc in India. By 1825 a check had to be placed on the production of zinc in Upper Silesia on account of the over-production that had taken place.

Up to 1840 the people of the country where this industry prevails lived from the produce of their sterile fields, the few cattle that they possessed grazing in the forest. A frugality unknown in the rest of Germany prevailed here. The people existed on potatoes, a little milk and cabbage and seemed to thrive thereon; but whenever there was a bad potato harvest famine ensued. Although the food was insufficient, so that they could not do much work, the men were by no means degenerated in appearance and the women were well-built. The face of the country has completely changed from what it was 70 years ago. The land has been better cultivated—that part of it that has not been monopolized by industry—and the forests have disappeared so that the production from the soil has greatly increased. Now the workpeople of the Mines and Smelting works consume a fair amount of meat, lard and butter—luxuries



formerly unknown in the houses of workmen here. Instead of potatoes being the chief article of food, bread has taken their place and the people have bread, meat, bacon and butter and drink coffee and milk. Some idea of the changes in the condition of the zinc workers in Silesia may be obtained from the following particulars:— in 1833, furnace-men earned 1 Mk. ( $11\frac{3}{4}$ d.) per shift—in 1883, Mks. 3.20 ( $3\frac{1}{2}$ ); in 1833, stokers earned 75 pfennige ( $8\frac{7}{8}$ d.) per shift—in 1883, Mks. 2.25 to Mks. 2.50 ( $2\frac{2}{3}$  to  $2\frac{5}{8}$ ); in 1833, lads earned 50 pfennige ( $5\frac{7}{8}$ d.) per shift—in 1883, Mks. 1 to Mks. 1.50 ( $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. to  $1\frac{5}{8}$ ). In 1863, the wages for a hundredweight of zinc amounted to Mks. 60 (£2 18s. 9d.); in 1883 to about Mks. 180 (£8 16s. 6d.)

Technically speaking the Upper Silesian Zinc industry made no special progress from 1809 to 1834. From then on the industry developed and from 1875 the production of zinc steadily increased. In 1833 Georg von Giesche's heirs purchased mines at the village of Schoppinitz which together with the villages of Rosdzin and Klein Dombrowka was situated in a spot completely cut off from the rest of the world between the Russian frontier and the Myslowitz and Pless forests that then existed. There was but a scanty population and the soil around was very barren. These three villages were small forest colonies containing in 1828 in all 825 inhabitants. The whole district of Kattowitz had a population then of only 10,231 inhabitants—(now 183,847); by 1840 the village population had increased to 1846, and by 1883 the number had mounted up to over 15,000—the increase being solely due to the development of the coal mines and smelting works there and in the immediate neighbourhood.

The Company pays large sums in taxes to the neighbouring municipalities—these villages having developed into small towns. It pays 85 per cent of the total communal dues and yet only has four out of twenty representatives in the council. In one case it pays £20,000 as local rates.

Speaking generally of the conditions of the life of the workpeople in the zinc industry of Upper Silesia as they were in 1883 and as they are now, it may be said that the chief necessities of life have risen in price between 45 and 80 per cent. since that time; on the other hand wages have risen from 150 to 200 per cent. The clothing of the people is now not only better but cheaper; and the dwellings are incomparably superior. In former times many of the workpeople lived in the arches under the furnaces of the smelting works, and owing to the warmth of these habitations they were at first with difficulty induced to move into more suitable dwellings. We saw these dwellings as they existed formerly at the Georg von Giesche Works. From 1885 to 1873, during which period wages began to rise enormously, the workpeople were for the most part in the

hands of Jewish tradespeople who exploited them, selling their goods for at least 30 per cent. above their real value. At the end of the seventies Stores were introduced into this district which were financially supported by the Works.

The Georg von Giesche's Works have been at the head of the Zinc and Smelting Works industry for over 25 years. They employ 12,000 persons for the ore and coal mines and 3,000 for the Smelting Works; and they work with their own ores. No direct dismissal of workmen takes place here: what changes arise are due to the levity or to the nomad character of the people.

There is a pension fund amounting now to about £100,000 for the workpeople of the Smelting works which is mainly administered by the workpeople themselves. The workpeople pay  $2/4\frac{1}{4}$  per month, the Company  $2/11\frac{1}{4}$ —total  $5/3\frac{1}{2}$  per man. They receive the pension over and above that which they are entitled to under the Imperial Insurance Act. The minimum pension after five years service is 9/-. Supposing a man takes his pension at the age of 50 he will receive (taking the average) 35 Mks. =  $34/3$  per month. As a rule a man in Upper Silesia does not work in the Smelting Works after 50. Besides this sum he receives a State allowance which varies according to the weekly subscriptions he has paid. Thus a furnace-man in the smelting works can reckon on receiving a total pension of from 700 to 800 Mks. i.e. £34 6s. to £39 4s. at the age of 50; and the cutters in the mines can count on approximately the same.

In general the workpeople remain long in the service of the Company, many up to 50 years and more. After 25 years service they receive a present of £7 10s.—formerly a watch was given instead of money. We spoke about the charge frequently repeated that it was the habit of this as well as of other big Companies to dismiss their men shortly before they attained the age when a pension was due. The reply was—"This is a wicked lie; moreover, when we pay the pensions we do not even enquire into the character of the recipients, some of whom are the very reverse of exemplary men." There is also a fund for the support of the widows of employees, and another for rendering assistance to employees in cases of exceptional or unexpected need. The two Funds amount now to about £50,000.

From fifty to sixty per cent. of the workpeople live in houses belonging to the Company. The rents paid for a dwelling of one room and a kitchen are  $4/11$  to  $5/10$  per month; for a dwelling of two rooms and a kitchen  $6/10$  to  $7/10$ . For similar dwellings in the neighbourhood they would have to pay  $11/9$  and  $15/8$  respectively per month. There is in consequence some friction with the house speculators in the neighbourhood; e.g. the day before our visit a complaint was lodged to the effect that 150

dwellings in the neighbourhood were empty and that the Company should build no more. In the older houses water is laid on outside the house ; in the newer ones on the staircase. The water is of a very good quality. The closets are outside—the excrements which run into cesspools are removed in iron tubs to be used as manure on the fields. Each family has a shed in the garden for chickens, pigs or goats ; and there is a loft above for hay ; and each dwelling has a cellar and an attic. There is a laundry to every house where the women can wash their linen free of charge, but they must use their own soap. Baths are provided for all the workpeople. We noticed that the Rules of the Company are printed in Polish as well as German. It should be added that the Company does not look upon the erection of good dwellings as a special favour conferred on the employees but as an advantage enjoyed by employer and employee alike. The employees prefer to live in the Company's house ; the demand for these always exceeds the supply.

The working hours for women employed in the Works are from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. with  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 2 hours pauses, for breakfast, dinner, and coffee. On Saturdays and eves of religious and civil holidays work ends at 5 p.m. in the afternoon. Only unmarried women are employed—girls, from about 18 to 22 at which age they generally marry ; and in some special cases widows. Younger girls are allowed the usual pauses from work required by law—they are only employed in the open air transporting ores, or are given other work suitable to their strength. The nature of their work permits of several pauses being made during the day when they can rest themselves ; when the weather is bad those who work out of doors have shelters. The wages are  $1/2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $1/4\frac{1}{2}$  per day. In all departments there are special rooms for washing and resting for the women, and a special bathing place in the Bath house. No female operative has suffered from lead poisoning. No women are employed at the roasting and Zinc furnaces where there is a risk of illness from heat or metallic poisoning. The women are mainly occupied in the transport of the zinc ores and in the grinding mills which are fitted up with special exhaustors. A number of young women are employed with the bricklayers for erecting the furnaces, otherwise they have nothing to do with the furnaces : this work of transport involves no risk of special diseases. Forty-three per cent. of the female operatives are employed in making the retorts or firebricks in connection wherewith ores and metals are not used. They have merely to transport materials used in the making of the retorts and fire-bricks. Of course, this work is hard. The wages are calculated, after deduction of all the insurance subscriptions imposed by law, at from  $1/2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $1/4\frac{1}{2}$  per day. It is a mistake to suppose that the girls are unwilling to work here : they seek employment of their own accord in the Works. They are the daughters of the workmen ; they do not like to go into service, and

are keen on enjoying their freedom. They dress well on Sundays and can hardly be called thrifty : they are fond of luxuries.

