SWANSON

History of Labor Legislation in the
Scandinavian Countries

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HISTORY OF LABOR LEGISLATION IN THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES

BY

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to present an historical and critical study of labor legislation and organization in the Scandinavian countries. The principal part of the study is devoted to labor legislation. The object in combining with this a study of labor organization, is to bring the reader in closer touch with the existing labor conditions in the countries covered. A knowledge of the organization of workingmen and employers, the extent to which it has taken place and the manner in which it has been effected explains to a great extent the intense activity of the workingmen and employers in advocating or opposing labor measures.

Method:

Altho the writer has undertaken to treat of labor legislation and organization in the Scandinavian countries considered as a group, it may be pointed out that these countries differ very much in their natural resources, industrial opportunities and political and social development. They are also differently situated with relation to the great industrial countries, a fact which has affected materially the growth of the labor movement and of labor legislation in the respective countries. A striking example of the importance of location is the proximity of Denmark to Germany.

In the course of our study, it will be noticed that the labor legislation movement, tho making its appearance in the three countries at nearly the same time, has made unequal progress and has progressed along quite distinct lines. Indeed, some grounds could be found for discussing the labor movement of each of the countries separately, and it is only because they have so much in common, and are small compared with the greater industrial counties that they can conveniently be grouped for one study.
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this report is to present an analysis of the
market for personal computers and their applications.

The report is intended to provide a comprehensive over-
view of the current market and to identify trends and
opportunities for future growth. The analysis is based on
primary and secondary data collected from various sources.

The report begins with a review of the historical develop-
m ent of personal computers, highlighting key events and
innovations. It then discusses the current market landscape,
including market size, growth rates, and major players.

The report also examines the future prospects for the
personal computer market, identifying potential growth
segments and challenges. It concludes with a summary of
the key findings and recommendations for future research.

Acknowledgments

This report is based on extensive research and analysis of
published and proprietary data. The authors would like to
thank the many individuals and organizations who
provided valuable information and insights.

References

This report draws on a wide range of sources, including
industry reports, academic journals, and government data.
The references section lists the key sources used in the
preparation of this report.

Appendices

The appendices include additional data and analysis that
support the findings of the report. These appendices are
available for download in the report's online version.

For more information, please contact the authors via
email at info@report.com.
In order to give organic unity to the treatise, the classification according to countries has been made subordinate to the classification according to subject matter.

Nature of labor legislation: Labor legislation naturally divides itself into three distinct classes, namely, preventive, betterment and insurance legislation. The purpose of the first class of laws is to protect the workingmen against such evils as threaten to cause him suffering; the purpose of the second is to improve in a direct and positive manner his economic condition and the purpose of the third is to distribute the loss to one individual upon all the individuals of the group.

The first two classes of legislation are very much akin to each other, and as a result, preventive and ameliorative provisions are generally inserted side by side in the same measures. Practical examples are child and woman labor legislation, factory regulation, the maximum working day, conciliation and arbitration, unemployment bureaus, and the like. Of these the factory regulation is principally preventive in its nature, and the maximum working day is primarily an ameliorative measure. Insurance legislation differs entirely from the first two classes in that it is applied after the loss has been incurred. A further discussion of this phase of labor legislation will be taken up under the general subject of workingmen's insurance.

Besides the kinds of legislation enumerated, another kind may be considered which is to a great extent the negative of the second class. We have reference to unfavorable labor legislation which has as its object an attack on the workingmen. Such legislation was not unknown in the early days of the new industrial era and is not unknown to-day. Several measures of this kind appear in the labor legislation of the Scandinavian countries.

Labor Legislation as a social instrument for bettering the living conditions of the workingmen:
The advantage which legislation has over trade agreements in securing better conditions for workingmen is very evident. Regulations based upon trade agreements rest upon no acknowledged legal right; are the result of conditions, and depend for their effectiveness and continuance upon the power of the workingmen's organization. Before such regulations can be inaugurated, the trade and industry must be strongly organized and in the final instance they must be supported by resort to strike, etc. The fact, also, that so many trades and industries are too weakly organized to make and enforce trade agreements, and that even in those strongly organized, the continuance of the agreements rests merely upon the powers of the organization to maintain them, makes the trade agreement method of securing better conditions for the workingmen inferior to the legislative method.

In arriving at this conclusion, the trade agreement is in no way attacked or discredited. In the first place, the trade agreement serves as an experimenting ground in all matters of labor regulation. Here regulations are introduced, first in a few, and later in more agreements, which, were they broached as matters of legislation importance before they had become prevalent in trade agreements, would meet with little if any favorable reception. Then, too, some of the regulations, because they run counter to long accepted principles and theories of government, must depend for a long period of time upon the trade agreement for their introduction and maintenance. For even to the most optimistic, it is known that years will be required before the accepted theories and principles will be sufficiently modified or altered to permit of legislation.

Legislation, in contradistinction to trade agreements, includes the weakly as well as the strongly organized trades and uses the experience gained by trade agreements in the latter to impose similar conditions upon the whole. These weakly organized trades, too, are the ones which stand in the greatest need of regulation, for the very fact that unionism has failed to enlist the
workers is a sign that the trade is composed either of women and children or ignorant and unskilled people. Legislation also affords uniformity, and this is particularly desirable with reference to labor regulations. When left to trade agreements, satisfactory conditions are often-times secured in well organized trades to the detriment of workingmen in other trades, for as consumers, the latter must, in case the goods produced by the former are not monopoly goods selling at the maximum price, share in the payment of the higher cost of production.

In the Scandinavian countries, the workingmen, as a class, seized upon labor legislation as a fighting instrument very early in their struggle for better economic conditions, and this is a fact which to a great extent explains the persistent efforts made, the consistent policy pursued and the results obtained.

The Industrial Revolution in Scandinavian Countries.

A mention of the industrial revolution generally causes the mind to revert to the last quarter of the eighteenth century which witnessed the introduction into the industrial world of power machinery. We know, it is true, that the factory system preceded the revolutionizing inventions, and that the revolution was not accomplished in a day but that it spread itself over a period of half a century and more. Nevertheless, we usually regard the closing years of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century as the period of change from the old to the new.

In the Scandinavian countries, however, the industrial revolution did not appear until 1860, almost a century after its appearance in England. This fact, if taken alone, would seem to show that the Scandinavian countries were particularly backward in their economic development. A study of the industrial revolution in other countries of the continent, however, reveals the fact that the Scandinavian countries were not exceptional in this regard.

The limits of this subject have not permitted a study of the gradual breaking down of the handicraft system as the basis of industry and the introduction of machine production, and it will have to suffice to point out several transitional measures. In Sweden this measure was the Freedom of Trade act of 1864, which supplemented previous acts of a similar nature and removed all the remaining restrictions to trade. In Denmark the industrial act of 1857 served a corresponding purpose. With reference to Norway, no such distinct act as the preceding was passed. The time when the change was effected, however, corresponds to that in Sweden, the latter country being a little in advance.

The population of the Scandinavian countries:

The population of the Scandinavian countries approximates ten and one-half million people. Of this number Norway has 2,363,511, Sweden, 5,377,713 and Denmark, 2,692,000. The increase in population during the past forty years—the period covered by this study—has on account of the great stream of emigration been comparatively slight. The population in 1870 was 7,693,107, so that there has been an increase of scarcely three million from that date to the present, or an approximate annual increase of 200,000.

With reference to the relative positions of the rural and urban population, we find, here as in other countries where industry is progressing, a tendency toward a proportionately greater increase in the urban population. On the other hand we find, that in spite of this tendency, the population in each country is even at the present time largely rural. In Norway, the rural population constituted 63% and 71% of the population in 1870 and 1908 respectively, and the urban 17% and 29% respectively. In Sweden, the country shows a

The purpose of the Commission was to study
the problem of the maintenance of the
public schools in the State and to report the
findings to the Legislature. The Commission
was composed of five members, two
representatives of the State Board of
Education, one representative of the State
Department of Public Instruction, one
representative of the State Board of
Agriculture, and one representative of the
State Board of Health. The Commission
met at Columbus on the 1st day of
January, 1874, and continued its
session until the 1st day of April, 1874. The
Commission reported that the public
schools of the State were in a very
unsatisfactory condition, and that the
Legislature should take action to
improve the system of public
education. The Commission
recommended the establishment of
a State Board of Education, the
appointment of a State Superintendent
of Schools, and the establishment of
a State Normal School. The
Commission also recommended the
adoption of a uniform system of
public instruction, and the
adoption of a plan for the
organization of the State
department of public
instruction. The
Commission further
recommended the
appointment of a
State Board of
Inspection and
Supervision, to
监督 the
administration of
the public
schools.
still greater advantage over the city tho the increase in the city population is about the same as in Norway. Here the country claimed 85.13% of the population in 1870 and 75.59% in 1907. The corresponding percentage for the cities are 14.87% and 24.16%. ¹

In Denmark, the rural population fell from 75% to 60% from 1870 to 1906, and the urban population rose correspondingly from 25% to 40%. ²

It is interesting to note that in Norway and Denmark, ³ the relative position of the rural and urban population did not vary much during the decade just preceding the period under discussion, although in both cases, there was noticeable a very slight tendency toward the increase of the city population. The percentages for the urban population were in the case of Denmark, 76% and 75% for the years 1860 and 1870 respectively and 83% and 83% for the corresponding years in Norway.

These figures show that in the Scandinavian countries, the disproportionate increase in the city population as compared with the country, occurred simultaneously with the advent of the new industrial system and has since gone hand in hand with it.

1. Swedens Official Statistics 1900, p. XLI and 1907 p. XIII.
2. Statistical Yearbook 1909, p.3.
3. The Statistics for Sweden were not available.
PART I

CH I. GENERAL REVIEW OF THE LABOR MOVEMENT
IN THE
SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

In the Scandinavian countries, the labor movement is characterized by two prominent features, the importance attached to the political phase of the movement and the centralization effected within the labor organizations. These facts mean so much that no study of labor legislation in these countries can be complete which does not include a discussion of organized labor as being one of the main forces. In order that we may be in a position to understand this influence, therefore, we give a description of the organized labor movement as it exists in these countries to-day; trace briefly its historical development and point out from time to time the resolutions and steps taken by the organized workingmen relative to legislative measures.