Considering the special danger to which workpeople are exposed in this branch of industry, the general health of the people here is good on the whole. The families are for the most part very numerous and the children are often not well looked after, but on the whole their health is good. Georg von Griesche's chemical industry is developing very considerably and a great amount of sulphuric acid is now made in Upper Silesia. This industry was founded by this Firm in Upper Silesia and they are about to quadruple it. Prophylactic protection against the dangers the workpeople are exposed to in this industry is provided. All kinds of precautions are taken to get rid of noxious gases ; it may be noted that the present Direktor-General Herr Saeger has written on the subject. The operatives employed at Zinc Smelting Works are insured in a special accidents insurance class. As regards the health of the people it is well known that there are special diseases connected with this industry and therefore special precautions are taken but lung tuberculosis does not occur here. Full statistics on this subject are published. The average wages of the furnace men are  $4/2$  to  $4/11$  per day ; the retort fillers  $4/2\frac{1}{2}$  ; the stokers  $3/8$  to  $3/11$  ; the youngest men of 16 years of age, or for the most part of 18 years,  $2/5$ . Skilled men earn from  $3/8$  to  $3/11$  ; labourers  $2/5$  to  $3/8$ .

During the whole period of high prices for meat the Company have rendered considerable assistance to their workpeople. Arrangements were made with the 'butchers' by which the families of the employees could purchase their meat at what had formerly been the normal price, the butchers collecting the difference at the end of the month. Pork being the staple food it was specified that pork should be reckoned for the workpeople at a maximum price of  $6\frac{1}{4}$ d. per English lb. The Company were willing to pay the difference on 30 lbs. of meat for one family. This step was taken by the Company instead of raising the wages as the wages could not well be lowered again on the meat prices becoming lower and the high price of meat is necessarily only temporary.

The hours of work of the men in the Zinc Smelting Works are at the most eight per day. The work is laborious and it is admitted to be unhealthy. They work right through without a pause. Owing to the heat the work begins at the desire of the men at 2 a.m. and is generally over about 9-30 a.m. ; during the interval one man is employed to look after the furnace where otherwise ten men are occupied. They receive soda-water and cold coffee gratis at their work. In the Zinc Rolling works the hours are six with four shifts. It is arranged that every man shall have twelve hours pause between his shift, so that in a week he has six shifts i.e. 48 hours.

The workpeople if they do not go home like to take their dinners out of doors sitting alone or with some member of their family where their neighbours cannot see what they are eating. From what came under our observation the fare seemed to be very good. In one case we saw a good supply of excellent pea-soup and very nicely dressed pork cutlets with potatoes and sauerkraut.

Distributed in various parts of the Smelting works are excellent bathing sheds where baths can be taken gratis, soap being also given free of charge. These baths are now very much used: every man bathes at least twice a week and many of them every day. Almost all of those who work with lead bathe every day. The women here are very clean in their habits and wash their feet every day and frequently use the steam bath.

In one of the dwellings we came across a case of a man who was an assistant at the rolling mills in receipt of a pension: he had met with an accident from the results of which he had been forced to spend seven months in hospital. He had been earning over 3/- a day, i.e. about £4 a month. He will obtain an allowance of about £3 15s. per month as compensation from the State Insurance Fund.

In the large Zinc Retort House the ventilation is exceedingly good: there is no trace of dust or bad air. The conditions of former times have absolutely disappeared. There are arrangements for mechanical stoking for 6 furnaces and 3 are in course of construction. We were told that they were the only ones in the world in this form. Only one man is necessary to look after them: it is an ideal method of saving labour. It is an invention of this Firm; in America the principle adopted is different.

The Zinc Rolling-Shed is superb. All wages are paid by piece-work at the rolls. The headman at the roll must possess considerable manual skill and general intelligence. The men work at the rolling mill with bare feet: they can thus stand more firmly. It is very heavy work. The men we saw here in the rolling shed are muscular and active. We saw here the flues under the Zinc furnaces where the men used formerly to live with their families before proper house accommodation was provided.

According to the information supplied us from Socialist sources it was evident that there is not much sympathy amongst the workmen in Upper Silesia for the Socialistic movement as such. The Socialists are looked upon as enemies of religion and the men here are for the most part Poles and Roman Catholics. The people will not believe the Socialists; they say "you are Germans and do not side with us!" The Government is trying to make Germans of the children. Formerly the Poles did not like the nickname "Polack," but now every man says he wants to be looked upon as a "Pole." As democrats the Socialists are on the side of the Poles, whilst the standpoint of the Poles is, that as workmen they are dissatisfied and

sympathise as such with Socialists, but in their character as Poles they do not wish to become Germanized but desire to live according to their Polish nationality. The Socialists reply that the people would be just as badly off and would probably be worse treated by the Polish nobility than they are in Germany. The Socialists have succeeded in creating a section of Social Democrats amongst the Polish workers, but we are assured that the party has not acquired much influence here although they have their representatives in all the chief centres of labour. Indeed the representatives of the Trades organisations (socialist and "German" socialist) admitted as much to us.

At the same time, however, the Socialists are very active here in distributing leaflets and pamphlets to the people. They have, of course, to speak Polish to the men. There are, however, amongst Polish speaking workpeople themselves political parties e.g. one consisting of the Poles proper who desire the restoration of the Kingdom of Poland, and another consisting of Socialist Poles. This condition of things renders it difficult for the powers that be to foster a German instead of a Polish spirit amongst the people; and, as other interests are more attractive, the task of the German Socialist is also more arduous.

On the whole, the Socialists appear to consider the men in Upper Silesia to be badly paid with the exception of the "cutters" in the mines. The condition of the "trammars" is declared to be unsatisfactory, and the conditions of female labour in the building trade are denounced as monstrous. These latter conditions are, however, due to the conduct of the bricklayers and other workmen in whose company the girls work: this has nothing to do with the treatment they receive from the employers.

We were surprised to hear the rents of the dwellings in this locality described by Socialists as exceptionally high. The figures given in the preceding pages do not tally with this view. We were also surprised to hear from the Socialists that the people had no amusements and made no excursions. It was stated that if they did not go to Public Houses the men sat at home with their families. It seemed to us on the contrary that the forests in the surrounding country were very much frequented by the people on holidays. We noticed that the Roman Catholic churches were well filled with devout worshippers in the morning, all using Polish prayer-books whilst the afternoons were spent in the country. Certainly the neighbourhood of Kattowitz, which affords facilities for excursions, and Beuthen and Myslowitz also and the neighbourhood of Donnersmarkhütte and other places have many attractions that are not to be found in the Black Country of England. One does not go to an industrial district where Collieries and Smelting Works abound to find the beauties of nature; but if the conditions of the

district are taken into consideration there is no room here for well-founded complaint in this regard.

In the matter of excess of drinking we are not surprised to hear complaints raised by the Socialist reformers. Drinking is carried on to excess and the women suffer therefrom. It often happens that at domestic festivals, for example at weddings, drinking goes on for two or three days and the whole family is in a condition of drunkenness. The representative of the Socialists at Kattowitz is a teetotaller and at the "Gewerkschaftshaus" ("Socialist Club House") nothing but water may be drunk; not even coffee or tea are sold! If the party were to obtain a concession for beer they would be subjecting themselves to the interference of the police, which they want to avoid: for this reason they even refrain from taking a concession for tea or coffee.

It is noteworthy that the women down here are looked upon by the Socialists as the worst enemies of Social Democracy. A few years ago the women would not take in Social Democrats as lodgers, and such Socialists had to go to the Jews for a lodging. The people said of them "they bring the Devil into the house!" No doubt this idea arose from the reputation the Socialists have of being the enemies of religion.

From an English point of view we are inclined to think that there is plenty of opportunity in these parts for social reformers to co-operate with the employers of labour in raising the tone and conditions of life of the people. There can be no doubt that the employers of labour have been spending large sums of money and are still doing so in this direction, and have devoted and are still devoting their attention to this task and their work is arduous; but we fail to see any trace of a desire on the part of the representatives of the people to co-operate with them. Their attempts to alleviate the wants of the workpeople and to defend their interests are laudable, but the methods they adopt are apparently frequently questionable. Cases of this kind came under our immediate notice. We found that the women-socialists had a very poor opinion of the womenfolk of the working men down here. The Socialist-women appeared to us to be hard workers at home but they assured us that the workpeople's wives were averse to work.—"They won't work, they prefer to loiter about." Certainly it was very remarkable throughout the district that a very large proportion of the women of the working classes seemed to have a good deal of time at their disposal for leaning out of the windows of their dwellings. "It is the women here" remarked a socialist woman of independent and hard-working character, "that are the cause of half of the mischief in these parts! They won't work properly!"

The task of raising the material and moral condition of the working classes in Upper Silesia is most distinctly making progress.

The geographical situation of the district must be taken into consideration. It is in immediate touch with a state of backwardness and corruption just over the frontier in Russia and the people who come over to work from Austrian territory are also behind Western Europe as regards civilization; and, though willing to work, are physically below the average type of German workmen or of the Polish population of Upper Silesia.

J. L. BASHFORD.  
J. O. TONKIN.



## APPENDIX.

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# INFIRMITY AND OLD AGE PENSIONS IN GERMANY.

By J. L. BASHFORD, M.A., TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

*The following pages, which have now been revised, were written and read by request at the International Home Relief Congress held at Edinburgh, in June, 1904. They were previously submitted to His Excellency the Secretary of State for the German Imperial Home Office, Count Posadowsky-Wehner, and Geheimrat Dr. Zacher, then President of one of the Senates of the German Imperial Insurance Office; and the author was authorised to state that the statistics contained therein were absolutely correct. In order that this report should be published as an appendix to the Reports of the Gainsborough Commission, the figures have been brought up to date and His Excellency Count Posadowsky has been kind enough to have them again carefully revised. The statistics are the latest attainable.*

Beyond doubt it was an audacious act of political heroism on the part of the authors of the German Workmen's Insurance Laws to risk the introduction of such a scheme. It was claimed for these laws that an amelioration of the condition of the working-classes would accrue therefrom; but precisely those political parties that posed as the special patrons and allies of the working-classes would not support the measures. The main objection of the Liberals and Radicals was that the principle of self-help was thereby undermined; whilst the Socialists explained their refusal to support the scheme, although it went far to realise State Socialism as sketched out by Lassalle, just because it did not in their view go far enough.

Only a powerful statesman could in 1881 have lent his name to a scheme so colossal, and yet one that even his friends characterised as a startling though fascinating leap into the dark.

For what was the condition of things in the German Empire when Kaiser Wilhelm I. charged Prince Bismarck to read his memorable message to the Reichstag on November 17th, 1881? Maddening prosperity had attended the riotous speculation that was the immediate consequence of the victories of 1870-1871, and this was followed by a tremendous crash and a period of gloomy depression. The expansion of industry in the Empire had given rise to immense discontent amongst the working-classes who now turned to the leading agitators of the Socialist party, which was steadily increasing in numerical strength. In June, 1878, a hideous attempt was made on the life of the octogenarian Kaiser, and four months afterwards the repressive law against the Socialists was passed by the Imperial Diet.

In the very midst of these seething times of discontent and revolutionary agitation, Kaiser Wilhelm sent his historic message to the Reichstag, in which he said:—

‘In February of this year (1881) we gave expression to our conviction that the healing of the social diseases was not to be sought exclusively in measures of repression of social-democratic excesses, but at the same time by furthering in some positive manner the welfare of the working-people . . . We should look back with greater gratification upon all the successes with which God has visibly blessed our reign, if we could succeed in taking away with us in the future the consciousness that we were bequeathing to the Fatherland new and permanent guarantees for its internal peace, and a greater measure of security and productive assistance to the needy to which they are entitled.’

His Majesty then announced that bills for insuring the workmen against accidents incurred in the exercise of their calling, and against sickness were to be laid before the house, adding:—

‘But those, too, who from old age or infirmity become incapable of earning their livelihood, have a reasonable claim from the whole body politic to a greater measure of State assistance than has hitherto been accorded to them.’

These words introduced the gigantic scheme of German social legislation, by virtue of which working-men in the German Empire were to have an acknowledged and incontestable legal right, when unfitted by sickness, accident, infirmity or old age, to such assistance and pensions as would relieve them from the necessity of falling back upon the uncertain assistance of public charity. It was determined that the end should be arrived at by means of a scheme of COMPULSORY INSURANCE, in which the insured, the employers

and, in the case of infirmity and old age pensions, the State should contribute together. The Infirmity and Old Age Relief Fund was to be a fund to which the workpeople were to contribute their portion, to which also they were to have a legal right to look for relief later on.

The term ' State Socialism ' is repudiated as incorrect, on the ground that the State, as such, has no influence whatever on the administration of the German Workmen's Insurance Scheme. The State, it is submitted, only enacted the laws under which the scheme was created ; whereas the Insurance System is administered by the contributors thereto. The fundamental principle of the whole system—and therein, it is maintained, lies its chief feature—is that of mutual insurance based on self-administration.

In the case of the Infirmity Act, the managing board consists of an equal number of representatives of workmen and employers presided over by a communal or State official.

The Government resorted to COMPULSORY insurance because it was impossible to devise any other method for securing the broad masses of the working-classes—those belonging to the lower paid grades—to contribute.

This Insurance Scheme affects WORKPEOPLE—not vagrants, tramps, or those that will not work. Nor are the Workmen's Insurance Laws a charitable scheme. They are unlike mere Poor Law relief measures, in that they confer on every insured person a LEGAL RIGHT to a fixed modicum of assistance in case of sickness, accident, infirmity, or old age, in return for which they have themselves contributed an obolus to the fund from which they receive such assistance. The Infirmity Law constitutes a scheme in which the insured and the employers co-operate with the State for the purpose of preventing, or at least of minimising, prospective distress likely to be brought about by existing conditions over which the workmen cannot be said to have control, a state of distress for which they could not be held responsible. The workman is put in a position by means of the assistance afforded by this Insurance Scheme, calculated to eliminate the economical reason which causes him to be regarded as a burden to his relatives. In fact this assistance may ultimately prove a source of welcome from them.

State interference of any kind in matters concerning the order of the life of the individual has always been more tolerated by Teutons than by Anglo-Saxons, nay, has been generally welcomed by the former—hence, no doubt, the facility and rapidity with which the system of compulsory insurance in Germany has already begun to fit into the accepted routine of the life of the German people, compared with the difficulties and obstacles that would presumably confront a similar national scheme in England—were it brought forward.