The present organization of the labor movement in the Scandinavian countries is the outgrowth of the endeavors of many years during which time various experiments were tried. The early activity of labor unions was directed toward the establishment of local unions, but a tendency toward the combination of such local unions along trade lines according to locality was evident almost from the beginning. The question as to what should be the nature of the relation between the labor organizations in the three countries, came up very early in the history of the movement for the working classes realized that unanimity of action in all the Scandinavian countries was very important in the furtherance of the workingmen's cause. As a result of this sentiment, a Scandinavian labor Congress was convened at Gothenburg as early as 1856.
At this time, the labor movement was still in its earliest in Norway and Sweden so that the weight of the influence at this Congress came from Denmark. The labor movement in the latter country was distinctly political in its nature, and, as a result, the measures adopted by the Congress were influenced by this tendency. The Congress held that the socialistic principles were correct and was of the opinion that the laborers economic existence can be guaranteed only by law. It urged in consequence of placing the workingman on the same plane with other classes of society and of guarding them against unscrupulous exploitation by the capitalist class.

Apart from this object, the Congress pointed out the value of union activity and outlined a program which the unions should put in operation. In regard to the policy to be followed by the labor unions of each country in relation to the unions of the other countries, the Congress recommended that the unions of each trade organize national unions along trade lines.

Altho this step toward centralization was only a small one it is very important, as it was the first of a series of steps which have produced a highly centralized labor union organization in the Scandinavian countries. The political attitude of this Congress is also very important as it shows that the legislative and union methods of attaining a common end were placed on a par by the organized workingmen at this early date.

Leaving the question of the political activity of the labor unions for the time being and pursuing further the subject of centralization, we find that the step taken in 1886 had evolved into a definite policy by 1890, when a Congress was held at Christiania. Following to some extent the lines laid down in 1886, this Congress resolved that each trade should organize a Scandinavian union along trade lines which would embrace all the local unions of that trade.

1. Oversigt over Fagforeningsbevægelsen I Denmark. P 22.
throuout the three kingdoms.

Altho this policy was decided upon by the Congress, experience soon proved that the unions did not favor it. For this reason it never became a general policy. At the Congress held at Stockholm in 1897 the policy was changed, therefore, and another inaugurated which has later been accepted by the labor unions of all the countries and constitutes their policy to-day.

The workingmen in each country should be organized, according to trades and industries, into local unions, these locals being combined into National Trade and Industrial Unions and the latter into one great National Federation of Trade and Industrial Unions. The three countries having in this manner organized their unions, the three "Land Organizations", as the National Federations were termed, should meet as before in International Scandinavian Labor Congresses to consider questions of common interest. The three national organizations were also to grant each other financial support in case of need. The policy laid down by the aforesaid Congress was favorably received in all the countries and immediately acted upon. In Denmark, where practically the same end had been effected in a different way, a Labor Congress was convened in January 1898. This Congress, which was attended by 400 delegates representing 70,000 organized workmen, organized a national organization as outlined by the Scandinavian Congress. It elected a board of directors consisting of 21 members and an executive council consisting of 5 members. It also decided that the Socialist Democratic party could be represented in the council by two men. The Socialist party later in the same year granted the same privilege to the unionists.

In Norway the labor unions, upon the invitation of the committee appointed for this purpose at the Stockholm Congress, met at Christinia, March 30, 1899. Here also an organization of the workingmen was effected along

1. Skandinaviske Arbeider Congresser Beslutninger og Resolutioner p 34.
the line proposed by the Scandinavian Congress in 1597.\(^1\) The same plan of insuring unanimity of action between the unions and Social Democratic party was used as in Denmark. In Sweden, a method differing from that of Denmark and Norway was adopted. The same method was followed with reference to the centralization of the unions as was outlined by the Scandinavian Congress of 1597, but it was decided, with reference to the relation of the unions to the Soc. Democratic party, that every Trade Union, to retain its membership within the National Organization, must become a member of the Social Democratic party within three years, and that the executive council (secretarial) should consist of seven members, two of whom should be appointed by the executive council of the Social Democratic Party. This program was adopted at the Constitutional Congress of the National Organization in 1595.\(^2\)

The relation of the Unions to the political parties which was established at this time has remained unchanged in Denmark and Norway. In Sweden, the second Congress abolished the compulsory relation between the Social Democratic Party and the labor organizations and substituted in place of this regulation an article stating that one of the objects of the National Organization is to work toward the end that each union becomes a member of the Social Democratic Party. It also decided that the Executive Council should be elected exclusively by the National Federation.

To summarize, the centralization is effected in the following manner: First, we have the local union; secondly, the trade and industrial unions and finally the national union. Uniting the three National Unions is the Scandinavian International Union which is a rather loose federation and does not exercise any direct control over the National Organization.

2. Minutes of First Congress. Fr. Sterky.
LABOR UNIONS IN DENMARK

In Denmark the rise of the labor union movement was interwoven with the political movement of the working classes. Of the two, the political was the first to become definitely outlined, particularly with reference to the organization of the local societies.

By the law of 1857, the gild system was suppressed and by a following law of 1862, all existing gilds or crafts were dissolved. A few of the gilds were now changed over into sick benefit funds for the members of the trade, among them the plasterers and the carpenters in Copenhagen; but the great majority went out of existence altogether. During the sixties, several semi-labor organizations were effected which were largely an effort on the part of certain persons of the middle class to aid the working class by lectures, reading room facilities and the like, but it was not until 1869 that a trade union was formed. That year, witnessed the establishment of the Typographical union.¹

In 1871, the Danish section of the "Internationale" was founded, and for two years, the influence of this dominated the organization in the labor world. Labor conflicts during this period also tended to make these years productive of workingmen's organization. In 1872 the first great strike occurred in Copenhagen, and as a result of this, greater activity was evidenced in the formation of trade unions. When the "Internationale" was suppressed in 1873, many of its sections which had been recruited from distinct trades were also formed into trade unions. Even as such, however, the unions remained largely political in nature, all being bound together in the Labor Party.

In 1876, the first attempt was made to separate to some extent the Trade movement from the political by electing, in addition to the regular executive council to have charge of the political interests of the party, a special executive council to have charge of the trade interests. This attempt

¹ Oversigt Fagforenings Bevægelsen. p. 12.
In order to ensure the wise use of our natural resources and the preservation of our environment, there is a pressing need for comprehensive policies and actions. This is particularly relevant in the context of our current economic and developmental challenges. It is essential to address the impact of our activities on the environment and to implement strategies that promote sustainability and conservation. Such efforts require collaboration among various stakeholders, including governments, industry, and the general public.

To achieve these goals, it is crucial to establish clear policies and guidelines. This includes setting targets for reducing waste and pollution, promoting the use of renewable energy sources, and supporting innovative technologies that can help mitigate environmental threats. Furthermore, public awareness and education programs are necessary to inform individuals and communities about the importance of environmental stewardship.

In conclusion, the protection and conservation of our natural resources are fundamental to our future. By taking proactive measures and fostering a culture of sustainability, we can ensure a healthier, more resilient environment for generations to come.
was successful and the result was the establishment of two heads for one body. The trade unions remained parts of the Labor Party, but had at the same time a separate central organ for such executive council trade matters as concerned all or several of the unions.

When the Labor Party broke down in 1877 due to causes mentioned in another connection, the system of having a two-fold central organization which was determined upon in 1876, died with it. When the party arose once more in 1878, the political phase again predominated and no provision was made for the separate organization of unions into a central trade union body.

The number of trade unions within the political organization increased, however, very rapidly during 1860-4 in which period most of the handiworksmen were organized. As a result, the trade unions in 1883 again sought to secure a central organization separated in part from the political. The plan, which was very similar to the one obtained in 1876, proposed that there should be, in addition to the central organization of the party, a trade union council consisting of the chairmen of the trade unions. The attempt was not successful at the time due to the fact that it was agitated for by persons desirous of separating the political interests from the trade union entirely. Nothing was done in this direction until 1886, but the opinion in favor of a partial separation continually gained ground. In 1886, the first Scandinavian Labor Congress was held at Christiania and the various countries were represented as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of National Unions</th>
<th>Number of Represent Unions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Altho Sweden was the most strongly represented country at this

1. Social Democratic Party.
Congress, it received its distinctive character from the Danish representation.¹

This Congress adopted a resolution stating that the labor organizations should be both economic and political organizations.² The Danish Unions in Copenhagen immediately acted upon this resolution and combined to form a centralized trade union organization separate in part from the political organization, but retaining a close relation with it by permitting the political party to elect two of the seven members of its executive council. The importance of this action, in its influence upon the labor movement in all Scandinavian countries, is very great. It is only necessary to note, the further extension of the same policy in Denmark and later, its introduction into Sweden and Norway, to really understand its significance.

Another action taken by the same trade union organization immediately after its formation was to decide that no strikes could be inaugurated by any local union unless the right to strike was affirmed by the central organization or by a joint conference called by the Central Organization Committee.³ There was initiated, thereby, a policy of strong centralized control. The early introduction of this policy and the maintenance of it up to the present time has insured to the union movement in Denmark not only a uniform policy but a strength which is not equaled by the labor movement of any other country.

The central organization effected by the trade unions applied at first only to the unions located in Copenhagen. The idea, however, spread to other cities so that it was not long before similar centralized organizations had been established in many of the other cities. Even with this form of centralization the organizations of each city stood aloof from each other, with the exception that they were united on the one hand as trades, by national trade unions which

4. Oversigt Fag. p.32.
soon began to form, and on the other, as one unity, in the central organization of the Labor Party. This defect, as it proved to be, became apparent when the strike fund began to assume a greater importance for the union movement. As a result, further centralization, based on the principle of the central organization effected by the Copenhagen Unions, gained ground. During this stage of the development, 1890 and the immediate years, the efforts of the union workers were directed toward the organization of such workers as were not included in any particular trades. The trade workers are for many reasons, easier to organize than unskilled workers, and in Denmark, they had been well organized by this time. The efforts were therefore directed toward the organization of agricultural workers, and unskilled workingmen in general.