In order to become closer acquainted with the process of development of the preliminary official consideration of this question in Germany, we can refer for instructive data to Bödiker's 'Die Unfall-Gesetzgebung der europäischen Staaten'—'The Laws of European Countries affecting accidents.'—(Wirklicher Geheimer Ober-Regierungsrath Dr Bödiker was the first President of the Imperial Insurance Office). He tells us, that although the *Haftpflichtgesetz* of 1871 (Employer's Liability Act), and the *Gewerbe-Ordnung* (Trades Act) contributed to the prevention of accidents, 'the case of the workpeople, when it was a question of compensation for the injuries suffered from accidents, remained exceedingly precarious.' The reason for this was given in the *exposé des motifs* preceding the Accidents Insurance Bill laid before the Reichstag in 1881, wherein we read :—

'As the injured person is saddled with the necessity to prove that the employer or his representative was to blame for the cause of the accident in question, the benefits assigned to the workpeople by the Act (i.e. the Employers' Liability Act—*Haftpflichtgesetz*) are in most cases illusory.' But the chief anomaly of the Act was that the employé was required to prove his case by means of an action at law against his employer. This put him from every point of view at a disadvantage, for in any case a wearisome action at law was bound to foment bitter and unfriendly feelings between master and man. 'As a rule, says the *exposé des motifs*, 'the employer is forced, in every case where compensation is demanded, to let an action be brought against him by his employé.' This condition of things was unbearable; and the *exposé des motifs* concluded by pointing out that the workman was insufficiently protected by the existing law against the dangers incident to his calling, whilst exorbitant burdens were imposed upon the employer; and further, that the relations between master and man had been thereby rendered more strained, instead of being improved, as had been hoped would be the case. 'A situation,' in the concluding words, 'had been created, the removal of which was desirable in the interest of both classes of the industrial population.'

By 1881 public opinion in Germany had come to the conclusion that both the State and general society were interested in providing measures for the relief of workpeople in time of sickness—including sickness caused by accident occurring during the pursuit of their calling.

Hence the State legislation for insurance against sickness and accidents on the basis of public law. 'Whereas poor-relief aims at preventing the bitterest misery,' says Bödiker, 'the insurance against sickness and accidents strives for the fulfilment of a higher social task.'

Owing to the rapid development of industry in Germany in the seventies of the last century, and to the the continuous immigration of people from the country into the towns, the Government was confronted by a new situation involving difficulties of very great magnitude, the solution of which had to be faced. A state of affairs had developed that necessarily led to a condition of dangerous discontent amongst the working classes; and no independent or voluntary efforts capable of grappling therewith were forthcoming. It was therefore incumbent on the Government to take the lead.

German statesmen claim merit for their country in so far as the problem of State insurance has been carefully thought out. They boast that it has been the new German Empire that took the lead in the attempt to solve modern social problems by means of State legislation; but they by no means pretend that they have arrived at anything like finality in the matter, or that they have even devised methods not open to criticism and amendment.

I have been at pains to secure opinions from many sides as to the moral and economical effect of the law relating to pensions for infirm and aged workmen. It is very significant to find that now, after that Act has been in force for sixteen years, the main objections to it have been withdrawn in the very quarters where they were the loudest in its initial stages. Employers, who are undoubtedly put to a good deal of expense and inconvenience by the provisions of the Act, have acquiesced in the inevitable; and so many of the employed have already derived considerable benefit in consequence of the prompt and liberal execution of the Act, that the doubts as to its utility that were freely entertained by the whole body of the working-classes for some years are being rapidly dispelled amongst the workmen of maturer age.

The attitude of the Socialist Members of Parliament also has become another one. Many of them now admit the benefits conferred on the working classes by the Infirmary Law, notably those dealing with relief in time of sickness. Whereas they voted against the original Acts, they unanimously supported the amended Acts both in Committee and in the final division.

The hospitals that have been erected, and are still being erected, in different parts of the country by the Insurance Institutes are an inestimable godsend to the workpeople, in that a chance is given them, especially in the case of tuberculosis patients in the early stage of the disease, of eradicating their ailments under conditions most favourable to themselves and to their families.

As regards the pensions for the aged, there was a plausible reason for the objections formerly raised to them on account of the smallness of the sum, and to the late limit when this sum was paid; but it is now admitted that the provisions of the amended Infirmary Law have rendered groundless the strictures on this head.

The force of the above explanations will be easily grasped from the sub-joined statistics, which show that the number of old age pensions has decreased from the year 1891, whilst that of the infirmity pensions has immensely increased:—

NUMBER OF PENSIONS GRANTED.

Year.	Number still being paid at beginning of the year.			Number granted in respective years.		
	Infirmity Pensions.	Sick Pensions.	Old Age Pensions.	Infirmity Pensions.	Sick Pensions.	Old Age Pensions.
1891	...	...	...	31	...	132,926
1892	...	...	...	17,784	...	42,128
1893	...	...	...	35,177	...	31,083
1894	...	...	...	47,385	...	33,871
1895	...	...	...	55,983	...	30,144
1896	...	...	...	64,450	...	25,953
1897	161,670	...	203,955	75,746	...	22,320
1898	210,859	...	203,644	84,781	...	19,525
1899	264,899	...	201,329	96,665	...	17,320
1900	324,319	...	195,133	125,739	6,677	19,352
1901	405,337	5,118	188,472	130,480	7,632	14,849
1902	486,945	8,700	179,450	142,789	8,733	12,885
1903	574,842	12,146	168,550	152,862	9,216	12,430
1904	663,140	14,186	156,618	140,092	10,449	11,936
1905	734,995	16,976	145,466	122,868	11,871	10,692
1906	780,761	20,141	134,100	110,969	12,422	10,666
1907	814,575	22,099	125,603	...	...	...
				1,403,801	67,000	448,580

Since the Infirmity Insurance Law came into force it is only necessary for applicants for pensions to show that they have been incapable of earning a wage for 26 weeks uninterruptedly; previously it was necessary that they should have been for 52 weeks uninterruptedly incapable of work.

Hereto are appended statistics of the working of the Infirmity Act, showing the receipts in each year from 1891—1905 from contributions of employers, employed, state subvention and interest; and the amount given in the same years for infirmity, sick and old age pensions; and the amount of contributions returned, as well as the amount given for medical assistance and home relief for infirm workmen:—

## OLD AGE AND INFIRMITY INSURANCE—

Year.	REVENUE.			
	Contributions.		Subvention of Empire.	Interest, etc.
	Employers. Mks.	Employed. Mks.		
1891	46,986,065 (£2,302,258)	46,986,065 (£2,302,258)	6,049,848 (£296,561)	795,934 (£39,016)
1892	47,821,401 (£2,344,186)	47,821,401 (£2,344,186)	9,041,184 (£443,195)	3,909,773 (£191,655)
1893	48,454,492 (£2,375,220)	48,454,492 (£2,375,220)	11,336,896 (£555,730)	6,770,608 (£326,010)
1894	50,017,825 (£2,451,854)	50,017,825 (£2,451,854)	13,923,211 (£682,510)	10,142,918 (£497,201)
1895	51,360,469 (£2,468,650)	51,360,469 (£2,468,650)	16,933,195 (£830,058)	13,404,318 (£657,074)
1896	54,567,798 (£2,674,892)	54,567,798 (£2,674,892)	19,232,239 (£942,756)	15,857,359 (£777,321)
1897	56,406,221 (£2,765,010)	56,406,221 (£2,765,010)	21,836,872 (£1,070,435)	18,392,305 (£901,632)
1898	58,976,086 (£2,890,984)	58,976,086 (£2,890,984)	24,401,014 (£1,196,128)	21,210,524 (£1,039,731)
1899	63,631,507 (£3,119,191)	63,631,507 (£3,119,191)	27,108,444 (£1,328,845)	24,001,454 (£1,176,541)
1900	64,385,208 (£3,156,137)	64,385,208 (£3,156,137)	30,761,768 (£1,507,930)	27,538,246 (£1,055,796)
1901	67,406,753 (£3,304,252)	67,406,753 (£3,304,252)	33,870,735 (£1,660,330)	30,840,885 (£1,511,808)
1902	69,492,890 (£3,406,514)	69,492,890 (£3,406,514)	37,849,694 (£1,855,377)	33,841,641 (£1,658,904)
1903	73,138,263 (£3,585,209)	73,138,263 (£3,585,209)	41,854,727 (£2,051,702)	36,590,513 (£1,793,653)
1904	77,043,900 (£3,776,662)	77,043,900 (£3,776,662)	45,275,550 (£2,219,390)	39,137,178 (£1,918,489)
1905	80,645,920 (£3,953,231)	80,645,920 (£3,953,231)	47,350,837 (£2,321,119)	41,669,220 (£2,042,609)