Beginning with 1895, the plan of bringing the national and local unions together into one central organization grew apace. In 1892, the Scandinavian Labor Congress had resolved to recommend the formation of National Unions along trade lines which had been done to a large extent, and the need of a combination of these national unions and such local unions as did not belong to any National Organization, for strike fund purposes and for the purpose of treating collectively with employees, was felt more and more. In the early part of 1897, it was quite clear to the Danish organization leaders that the time to enact the new organization was at hand, but action was deferred until the Scandinavian Labor Congress which was to be held during the summer had acted on the question. It was thought that a unified action on the part of the three countries would be highly desirable and would facilitate the work in Denmark. The question accordingly came up before the Congress and was decided in favor of a centralized National Organization.

The Scandinavian Labor Congress was scarcely a thing of the past era when the Danish organized workmen sought the realization of its recommendation and

1. Oversigt Fag. p.46.
2. Oversigt Fag. p.56
issued a call for a general meeting. On January 3, 1898 the meeting took place, 405 delegates representing 70,000 organized workingmen being present. This meeting acted in accord with the recommendation of the Congress and organized a National Labor Organization in which there was incorporated the close relation with the political party which had previously existed between the labor unions and the party in the cities. The action met with the favor of the great majority of the workingmen so that at the first annual meeting of the organization there were represented 35 National Unions and 25 individual unions having a total membership of 61,244. Since that time there has been no material change in the organization of the labor unions.

The National Labor Organization which at present embraces about eighty per cent (80%) of the organized workingmen is a combination of trade and industrial unions and such independent unions as cannot come within a National Trade or Industrial Union. The administrative work is vested in a board of directors of twenty one and an executive council of seven men, two of whom are chosen by the Social Democratic Party. The party in return allows the National Organization to be represented in a similar manner in its executive council. The annual conventions have the final power in directing the administration of the organization and selecting its officers. The board of directors is vested with the power to act for the convention during the intervals between the meetings of the convention, and the executive council has direct charge of the administration.

## DENMARK.

Table showing number of labor unions and their membership - also the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Unions</th>
<th>No. of Members</th>
<th>Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1430</td>
<td>117,350</td>
<td>727,831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>1371</td>
<td>109,914</td>
<td>282,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>1249</td>
<td>96,132</td>
<td>306,563</td>
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<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>1194</td>
<td>90,695</td>
<td>461,240</td>
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<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>1156</td>
<td>90,111</td>
<td>411,962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table showing the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Unions</th>
<th>Membership When Established</th>
<th>Membership in 1890</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>2321</td>
</tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>2843</td>
</tr>
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<td>1873</td>
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<td>501</td>
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<td>1894</td>
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<td>104</td>
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<td>6967</td>
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<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>3176</td>
<td>10,138 (Total 120,850)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>2845</td>
<td>4373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4246</td>
<td>6104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>9815</td>
<td>5615</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total number of workingmen organized 120,850, 97,231 or 80.45% were members of the National Organization.
LABOR UNIONS IN NORWAY.

The first labor movement in Norway arose as a result of the political disturbance in Europe about the year 1848. The leader of this movement was a school teacher by the name of Marcus Thrane, and the first labor society was organized by him December 27, 1848. The purpose of this society as stated by its articles was to work for the betterment of the economic conditions of working-men and to make them less dependent upon the wealthy men. This movement, under the strong leadership of Thrane, grew so rapidly that it numbered by the middle of the year 1850 273 societies having a membership of 20,550.

The movement soon centered itself about the question of suffrage and a monster petition was presented to the government. The rejection of this caused some radical action on the part of many of the more ignorant participants and was the occasion for the complete suppression of the movement by the authorities who succeeded in sending the leaders into prison for long time sentences. Thrane, himself, was sentenced to four years imprisonment although it was admitted by the court that he had exerted a conservative influence on the masses.¹

With this action, the movement practically disappeared. It had not been a trade union movement but a semi-political and economic movement which sought some of the objects which during later times have been sought by the unions. As such it is worth attention.

With the exception of a separate movement, having as its purpose the establishment of sick and aid funds, which was organized in 1850, the labor world did not present any organization in Norway until in the seventies.

In 1872, the Typographical Union was organized and by 1883, when a central committee was elected at Christiania, the organization of unions had proceeded so far that the number of unions represented was fifteen.² The year

¹ Social Demokratiske Arhundrade p.585.
1882 h.d also witnessed the establishment of the first National Trade Union, namely, the Typographical Union.¹

One feature of the development of the labor movement during the seventies, which is of importance since it is in contrast with the movement in Denmark and Sweden, was the relative prominence of the economic as contrasted with the political side of the movement. The organization of the workingmen in unions and for trade purposes had continued for some time ere the political phase made itself strongly felt. It was not until 1867 that the labor party was organized,² and not until 1859 that the party accepted the tenets of socialism.³

The principal reason for the late appearance of political activity in Norway was the political condition in the country during this period. The people were struggling against the royal power, and this struggle centered all the political interests of the workingmen about the victory of the liberals as they styled themselves. The victory of this party did not occur till 1854, a fact which explains to a large extent the lack of any separate labor movement until after this date.

The movement toward centralization followed lines almost identical with the development in Denmark, and Sweden. The establishment of the National Unions came as a result of similar causes, namely, the need for greater strength on the part of the organized workingmen and the need of a close relationship between the various organizations in a trade or industry. The National Federation was established in 1899 as a direct result of the resolution adopted by the Scandinavian Labor Congress of 1897.

It seems improbable that the establishment of the National Federation would have come about at this time without the direct influence of the Sandi-

¹. Arbeider Kalender 1910
². Ibid
³. Ibid.
navian Labor Congress, but it is very probable that the organization would have come into existence at some later period without this influence, due to the fact that the need for a central organization would eventually have been felt and that it would have been very natural for Norway to look to Denmark for her guide in determining the nature of this organization.

The relation of the National Federation Organization to the Social Democratic Party is the same in Norway as that in Denmark. As a result of the close connection of the economic and political organizations the two work in great harmony and the union movement has become what is originally was not, predominantly socialistic.

The majority of the labor unions in Norway are organized along trade lines so that the union is limited in its membership to workingmen in the trade. A modification of this principle, however, has taken place in certain industries. The wood workers union for example includes not only carpenters but also other workers in wood, In the same way the iron and metal workers union embraces skilled and non-skilled workingmen who work in iron and metals of different kinds.

In addition to the trade unions, which are in the majority, there are also unions which consist wholly of unskilled workingmen. Of these, the workingmen's union is by far the strongest, being larger in fact than any subordinate national trade union.

The local unions and their members must act in accordance with the constitution of the national trade or industrial union and cannot do anything which runs counter to its provisions. In this way a strong central control is effected by the national unions over their local unions. The locals, however, are free to do anything which is not contrary to the constitution of the national union.

The control of the national workingman's organization over the national unions belonging to it is effected in the following manner: In the first place

1. Arbeidemands forbundet.
no national union may become a member unless it promises to act in accordance with the constitution and decisions of the central body; in the second place the higher body will not tender any financial aid to a subordinate union for strike purposes unless the former has sanctioned the strike in question, and, lastly, all collective contracts whether they apply to a local or to a national union must be confirmed by the central organization before they become effective.

The administration of the workingmen's national organization is effected as follows: The local unions have a council of from five to seven men elected by the members at large who are in charge of all the activities and interests of the union. Most of the local unions also have a president and a cashier who are elected by the members at large but are responsible to the council. The national unions are also managed by a council of from five to seven members. This council meets on an average of once a week but chooses an executive committee which is in direct and continual charge of the work. Most national unions also elect a president who in the majority of cases is a paid official and devotes most of his time to the union work. He is responsible to the council and must execute its orders. In addition to the president many unions elect a treasurer whose position is somewhat similar to that of the president.

The general meeting of the national union is held once every three years. The general meeting is the highest authority in the union but the aforementioned council assumes this position during the time which intervenes between the general meetings.

The business of the workingmen's national organization is conducted by a "Sekretariat" or directorate consisting of eleven men. This body is the highest authority in the organization whenever the congress is not in session. The congress referred to is the general meeting of the representatives of the

1. Landsorganisation.
national unions which convenes once every three years. Whenever very important matters arise during a time when the congress is not convened, a special council must be convened for the purpose of considering them. These councils consist of from one to five representatives from each national union according to its membership. These representatives are not elected by the members but are appointed by the councils of the national unions.

The number of workingmen in Norway that could be organized was estimated to be 229,260 in 1909. Of these 45,157 or twenty one percent were organized. There were three occupations included, however, in which labor unions were comparatively unknown, and when these are omitted, the percentage of organized workingmen is 29.94%. 1

The following table gives the number of workingmen belonging to the Central National Organization. 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
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<td>1908</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
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<td>1909</td>
<td>46144</td>
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<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>11570</td>
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Table showing the development of unionism in Norway. 3

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<th>No. of Nat.Unions</th>
<th>Members</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Nat.Unions</th>
<th>Members</th>
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<td>14</td>
<td>26027</td>
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<td>2770</td>
<td>1907</td>
<td>15</td>
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1. Arbeider Kalender 1910 p.104
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<td>4081</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
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<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
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<td>o4PFI</td>
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<td>4081</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4081</td>
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<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
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<tr>
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<td>21</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
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<tr>
<td>o9PFI</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
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<tr>
<td>o10PFI</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>4081</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>461</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
LABOR UNIONS IN SWEDEN

The gild system in Sweden was suppressed in 1846, the same year that witnessed the establishment of a typographical organization. This society, though it had as its object the attainment of unity, usefulness and enjoyment for its members, was not of the nature of a trade union. It was not until 1871 that this organization began to consider such questions as the wages of its trade members and the like. The organization was even after its development into a trade union wholly nonpolitical and continued to be opposed to political matters at least as late as 1879.

In the seventies many workingmen's societies sprang into existence but these were not trade unions in their nature. They had as their object a kind of combination of humanitarian, political and selfhelp purposes and were composed to such a large extent of people who were not wage earners, including many employers, that the workingmen element exerted a minor influence.

It was not until the eighties that the workingmen, with the partial exception noted above, began to organize into unions. Several circumstances, especially the defeat of the workingmen in a series of strikes and the introduction of socialist agitation in Sweden, then directed the attention and efforts of the workingmen to the formation of trade unions. Once begun the organization went on with leaps and bounds so that by 1886 when the first Scandinavian Labor Congress was held at Gothenburg there were represented at this Congress forty-nine local and national associations of workingmen. It was also in this year that the first national union, the Typographical Union, was established.

In Sweden, it was the Socialist agitators who fixed the attention of the workingmen upon the importance of trade union organization. The intimate relation between the Social Democratic Party and the union organizations which accordingly came to exist and which exists to-day in undiminished proportions

2. S. Arbeters statistika, 12-13, Soderberg.
strengthened the development of both organizations in their early stages. This affiliation of the two organizations has, on the other hand, afforded more ground for the rise of dissension in the organization ranks than would otherwise have been the case. This is due to the fact that there has always been a minority program which looks to the overthrow of the present system opposed to such a union and that the socialist has at times come in partial conflict with the trade union program which in a large measure seeks to better the economic position of its members by using to their advantage the institutions of the present economic system.

The early development of the trade union movement progressed very slowly. The attitude of individual unions toward the employers was by nature of the circumstances very conservative since it was an easy matter for the employers of one locality to combine and defeat the individual union. The unions were also handicapped by the fact that they rarely embraced more than such of the workers in an industry as were engaged in an established trade. When, therefore, the workingmen were time and again brought face to face with a combination of local employers, the need of a more stringent and a more extensive organization became more and more apparent. The centralization and extension however, did not take place alonglines of industry but along trade lines, a fact which is readily explained (1) by the common interests of the trade workers,(2) by the previous organizations of the trade workers in each locality, and(3) by the great difficulty of organizing industrial workers not belonging to a special trade. When the first national union was formed, as has been previously stated by the typographers in 1856, it was immediately shown that such an organization gave added strength to the workingmen and as a result the other trades soon took similar action.

Since the great majority of the national unions were established along trade lines and not along industrial lines, it happened that an employer would often employ men belonging to several national trade unions. A conflict or agreement between the employers and one of the national unions would take place,
accordingly, without special reference to the interests of the other national unions, although the latter were often times materially affected by the conflict. Because of this great difficulty and because of a desire to be able to consider the interests of all when negotiating with employers, the necessity of establishing a central national union became apparent.

Accordingly, in 1895, the National Organization was established and on April first of the following year it embraced most of the national unions then in existence and had a membership of 27,500. The following table shows the growth and development of this organization up to 1909.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Unions</th>
<th>No. of Members</th>
<th>Receipts</th>
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<td>44,145</td>
<td>573,753</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>532,869</td>
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<td>805</td>
<td>40,438</td>
<td>657,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>47,389</td>
<td>744,178</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1,171</td>
<td>51,990</td>
<td>1,352,266</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
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<td>66,719</td>
<td>3,634,695</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1,690</td>
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<td>1,994,497</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2,144</td>
<td>166,026</td>
<td>2,731,733</td>
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<td>1908</td>
<td>2,172</td>
<td>769,776</td>
<td>4,703,199</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

At the beginning of the year 1909 the Central Organization embraced 2,172 unions having 169,776 members and divided among twenty-seven national organizations. In close relation to the national organization, though not belonging to it, were three national organizations, among them, the Railway Union and the Typographical Union, having about 40,000 members. Certain other unions which stood entirely aloof from the organized members numbered some 15,000 members making the total of organized workingmen at the beginning of the memorable year 1909 when the great general strike occurred some 215,000 men. The organized about 50% of all the workingmen in the industries where organization workingmen, therefore, constituted had been taken up to a great extent, eliminating the agricultural workers and lumbermen. At the close of the memorable year, however, the ranks of organized labor had been greatly thinned out. The National Organization now numbered only 105,079 instead of 169,776 as at the beginning of

The text is not clearly legible, but it appears to be a page from a document containing a table. The table seems to list various pairs of values, possibly in pairs of units and measurements, along with some numerical data. The content is not clearly readable due to the quality of the image.
the year, making a net loss of 61,697.¹

Relation of Trade Unions to the Social Democratic Party in Sweden.

At the first session of the National Organization, 1895, when the question of the affiliation of the Organization with the Social Democratic Party came up for consideration, it was decided by a vote of 175 to 83 that the relation should be obligatory. Those who opposed this did not object to the existence of close union, but were opposed to the obligatory phase only. The minority desired that the National Organization should endeavor to get all its local unions to join the party but that it should not in any wise force them to do so.

The official relation between the National Organization and the political party which was agreed upon at the first session embraces three separate matters only one of which is retained in the constitution of the National Organization at the present. The provision of the constitution which was then enacted, and which has as yet withstood the numerous attacks made upon it, is the last point in the article treating of the purposes of the organization. It states, namely, that it shall be one of the purposes of the National Organization to seek to have each local union join the Socialist Local and thereby become a member of the Social Democratic Party.² The last of the other provisions bearing upon the relation between the two organizations was dropped when the constitution was revised in 1906.³ The first Congress also resolved to disseminate knowledge concerning socialism by spreading socialist pamphlets.

The question of the relation of the National Organization and the Socialist Party came up again at the next Congress and this time the obligatory connection was abolished by a vote of 79 to 64. At no time even in the discussion,

¹. Berattelse 1909 p. 60.
². Constitution on National Congress.
³. Lands Org. 4th Congress 1906.
however, did any opposition to the Socialist Party reveal itself. Those opposing the obligatory affiliation seemed to be very friendly disposed toward the socialist party but considered it ill advised to make the relation compulsory. The new provision itself was even proposed by a Socialist.

Centralization in Trade Union Organization in Sweden.

The relation in Sweden of the local union to the national trade or industrial union; the relation of the latter in turn to the National Organization and the connection between the isolated local unions and the National Organization is a subject full of interest because it is typical of the union organization in the other Scandinavian countries and because it explains the strength displayed by the Swedish National Organization, in the great general strike of 1909. It is only possible for us, however, to point out a few of the organization measures which accomplished this strong centralization.

The principal regulations between the local union and the national trade or industrial union which secure control of the local by the national and, nevertheless, leave to the local sufficient autonomy to cause it to thrive are: (1) the local union cannot enact any measure which runs counter to the constitution of the National Organization; (2) a strike cannot be called by a local without the sanction of the national union, — a violation of this rule causing a forfeiture of any claim to financial aid, and; (3) the national union is to aid the local according to a fixed rate per person when the local is engaged in a strike. ¹

The bond between the national trade or industrial union and the National Organization is not as strong as that between the former organization and the local unions. The strength in the latter case is not derived so much from the direct effective control which the National Organization has over the unions composing it as from the indirect control it has thru the need felt by all the

national trade and industrial unions for a central body. The power to withhold financial aid unless certain requirements are acceded to also exerts a strong influence.

The general strike in 1909 was an indirect outcome of a long standing preparation for a general conflict on the side of the employees and employers. On the tenth of August the strike embraced some 290,000 workingmen. By August 26th there were still 260,000 to 275,000 men on strike and by September 2 the number had only been reduced to 240,000. From time to time during the strike period at least 300,000 men had taken part. According to the statement by the government statistical bureau that 215,000 organized workmen compose fifty percent of the men engaged in those industries which were highly organized, the strike figure 300,000 would mean that some seventy per cent of the men in those industries joined the strike at one time or another.

The strike was the direct outcome of a series of more or less local strikes, and lookouts in various industries during the early part of the year. There were in all nine such conflicts of which according to the government report, six were the result of strikes and three of lookouts.

On the fourteenth of July the Swedish Employers' Association sent a letter to the National Organization giving notice that unless the strike and lookouts were settled in a way satisfactory to the Employers' Association prior to July 26, the existing lookouts were to be extended and directed against the National Organization. The lookout was to take place gradually so that it would be extended from time to time to embrace more and more industries. This notice was in effect a declaration of a general lookout and in reply the National Organization recommended to its subordinate National Unions a general strike to be called August 4. This recommendation was concurred in and the bitter struggle was on.

The general strike proper came to a close September 6 in that the

1 Storstrajken p.55.
National Organization then found it necessary, because of the lack of funds, to divide the struggle. The policy it pursued was to allow the great number of workingmen to return in order that the struggle could be carried on against the Swedish Employer's Association, the most bitter foe of the National Organization. By having a strike directed against this organization only, it was thought that enough funds could be secured from these allowed to work to make the strike effective.1

The action of the executive council in thus centering the struggle was greatly criticised2 but the council justified its action on the basis that the general strike could not be continued any longer and that it was better to center the struggle along a certain line and thus win something, than to allow the whole struggle to gradually die out. On the 29th of September a further specialization of the strike was found necessary. The 13th of November certain lookouts by the Swedish Employer's Association were annulled. No other settlement, however, was arrived at and the conflict was allowed to settle itself without any agreement.

Ch. The Socialist Movement.

The aim of the socialist party in the Scandinavian countries is, (1) to keep the ideal of the establishment of the socialistic state continually before the people and to direct all efforts toward its attainment, and (2) to have a working or fighting program consisting of measures which if enacted will tend to some extent to bring society nearer the ideal goal. The policy is not one of revolution but evolution. They would bring in the new era by adopting measures from time to time which tend to distribute wealth more equitably and which accustom the people to socialistic legislation.

1.Storstrejken Bilagor p. 141-2
2.Protokoll Land Organizationen 1909.
It is furthermore the policy of the socialist party to act as the labor party in particular and to represent the workingmen in parliament. In the Scandinavian countries this phase of socialism is unusually evident because of the fact that the organized workingmen as a rule depend upon the socialists to represent their wishes. The socialist parties are accordingly distinctly class parties.

It may be stated that the policy outlined above did not spring into existence full fledged as it appears today but that it is the product of many years experience. The German influence has naturally been very great, but with regard to this, it is not the similarity to the German policy which is characteristic of the Scandinavian Socialism but rather the dissimilarity. The Bavarian wing of the German socialists, however, pursue much the same policy as the Scandinavian.

Although the effects of the revolution of 1848 and its concomitant social unrest in central and southern Europe were felt quite distinctly in Denmark and to some extent in Sweden and Norway, it was not until the seventies that the socialist movement can be said to have entered the Scandinavian countries. During the early years of the succeeding decade, it was introduced into Sweden and Norway. In this connection it may be of interest to point out that the socialist movement in the Scandinavian countries is an imported institution which found a fertile soil to grow in and which has since been adapted to the conditions peculiar to these countries.

It was only in Denmark that the Socialist movement preceded labor unionism as a general movement among workingmen, and even in this instance, the early socialist organization was not permanent. It broke down at the close of the seventies at which time the various trades had come to be organized in great numbers, and when the general socialist organization reappeared, it had its basis not in local political units as before but in local trade unions.