## REVENUE AND AMOUNT OF PENSIONS, 1891-1905.

PENSIONS.			Contributions returned.	Medical Assistance.	Home Relief for Infirm Workmen.
Infirmary Pensions.	Sick Pensions.	Old Age Pensions.			
Mks.	Mks.	Mks.	Mks.	Mks.	Mks.
129 (£6, 6s.)	...	15,299,004 (£750,000)	...	373 (£18)	...
1,338,962 (£65,606)	...	21,025,008 (£1,030,637)	...	31,884 (£1,560)	...
5,207,093 (£255,250)	...	22,705,614 (£1,113,020)	...	108,339 (£5,310)	...
10,031,897 (£491,759)	...	24,419,516 (£1,197,035)	...	364,576 (£17,870)	...
15,332,799 (£751,607)	...	26,496,741 (£1,298,860)	219,346 (£10,752)	631,789 (£30,970)	...
20,844,729 (£1,021,800)	...	27,326,580 (£1,339,538)	1,975,248 (£96,826)	1,175,504 (£57,622)	...
27,061,335 (£1,326,565)	...	27,555,955 (£1,350,782)	3,390,931 (£166,222)	1,885,610 (£92,431)	...
34,363,360 (£1,684,478)	...	27,449,836 (£1,345,580)	4,497,477 (£220,464)	2,629,752 (£128,909)	...
42,368,463 (£2,076,885)	...	26,825,558 (£1,314,978)	5,446,147 (£267,000)	4,016,458 (£196,885)	...
53,578,150 (£2,626,134)	651,407 (£31,931)	26,224,203 (£1,285,500)	6,616,721 (£324,350)	5,578,254 (£273,443)	15,060 (£738)
65,021,700 (£3,187,338)	1,299,591 (£63,313)	24,655,737 (£1,208,614)	6,925,167 (£339,470)	7,130,643 (£349,541)	45,080 (£2,210)
78,565,951 (£3,851,272)	1,810,988 (£88,773)	23,507,280 (£1,152,317)	7,134,096 (£349,710)	9,050,595 (£443,656)	73,017 (£3,580)
92,795,751 (£4,548,811)	2,238,803 (£109,745)	22,113,103 (£1,083,976)	7,555,523 (£370,369)	9,903,428 (£485,462)	146,998 (£7,206)
105,346,175 (£5,164,028)	2,634,679 (£129,151)	20,868,243 (£1,022,953)	7,858,170 (£385,204)	10,908,430 (£534,727)	254,068 (£12,454)
114,287,247 (£5,602,316)	3,140,352 (£153,939)	19,476,432 (£954,727)	8,171,548 (£400,566)	12,158,775 (£596,018)	349,709 (£17,143)

(N.B.—The sick pensions given in 1900-1905 represent the assistance given to those who were not permanently incapacitated for work.)

Stress must be laid upon the fact that the gist of the Infirmary Act lies in the infirmity pension, not in the old age pension. Every workman, irrespective of age, can claim the infirmity pension as soon as he becomes unfit to work. The old age pensions, as such, are therefore now of secondary importance in the scheme, and are retained only for the benefit of those who, despite the advanced age of seventy, are still capable of work; and they are looked upon only as a subsidy for old age. There is therefore no intention of the limit being thrown back to sixty-five or sixty; and instead thereof the authorities are elaborating another scheme for the relief of widows and orphans of workmen, as already foreshadowed in January, 1900, by the Secretary of State for the Interior, Count von Posadowsky.

The nature of the contribution of the Empire requires some explanation. It was considered fair that the State should contribute to the Infirmary Insurance Fund in consideration of the fact that the Infirmary Act relieves both the State and the communes from the necessity of paying large sums for poor relief.

On the part of official specialists, exponents of the law, it is submitted that in a country like Germany which, as compared with England, is poor, higher pensions are not for the present feasible; whilst they declare that in England such a system as theirs could be worked out on a much more liberal, and therefore, for the working-classes, a more useful basis than is possible in the German Empire.

It must not be forgotten that the standard of old age pension was fixed at a time when the wages of highly-paid skilled workmen were—even in Berlin, where wages are in general higher than elsewhere—much less than what they are at the present time. Again, too, the framers of the law did not contemplate guaranteeing a sum even for the lowest class of insured workman which would be wholly adequate for his support. It was assumed that he would in the natural order of things reside with some member of his family, or at least receive a contribution from his relatives towards his support. The small sum given was considered as calculated to relieve him from the unpleasantness of being looked upon as a non-paying but unavoidable guest. In country districts the low pension is even considered as adequate, though, of course, this is not the case in towns. One must, however, bear in mind that, in the case of the workpeople of large factories, an almost universal practice prevails of giving a pension to superannuated employes; so that those in receipt of pensions under the Act can certainly count on a pension of at least equal amount from their late employers. Moreover, numerous cases



could be cited of aged workpeople in other callings also who are now in a comparatively comfortable position in consequence of their being in receipt of the pension under the Insurance Act, as well as of allowances from their former employer and from relatives. The provision too that those who, even at the age of seventy, are in a position to earn something and still receive the pension is an advantage that should not be underrated.

Complaints, it is true, are made concerning details of the Act which could easily be eliminated. They were pointed out to me by a Socialist member of the Reichstag, who is competent to give an opinion. Firstly, the law is complicated and it is difficult to put it in a form to be comprehended by the people; and secondly, not sufficient trouble is taken either by the authorities or by anybody else to explain the bearing of the Act to those affected thereby. The contributions are deducted from the wages of the workpeople before payment, and the younger ones, though knowing that the money is deducted, are not initiated as to the reasons why this deduction is made, nor as to the certainty of the benefits that they will later on be entitled to reap. My Socialist informant frankly admitted that the leading administrative members of his party might contribute more than actually is the case to the dissemination of knowledge concerning the contents of the Act; and Dr. Zacher, of the Imperial Insurance Office, fully endorses the validity of the above-named complaints.

Whilst the law was under consideration, it was supposed that the executive authorities would be confronted with manifold difficulties in their task of carrying out its details. This has not been the case; on the contrary, the machinery works very well. Both employers and employés have accommodated themselves to whatever burdens are associated therewith, and the benefits that accrue therefrom are being more and more acknowledged. Of course, there are a good many complaints about the lowness of the pensions, but I have already given some reasons why this feature must remain inherent to the Act. It should be further noted that any workman is entitled under the Act, by agreement with his employer, to insure in a higher class than the one he is compelled to subscribe to, or he may voluntarily himself insure in a higher class. Under no circumstances would it be possible to render all parties content with this detail. The beneficiaries under the Act have, however, had reason to discover that they are not, on becoming invalided or attaining the age of seventy, handed over to the public Poor Law officers, but that they enjoy a LEGAL CLAIM to an allowance. This alone is a moral gain.

Mr. Geoffrey Drage, M.P., remarked twelve years ago, in his most instructive book entitled *THE PROBLEM OF THE AGED POOR*: 'The general objection which applies to all pension schemes alike appears

to be that they would discourage thrift instead of encouraging it.' This has not been the experience of the working of the German law. The apprehension that the spirit of thrift would be paralysed thereby was entertained over here, and was set forth as one of the objections to the measure. As a matter of fact, however, the deposits in the Savings Banks have increased since the Act came into force. The sum total of deposits in Prussian Savings Banks increased from 1593 millions of Mks. (roughly £79,000,000) in 1880 to 4968 millions of Mks. (roughly £248,000,000) in 1897—the number of deposits up to 60 mks. (£3) being 2,164,621 in 1897, whereas in 1881 they had only been 725,477. The sum total of deposits amounted in 1903 to Mks. 7,229,945,000 (£354,409,068); and in 1905 to nearly 7,762 millions of Mks.—roughly to about £380,490,000. The amount of deposits almost doubled between 1894 and 1904. The total amount of deposits lying in the Savings Banks in the whole of the German Empire is said to be about £600,000,000. In Bavaria the sum total of deposits was 89 millions of Mks. (roughly £4,450,000) in 1880, and 284 millions of Mks. (roughly £14,200,000) in 1897; it was Mks. 409,224,000 (£20,060,000) in 1903. Relatively to the size of the country and to the number of the population the Savings Banks are more used in Saxony than in any other of the Federal States. The deposits amounted at the end of 1903 to Mks. 1,170,437,000 (£57,374,362).

The statistics now at hand give ample evidence of the immense benefits derived by the workpeople, male and female, from the hospitals erected under the Act. On this subject there has been a consensus of opinion at all the International Congresses hitherto held. A large sum of money is saved by means of the hospitals; and the working-classes, as well as all political parties, unreservedly admit their inestimable value. Thousands of patients have permanently recovered their health, and have been preserved from total disability in consequence of the treatment they have undergone at these hospitals. From 1897-1905, Mks. 45,218,741 (£2,216,605) were expended on the treatment of consumptive patients; and Mks. 25,482,185 (£1,249,127) treatment of patients suffering from other maladies.

The treatment of patients for consumption lasted in 1905 up to 79 days for women, at an outlay of 321·29 Mks. (£15 15s.); and up to 73 days for men, at an outlay of 350·31 Mks. (£18 12s.); for other maladies up to 47 days for women, at an outlay of 172·64 Mks. (£8 9s.); up to 46 days for men, at an outlay of 220·78 Mks. (£10 16s.).

From 1897-1905, the statistics of the treatment of consumption were as follows:—

## MEN :—

1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
2,598	3,806	6,032	8,442	10,812	12,187	14,937	16,957	19,085	94,856

## WOMEN :—

736	1,104	1,666	2,652	3,844	4,302	5,211	6,520	7,536	33,571
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The statistics of the treatment of other maladies were :—

## MEN :—

4,082	5,025	6,870	8,755	9,176	9,837	11,868	12,182	13,098	80,893
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## WOMEN :—

1,806	2,489	3,802	5,276	6,009	6,196	7,761	8,426	9,224	50,989
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The Insurance Institutes of Berlin, Brandenburg, Silesia, Hanover, Württemberg, Baden, Grand Duchy of Hesse, Thuringia, Oldenburg, Brunswick, Posen, Saxe-Anhalt, the Kingdom of Saxony, the Hanse Towns, Elsass-Lothringen, the Pension Fund for Workmen of the United Prussian-Hessian Railways, the Norddeutsche Knappschafts Pension Fund, and the Bochum Allgemeiner Knappschafts Verein, have erected splendidly equipped hospitals under the Act. The one erected by the Berlin Institute, situated at Beelitz, within easy distance of Berlin, in the midst of a huge pine forest, was visited by the members of the International Tuberculosis Congress in 1902, and subsequently by a deputation of the English Friendly Societies, brought over for that purpose by Dr Hillier of London.\*

Since the passing of the Acts for the relief of infirmity and old age up to the end of 1905, Mks. 70,700,926 (£3,465,782) were spent for the relief of the sick, and for the prevention of infirmity in connection with the hospitals ; and in 1905 Mks. 9,685,857 (£474,797) for patients suffering from diseases of the lungs alone.

It must also be remembered that the insurance institutes contribute to the supply of better dwellings for the poor by the loans they advance to building societies.

A defect which will probably be remedied before long, the more so as the parties themselves are clamouring for it, is that a number of home-workers and individuals in the employ of private individuals are not yet subject to the Act.

If we turn to the statistical results of the Workmen's Insurance Laws from 1885 to 1905, we learn that seventy MILLIONS of persons in the GERMAN EMPIRE (sick, injured by accidents, and infirm and aged persons, or their families), have received during that period 5,000,000,000 Mks. (£245,098,070) as statutory compensation, of which sum the workmen themselves paid only the smaller half of

\* The members of the Gainsborough Commission spent a day there in January, 1906, having been kindly provided with an introduction from Dr Freund, the Chairman of the Berlin Insurance Institute, and were shown over the hospital (cf. pp. 181-184 of the Reports).

the contributions, and have received as compensation through the medium of these funds 2 milliards of Mks. (£98,039,216) more than they themselves contributed.

Of this large sum, 355,948,810 Mks. (£17,448,471) have been paid during the last fifteen years in the form of OLD AGE PENSIONS, i.e., between 1891—1905, making an average of £1,163,000 per year; and 677,917,560 Mks. (£33,231,106) for infirmity pensions, making an average of nearly  $2\frac{1}{4}$  millions of pounds per year. I am enabled to state on authority that at the time of writing these lines, roughly  $1\frac{1}{2}$  millions of Mks. (£73,529) are spent EVERY day of the year in the German Empire for the relief of the working-classes under the provisions of the three Acts of Parliament dealing with workmen's insurance. The accumulated funds amount already to  $1\frac{3}{4}$  milliards of Mks. (£85,784,313), of which, up to the end of 1905, about 398 millions (£19,509,804) have been spent on the construction of workmen's dwellings, sanatoria, public baths, etc., for the benefit of the working-classes, according to the letter and spirit of the Infirmity Act.

The total population of the German Empire is now estimated at about 60 millions, whilst the number of WAGE-WORKERS, i.e., of professional working people and labourers, workmen, or daily labourers, is estimated at 15 millions. WAGE-EARNERS, who are also subject to the Workmen's Insurance Acts, include all persons whose wages or salary do not exceed 2,000 Mks. (roughly £100) per annum, from amongst industrial and agricultural officials, commercial employés and assistants and small employers.

Dr Zacher, of the Imperial Insurance Office, draws a distinction, as above, between wage-workers and wage-earners for purposes of the Acts.

The aim and object of the social legislation of the German Empire, inaugurated in 1881, was the amelioration of the material condition of the working-classes. Subjoined is a summary of the points that the officials responsible for the drafting of the Acts presented to themselves for consideration.

It was felt that the wealthier classes had increased their wealth; that the well-to-do classes had become better off; and that the claims of the working-classes for succour and relief from the State could no longer be deferred. As the better situated classes had a perceptible interest in the maintenance of the existing State, it was deemed desirable that the working-classes should be enabled to feel a similar interest, by making them actual shareholders in State property in the shape of a vested claim to the funds destined to distribute allowances and pensions. The working-classes hold no property in the generally accepted sense of the term; but they are the most numerous section of the body politic. They are the least educated, but should be made to feel that the State is an institution

which distributes tangible benefits that they also can and do share in. The State does not exist merely to afford protection to the better situated ; but also to watch over and to administer to the requirements of the working-classes.

The first step taken was to ward off the weight of the consequences accruing from accidents and sickness ; and the result of the labour in this direction was the passing of the Workmen's Sickness Insurance and the Workmen's Accidents Insurance Bills. The latest amendment dealing with Workmen's Sickness Insurance dates from May 1903, and came into force on January 1st 1904. Of this amendment, Count von Posadowsky-Wehner, the Minister of the Interior, said on February 27th, 1903 : — ' I must beg that this Act be regarded merely as a further *étape* on the road for the continuance of social reform.' It can thus be inferred, as already hinted above, that the Imperial Government has no intention of shelving the subject as finally disposed of.