When the socialist agitators came to Sweden and Norway, they found
many workingmen's organizations already established, a number of which were in the nature of trade unions, and it was on the basis of these that the socialist organization was to a very large extent built up. Since its entry, socialism has developed along similar lines in all the countries to the position it now holds. In Denmark, the total membership is 93,079 with twenty-four parliamentary representatives; in Sweden the membership is 60,515* with thirty-four parliamentary representatives and in Norway the membership is 27,838 with eleven parliamentary representatives.

In Denmark, the history of the socialist movement may be divided into three periods, the early period 1845-1871 was characterized by socialist propaganda carried on by members of the middle class. The middle period 1871-1877 was characterized by the attempt to build up the socialist party on the basis of the International and local political units. The third period 1877 to the present, has been characterized by the close relation existing between the socialist organization and the labor union organization and the tendency on the part of the former to become in distinct way a representative of the working class.

We omit the first period because of its relatively indirect influence upon the establishment of the socialist party and begin our study with the second period. The first notable event which in reality marks the beginning of this period was the appearance of a socialist weekly journal published by a young French enthusiast Louis Pio who had come in touch with the socialist movement in Central Europe and had become a member of the Internationale. In October of the same year, this young leader organized a Danish section of the Internationale which was the first socialist organization in the country.

The next five or six years were crowded with events which reveal the opposition with which the new movement had to contend. It would be interesting

* The low membership is due to the effects of the general strike of 1909. The number for the preceding year when the election took place was 112,693.
to give a detailed account of these but a mere enumeration will have to suffice. The first blow given the new movement was the dissolution of the Danish section of Internationales by order of the Minister of Justice in 1873. Thereupon followed the imprisonment of the three principal leaders for a period of almost two years. With the return of the leaders after a period of two years, activity was increased, and as a result, the first Danish labor congress was called. For a year or more the movement prospered and courage seemed to return, when finally in 1877, the hardest blow of all was struck when the party was betrayed by its leaders. This sad event for the time being crushed the socialist movement and it was only after some years that it could gather strength enough to arise again.

During the middle period, there was little if any distinction made between the trade and political interests of the local organizations. It was in 1876, when the first labor congress was called, that the first attempt was made to distinguish between the two interests and to choose one executive council to direct the trade activity.1 Though this decision was arrived at, it did not have any practical importance due to the developments of the following year which almost swamped the entire movement. The decision, however, did exert a great influence upon the subsequent development as it paved the way in a measure for a similar separation of the political and trade interests in the future.

It is impossible to determine just how many persons were embraced by the movement in this middle period but statistics have been compiled showing the number of unions which were members of the party during this period and the number of members of these unions. The following table shows the number of unions established and the number of members of each.

1. Oversigt Fagforenings Bevægelsen i Danmark p. 16.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Unions</th>
<th>No. of Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1877</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The depression caused by the defection of the leaders, tho severe, did not endure very long, and on February 12, 1878, there assembled a small number of the old party members who organized the Social Democratic Union. The purpose of this organization was to work for the spreading of socialism and the political organization of the workingmen. At this meeting, there was established, for the first time, an independent organization having an exclusively socialistic political program. This organization, having practically the same program as it had at the outset, is the organization which has existed up to the present time. The trade and labor unions both old and new were established as branches of the party and for some time the party organization was the only element of centralization. When non-political matters of general importance arose, the party executive would call a meeting of the representatives of the local organizations to consider them, but no permanent organization for this purpose was effected. This method was satisfactory when the movement was in its infancy but an agitation for a separate organization of the unions soon made its appearance. The result of the agitation, which received its clearest expression at the Scandinavian Labor Congress in 1856, was the establishment of a separate central organization for the unions as labor and trade organizations, the two central organizations being bound together in the intimate manner stated in another connection.

1. See Labor Unionism in Denmark.
only the presence of leaders and socialist agitators from Denmark to give socialism a firm hold.

Socialism and labor unionism developed contemporaneously in Sweden and have been very closely associated up to the present. The great extent to which socialism had permeated the unionist movement is revealed by the constitutional provision of the National Workingmen's Organization established in 1895 which stipulated that every local union must become a member of the Social Democratic Party in order to be a member of the National Organization. The fact that this extreme position caused a reaction was to be expected and does not in any way show that socialism is less favored by the organized workingmen.

The Social Democratic Party in Sweden was organized in 1889. Prior to this time active socialist propaganda had been carried on and societies had been formed here and there thru out the country. With the organization in 1889, a program was outlined which has been pursued up to the present. This, as in Denmark, has been characterized by its appeal to the working class. Most of the efforts of the party in the past have been directed toward a reform of the suffrage which prior to 1905 was very restricted in Sweden. The party, however, has not neglected other questions but has taken a stand on all the political issues of the day which have had a bearing on the working class. Now, that the suffrage question has been settled to the comparative satisfaction of the workingmen, it is hoped by the leaders of the party that its influence along legislative lines will be more directly felt.

The party, as in Denmark and Norway, is based on local organizations called communes which consist of all the political societies or unions of a locality which belong to the party. The communes are administered by representatives from the locals and the party is administered by representatives from the communes. The number of communes in 1905 was 239 with a membership of 117,197.¹

¹. The membership fell to 60,000 in 1909 due to the effects of the general strike of that year.
What is the nature of the information presented in this document? Please provide a detailed description of the content, format, and any specific points or information highlighted.
The fact that one thousand of the eleven thousand locals\(^1\) were unions brings out clearly the close connection between the party and the trade and labor union organization. The signal growth of the party is shown by the fact that it elected its first representative in Parliament in 1896. The number elected in 1905 was thirty-four, thus an increase of thirty-three in twelve years.

The early labor movement in Norway which was largely socialistic in its nature, has been touched upon in the review of the union movement. After this period, scarcely anything was done along socialistic lines until 1885 when several socialist societies were organized. In 1877, the labor party was founded, but this organization did not accept the tenets of socialism until four years later. In Norway, as has been stated previously, unionism preceded socialism, and it was for this reason that a labor party, which was not socialistic, was the first to come into existence. Since the party became socialistic, however, the cooperation between this and the union movement has been very effective.

Prior to 1900, the party did not make very great headway due to the restricted suffrage, but the progress made since the suffrage reform of that year has been rapid. In 1891, the number of members was 2,441; in 1900, it was 10,655 and in 1909, it was 27,835. The first parliamentary representatives were elected in 1903. The number then elected was three which by 1909 had been increased to eleven.

Since the suffrage question has been practically settled, the party has devoted its energies toward progressive labor legislation, and it can truly be said that no labor measure has been enacted in recent years which has not been materially influenced by the activity of the socialist party.

1. Figures for 1907.
Ch. III: Employers' Associations.

NORWAY

Previous to the year 1900, there existed very little organization among the employers in Norway. In the handicrafts, there were a large number of small associations, and in the various industries, there were similar organizations, but the purposes of these associations were quite different from those of the modern employers' association.

In Norway as in Sweden, and Denmark, the organization of the workingmen made the employers realize that they too must organize if they would wish to cope successfully with the workingmen. The fact that the workingmen put the final touch to their organization in 1895, by organizing a National Organization including all national trade and industrial unions, was undoubtedly the immediate cause for the action taken by the employers.

However that may be, the first modern employers association was called into being in Norway, on November 19, 1900. The plane of organization adopted is as follows: The country is divided into ten districts, each of which elects a directorate of five persons. Similar directorates are elected by the employers in each of the important trades of the country, one directorate serving for the trade throughout the entire country. Above all these subordinate directorates, stands the central council which consists of seven members elected at the general meeting of the employers, of the chairman of the district directorates, of three members elected by a handicraft association and one member elected by each national trade provided it employs more than 5000 men.

The general meeting of the association is held every other year or at least once every three years, and consists of the central council and one repre-
sentative for each 500 workingmen employed by the local associations. The national trade unions may also send one representative for each 500 men employed.

Every member of the association binds himself upon becoming a member to abide by the constitution and decisions of the association. Members who fail to abide by the constitution or decisions may either be fined from fifty to 50,000 kr. by the central council, or be dropped from membership. In severe instances, both penalties may be applied. The association, in return for the annual premium, promises to give financial support in case of labor conflicts, but this part of the work of the associations is not important in Norway. In this regard the Norwegian system differs from the Swedish. The principal ways in which the association aids its members are: (1) to take charge of the negotiations with the unions and to conduct strikes; (2) to forbid any of its members to employ men who are on strike against one or more members of the association, and (3) to work toward the end that the employer shall be master of his own business.

The following table shows the development of the employers associations in Norway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Employers</th>
<th>Workingmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>33,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>34,552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>784</td>
<td>34,217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>905</td>
<td>49,664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909 May 26</td>
<td>1,062</td>
<td>55,705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909 Oct.</td>
<td>1,075</td>
<td>58,265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SWEDEN

In Sweden, the general strike of 1902 has been assigned as the immediate cause of the rise of the modern employers' association in that country. This strike which was occasioned by the Social Democratic Party in its attempt to introduce a suffrage reform, embraced some 100,000 workingmen. By it the employers

the quality of food, and the development of the new technology, the data in the table below shows the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Code</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>QTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABC,21</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEF,32</td>
<td>2020</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHI,43</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JKL,54</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNO,65</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQR,76</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As you can see, the highest QTY for any product code is 800 in the year 2016. This indicates that the product code PQR,76 has been the most popular among consumers for the past five years.

In conclusion, the data collected from the sales records of the past five years shows that the product PQR,76 is the most popular among consumers, with a total QTY of 4,000 units sold in the year 2016. This information can be used to make informed decisions about future production and marketing strategies.
were brought to realize in a very vivid manner what had taken place in the ranks of the organized workingmen. Their experience in the strikes of the past decade had also prepared them for this realization. Of the 490 strikes and lookouts during the period 1895-1902, the workingmen had been successful in 243 instances, the employers in 63 and neither in 184. It will also be recalled that the year 1896 witnessed the establishment of the great national organization among the workingmen.

As a consequence of the above mentioned facts, the employers realized that the small associations were wholly ineffective and that a centralization corresponding to that attained by the workingmen should be striven for. On the basis of these old associations, therefore, whose purpose it was to provide mutual protection of trade interests, there were developed employers' associations, which thru a process of centralization had come to consist, in 1909, of one large association employing 165,060 men and eight minor associations employing some 145,840 men.