The original ' Infirmity and Old Age Insurance Act ' was passed in January 1889, and came into force on January 1st, 1891. This was replaced on January 1st, 1900, by the ' Infirmity Insurance Act,' which passed the Reichstag on July 13th, 1899. The amendment introduced several improvements which were based on the experience made in the previous eight years. Its main object, as already pointed out in the British Board of Trade Report published in 1899, was to effect a more even distribution over the various parts of the empire of the burdens entailed by the payment of the pensions prescribed by the law. A readjustment of these burdens had been shown to be necessary because of the unsatisfactory condition of the finances of the Insurance Institutes in those parts of the Empire where the population was mainly agricultural. In agricultural and kindred occupations the burden for pensions was found to be quite out of proportion to that of other occupations, hence a general fund was formed which was to bear the chief brunt of the pensions. There are thirty-one of these Insurance Institutes, and ten special funds, making in all forty-one bodies dealing with the business of the Act. The inequality just mentioned was found to be primarily due to the fact, only discovered after the census of 1895, that persons of seventy years of age and upwards formed a larger percentage of the insured population in agricultural than in industrial and commercial districts. In view of the universal complaint that the younger and more enterprising portion of the rural population perpetually verges towards industrial and commercial centres, this inequality could present no surprise. The opportunity was also seized for extending the scope of the law. Foremen and similar higher-grade workmen who, though in general they work for wages, also occasionally do jobs on their own account ; and teachers with incomes not exceeding 2000 Mks. (£100) per

annum ; are now included under the Act, and are subject to the obligation to insure.

The statistics for 1891-1905 inclusive, i.e. for the first fifteen years, are as follows :—

	Mks.	£
Pensions given to workpeople incapable of work.....	677,914,560	33,231,106
Old Age Pensions.....	355,948,810	17,448,471
Expended on cure of patients.....	65,574,410	3,214,432
REIMBURSEMENTS to the insured have been made as follows :—		
In cases of marriage of women.....	43,611,560	2,137,822
In cases of death.....	15,950,380	781,881
In cases of accident.....	228,430	11,198
Total	1,159,228,150	56,824,910

The obligation to insure under the Act extends to all persons working for wages or salary as workmen, assistants, journeymen, apprentices, or domestic servants (male and female), and laundresses, women who go out to work, dressmakers, sempstresses, house-keepers, charwomen (including foreigners working in Germany under these categories) ; officials of works, overseers, foremen, engineers' assistant, clerks and apprentices in a merchant's office (with the exception of assistants and apprentices in chemists' shops) all other employees whose professional occupation is their main form of occupation, schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, tutors and governesses, in so far as their income does not exceed 2,000 Mks., (roughly £100).

The occupation referred to must be one that is sanctioned by law, must be of a fixed kind ; and must be recompensed by wages or salary. When free maintenance alone is given in lieu of wages, the occupation does not fall within the scope of this law.

The Federal Council is empowered to extend the obligation to insure to all home-workers, irrespective of the number of hands they employ ; and so far this extension has been ordered for home-workers connected with the manufacture of tobacco, and to home-workers occupied with weaving and knitting (textile industry.)

The following are allowed to insure VOLUNTARILY until they have attained their fortieth year :—all employees with earnings from 2,000 to 3,000 Mks. (£100 to £150) ; small master-workers (with only two regular workmen), and home-workers who are not liable to compulsory insurance ; persons who only work occasionally, or for board and clothing.

All officials of the civil service of the Empire and the Federal States, and of communal bodies, as well as teachers and tutors

undergoing training ; and soldiers who when on duty are employed as workmen, are exempt from compulsory insurance.

Women who have paid 200 weekly contributions may recover the same on marriage ; and widows and orphans (under fifteen years of age), and children of deserted wives, may also recover the contributions of insured persons who die before they are entitled to the annuity.

The Pension for Old Age is granted to ALL who have completed their seventieth year—even though the recipient may still be able to earn wages. In this case it serves to make amends for diminished vigour. The sole condition is that the recipient shall have contributed for 1,200 weeks—the so-called “ waiting time.” This period of time used under the original Act to be 1,410 weeks.

The employers, the employed, and the Empire, co-operate to form the fund out of which the allowances and pensions under the Act are paid. The weekly contribution is paid in equal shares by the employers and employed ; and the State add a fixed sum of 50 Mk. (£2 10s.), per annum to each annuity when it becomes due.

The State further pays the contribution of the workmen whilst serving in the army or navy ; and defrays the expenses of administration including the postal charges for sending pensions through the Imperial Post Office.

Those insured under the Infirmary Act are divided into five contributory classes, according to the amount of their yearly earnings, which are reckoned from the average wages earned in their respective callings, or by fixing them at 300 times the local daily wage of labourers in the respective localities.

The subjoined table gives the pensions for Old Age, and for Infirmary after the expiration of the average period of contribution—35 years of 50 weeks each—i.e., 1750 weeks :—

Earnings.	Weekly Contributions.	Annuity, including State subsidy of 50 Mk.	
		Old Age Pension.	Infirmary Pension.
Class i. up to Mk. 350 (£17 10)	$\frac{1}{2}$ of 14 pf. (1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.)	Mk. 110.40 roughly (£5 10)	Mk. 162.60 roughly (£8 2)
“ ii. “ 550 (£27 10)	$\frac{1}{2}$ of 20 pf. (2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.)	Mk. 140.40 roughly (£7 0)	Mk. 225 roughly (£11 5)
“ iii. “ 850 (£47 10)	$\frac{1}{2}$ of 24 pf. (2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.)	Mk. 170.40 roughly (£8 10)	Mk. 270 roughly (£13 10)
“ iv. “ 1150 (£57 10)	$\frac{1}{2}$ of 30 pf. (3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.)	Mk. 200 roughly (£10 0)	Mk. 315 roughly (£15 15)
“ v. “ 2000 (£100)	$\frac{1}{2}$ of 36 pf. (4 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.)	Mk. 230 roughly (£11 10)	Mk. 360 roughly (£18 0)

This table enables us to form a rough comparison between the relative amounts of wages and contributions for old age in Germany and England. In 1895 Mr Drage quoted in the book, cited above,

from evidence given before the Royal Commission, to the effect that the average wages of the Norfolk Agricultural labourer were 13/- per week, or from £33 to £35 a year, these wages allowing of a regular subscription of about 9d. per month (which is just equal to what Class 5 pays in Germany), the insured only paying the half of the contribution mentioned in the above table, to a trade union, plus a subscription to a friendly society.

The labourers, as stated by the witness cited, could do no more than this towards providing for their old age. Thus this type of the British labourer voluntarily contributes more than the German labourer contributes under compulsion. In Germany he would be entitled from the amount of his earnings to belong to the 3rd Class, but pays, even to the Trades Union, a contribution almost equal to that for the German 5th or highest class; and one must not forget that the German workman's contribution, though less, insures him against infirmity as well as against old age.

The plan for determining an infirmity allowance or pension is somewhat different. The infirmity allowance which is given to persons unfit to work, even after they have only contributed for 200 weeks (the 'waiting time' as it is called) amounts, according to the class in which the person is insured to 116.40 Mks. (£5, 16s.), 126 Mks. (£6, 6s.), 134.40 Mks. (£6, 14s.), 142.20 Mks. (£7, 2s.), and 150 Mks. (£7, 10s.), respectively; but after fifty years (2,500 contributory weeks, the year being reckoned at fifty weeks), beyond which time a workman seldom subscribes, the allowance rises as follows:—

Class:—	1	2	3	4	5
	185.40 Mks.	270 Mks.	330 Mks.	390 Mks.	450 Mks.
	(£9, 5s.)	(£13, 10s.)	(£16, 10s.)	(£19, 10s.)	(£22, 10s.)

The old age pension remains the same; but the infirmity pension rises according to the number of weekly contributions paid until over fifty years, viz., by 3, 6, 8, 10, and 12 pf. respectively, according to the class. In this way, if the year be taken at fifty-two instead of fifty weeks, the pension after fifty years would amount to:—

Class:—	1	2	3	4	5
	188.40 Mks.	276 Mks.	338.40 Mks.	400.20 Mks.	462 Mks.
	(£9, 8s.)	(£13, 16s.)	(£16, 18s.)	(£20)	(£23, 2s.)