According to a newspaper account, the Swedish employers association with its 163,000 men, the Central employer's association with its 45,000 men and two of the other associations with 50,000 men had a joint conference on July 25, 1910, and decided to establish a permanent joint council. This body would then exercise authority over 5500 employers having in their employ some 250,000 workingmen. The purpose in this greater concentration is, of course, to give added power to the employers. A provision intended to give the necessary strength to the central body stipulates that all labor disputes must be submitted to the joint council which in turn gives its opinion as to what should be done. It is not known to the writer how much mandatory power has been vested in this council. The mandatory powers of the large associations represented in this council are known, however, and it may be assumed that the methods employed by these will gradually be transferred to the central body.
The general rule among the larger associations is that the employer must pay a membership fee, which he forfeits if he fails to comply with the constitution and decisions of the association or in any other manner proves that he lacks the necessary spirit of solidarity. One of the best examples of the working of this rule and its effectiveness was the fining of an employer in 1903 to the extent of 53,000 kr. for failure to join in a lookout. Following are brief summaries of the organization of the three largest employers associations.

The Swedish Employers' association was organized Sept. 17, 1902. Its object, as stated by its constitution, was to encourage cooperation between employers; to encourage the formation of trade and local associations of employers; to aid such associations and individual employers in settling labor disputes, and to insure their members against loss thru strike or lookout.

The administration of the association is effected by means of a directorate and an executive council chosen by this directorate. When an employer, personal or corporate, becomes a member, the amount of the premium and the number of votes to which he shall be entitled is decided upon. In 1905, the object of the association as specified by its constitution was changed so as to include a provision which prohibited any employer from drawing up a collective contract unless it had been sanctioned by the directorate. The same provision also specified that all collective contracts must stipulate that the employer has the right to engage and discharge employees at will; to divide the work as he sees fit, and to employ workingmen whether they belong to an organization or not.

Table showing the development of the Swedish Employers' Association:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Employers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>28,924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>31,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>41,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>65,420</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Employers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>997</td>
<td>127,126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>1,258</td>
<td>153,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>1,423</td>
<td>163,080</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. May 4 and September 6.
2. Statistik A:9 p 16.
The employers in the mechanical establishments organized an association on June 7, 1902. This association was in effect an outgrowth of an association which had been in existence since 1896.

The method of organization in this association is as follows: The country is divided into four districts and each of these districts has a directorate of its own. Above these, there is a joint directorate consisting of two representatives from each district. Disputes and all matters of importance are first submitted to the district directorates, but if no settlement can be reached there, or if the question involves several districts, the matter is referred to the central directorate. The following table shows the development of this association.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Employers</th>
<th>Workingmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>16,577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>20,064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>23,212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Employers</td>
<td>Workingmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>25,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>1909</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Central Employers' Association.

The Central Employers' Association was developed from a previous loose association and was organized in September 1903. The members of this association are principally employers in the building trades. The method of organization is similar to that of the second association discussed. The association in 1904 numbered some 400 employers. In 1905, this number had increased to 1561 and in 1909, it had increased to 2000. The number of workingmen employed by the association in 1909 was about 45,000.

DENMARK

The central employers' association, called the Danish Employers' and Masters' Association, is the only association of any importance in Denmark. This association is organized on the trade basis, each trade being organized separately, and these in turn being combined into the central association.

The association embraces in all eighty-nine subordinate employers'
The General Power Company

The General Power Company has developed a new method of measuring and controlling power consumption in industrial plants. This method, known as the "Power Monitor," allows for precise measurement of electricity use and helps companies optimize their energy consumption.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Consumption</th>
<th>Power Monitor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1,200,000 kWh</td>
<td>1,200,000 kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1,300,000 kWh</td>
<td>1,300,000 kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1,400,000 kWh</td>
<td>1,400,000 kWh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Power Monitor has been shown to reduce energy usage by up to 20% in most cases. This has led to significant cost savings and a positive impact on the environment.

For more information about the Power Monitor, please contact your local General Power representative.
associations and thirty-four individual employers. Of the latter, twenty-six are corporations. The employers who are members of the association had in their employ on January 15, 1909 some 72,000 workingmen. As the total number of workingmen in the industries where unionism has been introduced, was about 236,000 in 1906, it is evident that the employers' association is a relatively strong organization.
Collective contracts when classified on broad principles are of two kinds, (1) Contracts in which at least one party consists of a group of men each of whom in reality draws up an individual contract but acts in consort with others of the group when so doing, and (2) contracts in which at least one party consists of a group of men or representatives of such a group who act as a person or unit in making a contract.

In the first case the collectivity consists only in the harmony of action between the various members of a group who act with a common understanding in making their contracts. It does not therefore bring into question the legal nature of the group. In the second case the group, thru its representatives, acts as unit when making contracts which are binding upon all its members. The question then arises as to what position in law the association will hold when the contract is violated. What would happen, for instance, if the group fails to force its members to comply with the provisions of the contract? Has the other party to the contract a legal claim to damages against the group, be it an association or union, which in this way violates its contract or does the claim lie against the individual members? It is the answer to this question that involves the right of association and the legal capacity of the associations or unions.

Collective Contracts, Right of Association, and Legal Capacity of Workingmen's Organizations in Norway.

In Norway it makes no difference from a legal point of view whether a party to a contract consists of one or more persons. It is admitted, however, by the authority for this statement that it has been a doubtful question even

1. Indst. om Voldgift i arbeidstvistigheder - Bilag 3 p 4.
among the most prominent men in the labor movement whether the labor unions were held to be legal persons. He also states that attempts have been made by employers to interpret collective contracts in such a way as to embrace only those workingmen who were connected with the conflict which was the direct cause of the contract. At present, however, it is the prevalent opinion that the unions and not the individuals composing them are the real parties to the contracts.

The collective contracts, here as elsewhere, do not attempt to fix the wages of the individual workingmen or to determine any other conditions which vary for each individual but seek only to determine the general conditions upon which the members of the two contracting parties must base their individual contracts. The individual upon joining a labor union or an employers' association binds himself to act in accordance with the present and future decisions of the union or association as long as he remains a member.

The course to be taken by a union or employers' association against a member who violates a collective contract is to force him to comply with its provisions, and if he fails to do this to expel him from membership. If a member of a union or employers' association violates a collective contract and the organization neither forces him to comply nor expels him from membership, the wronged party has cause for action. An example of this would be when an employer belonging to an association employed a non-union man, and thereby violated a collective contract specifying that only organized men might be employed. The other party to the contract, provided the employers' association did not enforce compliance or expel the offender, will then have cause for action and can follow any one of three courses. It may enforce compliance with the contract by fines, have an injunction issued against the continuance of the individual contract, or claim damages for the violation of the collective contract.

In case any person or persons belonging to a union and working under a collective contract should become dissatisfied and quit work, this would not be
considered a violation of the contract even if a majority of the workmen should do likewise, provided it can be shown that the workingmen did not leave their work in unison in order to create strike conditions and did not hinder the filling of the vacant positions with other labor. It must also be clear that the workmen leaving their work had no intention of taking up their former positions again but had left them in order to find work elsewhere.

Another important phase of the collective contract is that such a contract when made with a union as a party to the same applies to all workingmen engaged by the employer whether they are organized or not.

Collective contracts have been striven for by the labor unions in Norway since the very beginning of the labor movement. The oldest contract of such a nature was entered into by the Typographical Union of Christiania and the book publishers in February 1873. At the close of the eighties several other unions, i.e. the cabinet workers and the pattern makers had entered into such contracts.

The employers, at first, were very much opposed to these contracts, but the opposition became less and less, so that in the beginning of the nineties collective contracts were common among the handicraft trades in the larger cities. Since then the collective contract has become so general that it embraces almost all trades and industrial unions in the country. The organized workingmen report for 1909 the existence of 420 collective contracts embracing some 40,000 men. 1 Employers may still be found who refuse to enter into collective contracts with labor unions but this is now an exception and not the rule. 2

**The right of association.**

Although there has never been any attempt made in Norway to prohibit the association of workingmen by means of legal enactment, it was for a long time the common sentiment that any association which sought to prevent free competition between workingmen, particularly, when it resulted in a strike was either a

1. Bilagg I til vold gifts komiteens indstilling -Fag foreningarne av O.O.Lian.
2. Indst. Voldgift, 1909, Bilag 3 p 4
disturbance of the peace which justified state interference or an evil with
reference to the economic welfare of the country which also warranted the oppo-
sition of the state. It required a long time before the attempts on the part of
the workingmen to combine came to be regarded as wholly permissible. 1 The state
opposition to the early labor movement under the leadership of Thrane is the
clearest example of the early attitude in Norway.

At present it would appear that the right of association is so fixed
by long usage that there should be no fear on the part of any one that this right
might be endangered at some future time. That such is the case, however, appears
from the fact that even as late as 1909, the Labor Party still retained as a
part of its working program, the enactment of a law guaranteeing the right of
association. Since there has been no attempt made within recent years, as far
as the writer knows, to restrict the right of association, we may conclude that
the attempt on the part of the workingmen to establish this right by statute law
is the expression of a desire on their part to surround the right with all pos-
sible guards.

The only time the question has been taken up for consideration by the
administration was in 1902-1903, when a measure was proposed which provided for
the establishment by law of the right of association. The measure as it was
originally framed received the support of the labor unions, but was so changed
by the Odelathing that the workingmen were lead to fear that the measure as it
now stood would endanger their right of association instead of aid it. The
workingmen's organizations as a consequence opposed the passage of the bill.

1. Ibid Voldgift, 1909.
2. Ot. Prop. No. 11-- Indst. 0. XIII.
Collective Contracts, Right of Association and Legal Capacity of Workingmen's Organization in Sweden.

A careful study of collective contracts has been made in Sweden by the Kommers Kollegium. It states that the collective contract, though very prevalent, is still a developing institution. Wherefore it is difficult to give an exact definition. The definition which it does give is as follows: A collective contract is a series of general rules which have reference to the relation of the employer to employee and vice versa, and which have been drawn up as a result of an agreement between an employer, a group of employers, an association of employers or a group of associations on the one hand, and a group of workingmen, associated in one or more organizations on the other. The principal characteristics of a collective contract are, therefore, (1) that it is a group of general rules, (2) that these rules have a direct bearing on the relation existing between the employer and the employee, and (3) that this contract is a result of an agreement between one or more employers on the one hand and a number of workingmen on the other.

The following table shows the extent to which the collective contract prevailed in Sweden at the beginning of the year 1905.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>No. of Collective Contracts</th>
<th>No. of Workingmen involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mines, factories, and handicrafts</td>
<td>1376</td>
<td>164,983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building trades</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>46,391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Work</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>9,235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and commerce</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>32,005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2004</strong> (1)</td>
<td><strong>255,950</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report concludes that from 45% to 50% of all the workingmen employed in all industries excepting agriculture, lumbering, commerce and transportation were in positions to which collective contracts applied. Of all the contracts, 1. Arbetsstatistik A: 5 Stockholm 1910.
were between organizations of employers and organizations of employees:
35.5% were between individual employers and organizations of employees, and 9.9% were between several employers and organizations of workingmen. Two contracts were between organizations of employers and unorganized workingmen and eighty contracts were between parties neither of which were organized. The investigation also shows that there is a tendency toward having the collective contracts entered into and signed by the chief organizations on either side which is particularly true of the organized workingmen.

The collective contract has not been legislated upon in Sweden but the prevalence of this institution has created for it a place in the common law of the land. The present legal basis of the collective contract is the legal capacity of the contracting parties so that the whole question is intimately connected with the question of the right of association and the legal capacity of the associations. In none of these spheres has any legislation been enacted, although, repeated attempts have been to legislate in this field.

In 1910, a bill came before Parliament which proposed to regulate the collective contract but it was so bitterly opposed by the organized workingmen that it failed to become a law. The writer has been informed by letter that a similar bill has appeared again this year and that the organized forces are lined up against it in the same way as last year. The bill which in its principal features prescribes the nature of a collective contract and the penalty in case of violation is opposed by the organized workingmen because of a fear that it will lead to discrimination against them. Since the law will be interpreted by capitalistic courts, the workingmen fear that the law will be against them and in favor of the employees.

In regard to the legal capacity of the workingmen’s organizations and the employers’ associations, the courts have generally held that such organizations have the right to enter into contracts, to sue and be sued, etc. Since the
enactment of the law of 1895, however, which had as its purpose the registration of associations created for pecuniary purposes, this practice of the courts has become less certain.¹

In 1899, accordingly, Parliament requested the administration to investigate the question and to bring in a bill on the subject. In 1901, a committee was appointed in pursuance of this request and in 1903 this committee made its report.² The bill presented was revised by the department in charge but was not forwarded to Parliament until 1910. In the meantime (1904) a bill proposing an investigation of the feasibility of registering employers' associations and workingmen's organizations had been defeated.

The bill, as it was presented in 1910, consisted of two parts, namely, the registration of associations for pecuniary profit and registration of associations not for pecuniary profit. The bill met with opposition on two points in particular. The first objection was that, though a law providing for the registration of non-pecuniary associations might be desirable, it was not advisable to have the registration of the two kinds of associations provided for in the same law. The second objection was that no law on the registration of this class of associations was needed.³

The latter position was taken by the parliamentary representatives of the workingmen's organizations. The workingmen's organizations differed from the employers' associations on this subject as the latter were heartily in favor of compulsory registration. Logically it would seem that the workingmen's organizations and the employers' associations would profit alike by registration, but it is the opinion of the organized workingmen that the employers would for some reason or other fare the better. The places where discrimination could come in would be in the framing of the measure and in its interpretation by the courts.

¹ Arbetare Lagstiftning p. 136
² Andra Kammaren förhandlingar Motion No. 55.
³ Andra Kammarenförhandlingar Motion No. 55 p. 57.
In consequence of the opposition manifested, the measure was defeated in Parliament, but at the same time that this measure was defeated, another act was substituted which resubmitted the question to the administration and requested a new registration bill to apply to non-pecuniary associations.

Right of Association.

According to the Swedish Law, the right of association is held to be a common citizen right based on the general statement in Article sixteen of the constitution. To join or to establish a labor union, therefore, is recognized as a legal right which may not be denied any citizen. The legal basis for this right, however, is not considered satisfactory by the organized workingmen and it is their desire, accordingly, to strengthen the right of making it statutory. That the fears of the organized workingmen are not unfounded is shown by the statement made by a committee on law to which a measure proposing to guarantee this right to every citizen was submitted. The statement was to the effect that the guarantee of this right would be an extraordinary encroachment upon the freedom of individual contract.  

Another basis for the attitude taken by the organized workingmen is the great number of labor conflicts which have as their bone of contention this very right of association. Although the workingmen are desirous of having a law passed which would guarantee the right of association, and would be safer with such a law on the statute books, it seems to the writer, that the right of association is now so firmly fixed by custom that there is very little danger of its being limited or denied.

Measures proposing the guaranteeing of the right of association were presented in 1902, 1904 and 1905. All of these measures were defeated.

1. Arbetare lagstiftning p 139
2. Motion Andra Kammaren Nr. 37 p 53 1904
3. " " " 127
4. " " " 137
5. " " " 127
Collective contracts, right of association and legal capacity of unions in Denmark.

In Denmark, the collective contract has become very prevalent due to the strong organization of workingmen and employers. In this country, the question of the legal capacity of the organizations has not been so unsettled as in the other Scandinavian countries, and as a result there has been very little agitation for legislation along these lines. The courts have held that a labor organization could enter into a contract and that it would be liable for damages in case of violation. The difficulty, however, has been for the labor organization to prove damages. When the employer violates the contract by reducing wages or making other stipulations which the individual worker accepts, the labor organization cannot prove that it has been damaged in as much as the conditions were freely accepted by the individual. In case of violation of a collective contract by strike or lockout, the wronged party has recourse at law when it can be shown that the officers of the organization have ordered, abetted or recognized the strike or lockout or when damages can be proved. No action, however, can be taken if the strike or lockout was not in any way recognized by the organization. 1

The law of 1910 which established a court of arbitration did much to improve the legal character of the collective contract. As will be noted by referring to the discussion of this law, it is no longer necessary to prove damages in case of violation of a collective contract. This law lays down the conditions which entitle the complainant to bring the question of a violated contract before the court. If the charge is sustained, a fine will be imposed and the matter rectified even if damages cannot be proved.

With reference to the right of association of workingmen, it may be said that this right is so firmly established that no thought of strengthening it by legislation is entertained.

1. Beretning fra Fællesudvalget af August, 1908 udg. arbeidsstridigheder.
Ch.II. Child Labor Legislation.

Child Labor Legislation in Norway.

Barring enactments of an early date with reference to trade matters, it may be said that the question of child labor was the first labor problem to receive extensive attention and be taken up for consideration by the legislative assembly. The Norwegian legislators, in interesting themselves in this problem before all others, were following the same course that had been pursued in all the other industrial countries. It is very interesting to note how the question of child labor has been the initiatory step in the labor legislative movement of the 19th century. It is also interesting to study the causes leading up to the enactment of child labor legislation and making this form of legislation possible when the people were still unprepared to enact other labor measures of equal or of greater importance.

In analyzing the motives which actuated the advocates of child labor legislation in Norway, we find that the principal ones, in the order of their importance, were: the humanitarian motive, the educative motive, the social welfare motive and the class interest motive. The fact to be noted is the relatively unimportant part played by the class interest motive and the relatively important part played by the purely humanitarian motive. As the labor legislative movement progresses, this relation of causes gradually changes until we find the two reversed in importance. In the Scandinavian countries, it appears to the writer after careful observation, that the principal motive power be prohibited and (2) that the labor of children between twelve and fourteen years of age be limited to six hours, so arranged that they did not collide with the school period which was to be at least eighteen hours per week.

In 1875, the department had also requested the secretary of the Central

1.oth. Prp. No. 15. 1883.
Statistical Bureau to investigate the question which he did in a very efficient manner. His report which was submitted in 1877 recommended that children under twelve years of age should not be allowed to work outside of the home; that children twelve to fifteen years of age should be allowed to work only six and one half hours daily and that young persons fifteen to eighteen years of age should be allowed to work for only eleven hours daily. The working hours were not to collide with school hours and children and young persons were to be prohibited from engaging in night work.

In 1883, the department of the interior presented a bill to the Odelsting which provided for the regulation of child labor to the extent proposed by the above mentioned report. The department justified its position in making this invasion upon the rights of parents and of industry on the ground that the experience in other countries as well as the experience in Norway had made it evident that unrestricted child labor had a deleterious effect on the education of the child, jeopardized his health and seriously affected his physical development. It was further pointed out that the neighboring countries, Sweden and Denmark, had found this state of affairs so urgent as to necessitate legislation.

Reports from the factory districts in Norway also showed that many children were then employed and that their employment had an evil effect on the child. The department recognized the fact that Norway was still to a large extent an non-industrial country where child labor had not as yet come to be a great social evil and where it might be desirable to secure the cheapest labor possible. It saw the force of the argument that many parents were in need of the returns which their children could bring in, but insisted, in regard to the first observation, that Norway would soon be an industrial country, and to the second, that the disadvantage of child labor to society out-weighted the advantages of it to the parents. Nothing came of the above measure and a similar measure presented the following year shared the same fate.

The image contains a page of text that is not legible due to the quality of the image. It appears to be a page from a document, but the content cannot be accurately transcribed due to the image's resolution and clarity.

In 1885, the child labor question was handed over, together with the other labor legislation questions, to the Royal Labor Commission. This Commission made its report relative to factory regulations, in which the child labor regulations were included, in 1887. The matter was then taken under consideration by the department which presented a bill in 1890. In 1892, the measure was passed by Parliament.

The commission in outlining the phases which the factory regulations should cover, stated in regard to the child labor regulations, that it should embrace, the prohibition of child labor under a certain age; the restriction of the number of working hours for children above this age limit; provision for suitable periods of rest and the prohibition of night work in unhealthy employments for children and young persons.

The regulations of the law of 1892 regarding the labor of children were as follows:

Children under twelve years of age must not be employed in establishments which come under the law. Children from twelve to fourteen years of age shall be employed only when they are in possession of a certificate from a physician stating that their health is not such as to render them unfit for the work they are intended to perform, and when they have received the permission of the inspection authorities. They shall not be employed more than six hours a day and their work must consist of light tasks that are not injurious to their health and do not retard their development. The certificate can be secured from the physician of the commune who is entitled to fifty ore for it, this to be paid by the employer.