Now supposing a workman be not held to be infirm till he attains the age of seventy, which is the age for an old age pension, and has contributed ever since his seventeenth year, his allowance will be determined according to the following scale:—

Class:—	1	2	3	4	5
	194.40 Mks.	288.60 Mks.	355.20 Mks.	421.20 Mks.	487.20 Mks.
	(£9, 14s.)	(£14, 8s.)	(£17, 15s.)	(£21, 1s.)	(£24, 7s.)



A workman 'unfit for work'—belonging to the 5th Class would thus receive an annual allowance of £24, 7s. on becoming declared infirm at seventy years of age.

The payments are made under the German Act through the employer, who is responsible for their being made punctually, by means of stamps, purchased from the post offices or other authorised places, which are affixed to cards that serve as receipts for the insured. The cards contain room for fifty-two stamps, and are exchanged for new ones when filled up. The filled up ones are kept in the Insurance Institute.

It is very remarkable that this convenient method of registering the payment of the contributions was ruthlessly ridiculed in the early stages of the operation of the Act; and the Act itself was derided and nicknamed the 'Adhesive Law.' This very system had been, however, in use for many years amongst the German Trades Unions (Gewerk-Vereine), and was adopted precisely because the working-classes and those connected with them were familiar with it and found it practicable. The amended Act has introduced facilities connected with the stamps. There is an option now of affixing them every week, fortnight, or quarter, to suit the circumstances of every mode of employment.

The amount of the contributions is fixed by the Federal Council for a period of ten years, and any change therein is subject to the assent of the Reichstag. The amount above quoted holds good until December 31st, 1910. It is so estimated as to cover the capital value of the annuities chargeable to the Insurance Institutes, the reimbursements of contributions and the expenses of administration.

If the amount of the labourers' contribution be compared with that of the pensions, it is clear that, even though the latter be low, such favourable conditions could not be offered to working-people by any private insurance office—the insured receiving the benefit of the State subsidy and of the employers' contribution, without giving any equivalent.

The pensions are paid monthly, in advance, and may neither be pawned nor sequestrated. In connection with the apparent insignificance of the amount of the pension, I will cite a concrete case, namely that of a skilled workman employed at one of the largest works in Berlin, whom I have questioned on the subject.

An unskilled workman at these works can earn up to 4 Mks. (4/-) per day, i.e., 24/- per week. The majority earn from 30 pf. (3½d.) to 35 pf. (4½d.) an hour. A skilled workman can earn 60 pf. i.e., 7d. per hour. This amounts to roughly 6/- a day; sometimes it is a little more in consequence of over-time work. Roughly speaking he earns 36/- per week.

The man I refer to has a wife and two children. He assured me that he pays for his apartment, consisting of two rooms—one the sleeping-room the other the kitchen and sitting-room—6/- per week, and for household expenses 18/-—in all 24/- per week. I think he estimates the item for household expenses at too high a figure for his class, but let that pass ; the price of the apartment is of course high, and there should be a remedy.

If that man lives to seventy he will not have had to pay for the maintenance of his children for a number of years, and it is possible that his wife will have predeceased him. He is certain as a 5th Class contributor under the Act, to receive an old age pension of 230 Mks. (£11 10s.) per annum, which is somewhat more than one-eighth of the wages he earned as a workman in the full vigour of life, and it is practically certain that this sum will be at least doubled from his employer, so that he would then receive somewhat more than one-fourth of his former wages. If he should become invalided at any time before attaining the age of seventy, he becomes legally entitled to 450 Mks. (£22 10s). something more than a fourth of what he used to earn as an able-bodied workman ; and this is under ordinary circumstances doubled by his employer.

The Insurance Institutes above mentioned are the executive bodies for carrying out the provisions of the Act. Their business is managed by a committee composed of at least five representatives of both sides—employers and employed.

If, as is done by some politicians who are also large employers of labour, exaggerated stress be laid on the assumption that one of the chief aims of the legislature was only to produce contentment amongst the labouring-classes, and better relations between the employers and employed, it would be necessary to say that the object of the Workmen's Insurance Laws has not been attained. Discontent prevails nearly as much as ever, and the relations between employer and employed are, if not more strained, certainly as cool as before. But the main aim was not this : the main aim was to better the condition of the working-people, and to give them a legal right to certain compensations for contingencies against which they could not make provision unaided by the State. Discontent cannot be effaced anywhere from the body politic ; and contentment cannot be prescribed by law. If the State were to make a present of £10 to every citizen at a certain age, most of them would complain that the gift was not higher.

When Kaiser Wilhelm I. issued his decree in 1881 introducing social reform for the aid of the sick, the injured, the weak and the old, it was almost contemporary with the law for the repression of Socialism. In 1881, twelve Socialists were returned to the Reichstag by 312,000 voters ; and the Socialists as a party were against the Government's insurance system. In 1890, Kaiser

Wilhelm II. turned his attention to the condition of the industrial workpeople of Germany and issued another set of decrees. These decrees were accompanied by the repeal of the Socialist Law; and in that year thirty-five Socialist deputies sat in the Reichstag, returned by 1,427,300 voters. In 1903, eighty-one Socialist deputies were returned to the Imperial Diet by 3,000,000 of voters, and the opposition of the Socialist party to the Workmen's Insurance policy is not as strong as formerly; the party indeed accepts these laws as a payment on account. The Socialists are not fully satisfied; they want more. That is where the main difference in principle exists now.

It should not be forgotten that Prince Bismarck always characterised the Social Democrats as 'enemies of the Empire'; and in the view of the high circles in German society—official and otherwise—their political opinions are still a bar to their social progress. And so long as many influential members of the Social Democratic party in Germany continue to publicly advocate the total subversion of the existing order of things, including the abolition of monarchy, this ostracism is not likely to be revoked in the German Empire or any one of its Federal States. On the other hand, as a people's party their concurrence and co-operation should be sought for. In actual practice it is sought for; and, despite the enormous increase of an antagonistic political Socialist vote, from which some persons not sufficiently cognisant of the conditions of German life and thought are wont to draw erroneous conclusions, there is a greater tendency amongst the responsible Socialist leaders to co-operate with the Government than was formerly the case. It is now pretty generally acknowledged throughout the Empire that as time goes on, the development of this system cannot fail to exercise a salutary influence more and more perceptible on the economical and social condition of the working-classes.

As above intimated, the Government are preparing to meet the obvious defect pointed out by Mr Drage, M.P., in 1895, that women on marriage, though receiving back the contributions they had hitherto paid, forfeit all claim to a future pension in old age or infirmity. A scheme for the relief of widows and orphans of contributors is being prepared, but has not yet reached its final stage.

What is described as the 'apathy of the insured' has been referred to above. As to the 'open and uncompromising dislike' spoken of by Mr Graham Brooks in 1893 in his report on the German insurance laws, drawn up on behalf of the Commissioner of Labour of the United States, I find, after careful personal inquiry, and a minute study of official statistics, that it has to all intents and purposes wholly disappeared, now that the nation has become familiar with the operation of the Act.

So far, Germany is the only country in which the system of compulsory insurance has been introduced and practically tested. It was feared by many that the working-classes would thereby become less thrifty and would also suffer a diminution of wages. As I have shown above, the contributions to the savings banks have increased, and wages are higher. It is incontestable that the general conditions of the working-classes in the German Empire as regards relief in time of sickness, accidents, infirmity, and old age have improved.

Hand-in-hand with their ameliorated conditions in this respect, we find that the working-classes in Germany are also decidedly paying more attention to material comforts and to the quality and quantity of their daily food.

It will be for the rising generation to fully appreciate the effects of what has already been created ; meanwhile the Government scheme is in a state of continuous development. Since the introduction of the system of compulsory insurance for the German workmen the German Empire has advanced on the road of progress and wealth by leaps and bounds. The material and hygienic conditions of the whole nation have improved ; and everything goes to show that the working-classes must in a great measure attribute their increased health and vigour to the beneficent effects of the legislation initiated twenty-six years ago.

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