Young persons from fourteen to eighteen years of age shall not be employed more than ten hours per day, and those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen shall be employed only at light work which is not injurious to their

1. 6th. Prp. No. 5, 1890 p. 3
health. Children and young persons under eighteen years of age shall have an intermission in the morning and afternoon of at least one half hour after a working period of four and one half hours. Young persons shall, in addition, have an interval of rest of at least one hour for dinner when the working day exceeds eight hours. During mealtimes, children and young persons shall not be permitted to work or to remain in the work-rooms unless the machinery is at rest or the inspectors authorize their remaining there. Children and young persons under eighteen shall not be allowed to work before six A.M. or after eight P.M.

Children and young persons who have not completed their obligatory school requirements may not be employed during the hours intended for school instruction nor during the hours immediately preceding this time. Employers must procure for each child employed by them the certificate required by article sixteen of the school law of June 26, 1889, and article eighteen of the law of the same date applying to city schools. The school administration is authorized, where it deems it necessary to order the hours of labor to be more restricted than the law requires.

With reference to the conditions under which the child labors, the law stipulates the following: Children may not be employed below ground in mines and other similar occupations; during the day time they may not be employed in the cleaning, oiling or supervision of machinery, nor in the changing of belts, pulleys, etc., while the machinery is in motion, unless there is absolutely no danger. Young persons may not be employed in tending steam boilers or machines requiring the exercise of great precaution.

An employer may not engage a child or young person under eighteen years of age until he has assured himself of the age of the applicant by examining the certificate of birth or other certificate emanating from a public authority. He must also keep a record of all the children and young persons in
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his employ, showing their names, ages, residence, the time when they entered and left his employ, the name and occupation of their parents or guardians and the hours, if any, set apart for study. The records and the certificates required must always be produced upon the request of the inspectors. The competent department can order that the form and manner in which this record shall be kept be changed to suit its needs.

Exceptions to the provisions of the law were to be permitted in the following cases. (1) In establishments where the nature of the work require it, young persons may be permitted to work at any time of the day and night, provided the number of hours does not exceed ten. In such cases, the provision of the law with reference to the periods of rest may also be modified. (2) In case the operation of an establishment is interrupted or threatens to be interrupted by some occurrence of nature, an accident or other unexpected event, the employer may be authorized to increase the number of working hours of young persons in his employ and to have them work at any period of the day. (3) Industries which are subject to a press of orders during certain times of the year may be permitted to increase the number of working hours of young persons. (4) The inspector is authorized to permit young persons to work ten and one half hours per day on the first five days of the week, provided the work is very light and the total number of working hours does not exceed sixty per week. The first, third and fourth exceptions enumerated must be authorized by the inspector and passed upon by the department in charge. The second exception goes into operation without any special sanction provided the period does not exceed two days or the extra work is needed to save human life.

Amendments.

The first amendment affecting the child labor regulations of the act of 1892, was passed July 21st, 1894. This was in effect a retrogressive measure which empowered the King to increase the number of working hours of children,
between the ages of twelve and fourteen who are employed during summer vacations in mines and certain kinds of laundry work. The number of hours set by the law was six and the present amendment permitted this to be increased to nine.

On June 5, 1896, a Royal resolution in accordance with this amendment was issued which granted the permission to Ros Copper works and on June 25th the following year, the permission was granted to another company.

The next measure which contained regulations with reference to child labor was the law regulating labor in bakeries, passed in 1897. This measure prohibited the employment in bakeries of children under fourteen years of age. It further prohibited the night work for young persons and placed the maximum working day for these at twelve hours.

The general factory act of 1892, which included the child labor regulations, was found wanting as will be seen later, from the very first, and repeated efforts were put forth to have it amended. Among the objections raised, one was that it did not restrict sufficiently the labor of children. The factory act which was passed in 1909, however, did not increase the restrictions to a very great extent.

An extension of the law was secured by extending the general field to which the law should apply so as to include all the handicrafts and similar industries employing five men or more in addition to the factory industries to which the previous law applied. The direct changes in the child labor regulations made by the 1909 act are: (1) that children between the ages of twelve and fourteen shall be employed only five hours per day at light and healthy work instead of six hours as permitted by the act of 1892 and nine hours as permitted by the amendment of 1894; (2) that children who have not completed the common school course shall not be kept at work for a total of more than seven hours including their school hours; (3) that the total number of hours per week shall be fifty-eight instead of sixty for young persons; (4) that night work
may be done when absolutely necessary only by young persons over sixteen instead of fourteen; (5) that inspectors may grant permission for such night work but that the hours of work in such cases may not exceed eight instead of ten. The amendment to the old law of July 21, 1894 was incorporated in the new law but was revised in such a manner as to include young persons only and to omit any reference to the working hours.

To sum up the regulations having a bearing upon child labor at the present time: the labor of children under twelve is prohibited in such industries as come under the law; children between the ages of twelve and fourteen are allowed to work five hours per day provided the child is not attending school in which case less time or none at all may be spent at work. Young persons may work fifty-eight hours per week as a maximum; night work is allowed only in case of young persons over sixteen years of age and then only in urgent cases; children under sixteen may not be employed in mines during the day time; children may not be employed to clean, oil or supervise machinery while it is in motion, unless such work be absolutely safe, and finally, children and young persons may not have charge of steam boilers, engines and the like.

Position of the organized workingmen and employers relative to child labor regulations.

The position of the organized workingmen toward the regulation of child labor under the present law is favorable as far as its extension to small industries and handicrafts are concerned, but is unfavorable in regard to several of the provisions of the law. They desire to make the prohibition of night work for children stricter and to decrease the number of working hours of young persons to nine hours per day.¹

¹ The Central Employers’ Association is against the extension of the

¹ Dags orden 1910 p. 106.
application of the law to include handicrafts, asserting that the work of children from ten to twelve years of age should be permitted, and that the maximum of fifty-eight hours per week for young persons was harmful in that it restricted the working hours of apprentices.¹

The discussion of the enforcement of the child labor regulations will be taken up in greater detail in the discussion of the act in general. It will be noted that the inspection has been far from satisfactory due to the insufficiency of the number of inspectors provided for by the act. The legislators became aware of this defect in the law and took steps to remedy it in the revision of the act.

Table² showing the number of children; young persons, and total number of workingmen employed in the industries coming under the factory act of 1892.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Factories</th>
<th>Children 12-14</th>
<th>Young Persons 14-16</th>
<th>No. of Workingmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>5670</td>
<td>55,173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>3173</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>2695</td>
<td>79,457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>4076</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>3179</td>
<td>99,145</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table showing the number of children in percentage of the total number of workingmen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Children 12-14</th>
<th>Young Persons 14-16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>1.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>1.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>.65%</td>
<td>1.07%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These tables are interesting as they show that while the number of workingmen has increased, from 55,173 in 1895 to 99,145 in 1907, the number of children between the ages of twelve and fourteen has decreased relatively from .9% to .65% and the number of young persons has increased to a slight extent from 1.02% to 1.07%.

1. 0th. Prp. No. 43, 1904-5, pp 29 & 30
2. Reports of Factory inspectors. 1895-1907.
Child Labor Legislation in Sweden.

The regulation of child labor, with the exception of the Match Factory Act of 1570, constituted the earliest form of labor legislation enacted in Sweden. Certain child labor regulations, particularly the restrictions as to age, were imposed long before the advent of the factory system, but these disappeared as far as enforcement is concerned with the decay of the handicraft system. As examples of these early regulations, we have the handicraft rules of 1621 and 1720. The former placed the minimum age limit of children employed in the crafts at fourteen, or there about, and the latter fixed this limit strictly at fourteen years. Certain other regulations of the 18th century, in 1739 and 1770, fixed the minimum age limit at ten and twelve years respectively.

When the first freedom of trade measure was passed in 1846, a provision was inserted which forbade the employment of children under twelve years of age, and six years later an additional measure was passed which prohibited night work for children from nine P.M. until five A.M. Of this latter measure a memorial to the throne in 1856 stated that it was wholly ineffective because of the small size of the fines and the lack of complaints.

In 1864, the provisions of the act of 1846 and the order of 1852 were included in the principal freedom of trade act enacted that year but were of no practical importance since no effective means of enforcing them was provided.

In 1857, Parliament had requested the administration to take under consideration the question of child labor but nothing came of this request. Finally, in 1875, a Royal Commission was appointed to investigate child labor conditions and to prepare a measure regulating the labor of children. This committee made its report April 19, 1877. On November 15, 1881, a royal order was issued which

3 & 4. Ibid 1 & 2.
5. Motion No. 191 Andra Kammaren 1891.
was based to a great extent on the bill presented by this commission.

The royal order, although it lacked means for the enforcement of its provisions, was strongly opposed by the employing class.\(^1\) Even after the order had been issued it continued to meet with much opposition. In the first place, a petition was circulated which had as its purpose the postponement of the time when the regulations were to go into effect. In this, the opposition was successful and the time was postponed until June 1, 1882 and later, in certain industries, to Nov. 1, 1883. In the second place, the attack was directed against certain provisions of the law with the result that an order was issued April 13, 1883, which exempted saw mills and lumber industries. The following June, another order was issued which authorized boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen to work twelve hours per day in mines and metal works instead of ten. It was also specified that this time need not be between the hours specified in the general order of 1881, provided the young persons are allowed eight hours rest at night and are not required to work two nights in succession.\(^2\)

The act of 1881.

The provisions of the royal order of 1881 were as follows: No child under twelve years of age shall be employed in a factory or other establishment. No child between the ages of twelve and fourteen years shall be employed unless he has completed his primary school course and has the necessary health and strength to perform the work required. Children of this age must not be permitted to work in factories more than six hours in a day broken by an interval of rest of at least one half hour's duration.

Young persons from fourteen to eighteen years of age must not be employed in factories more than ten hours a day, broken by intervals of rest of at least two hours of which one half must be before three P.M.

Young persons shall not be employed below ground in mines or quarries. The employment of young persons in work that is especially dangerous or fatiguing shall be regulated by special royal orders.

Children and young persons must not remain during their intervals of rest in rooms where work is being performed and may not be employed in the cleaning of machinery. No child or young person may be employed at night between the hours of eight P.M. and six A.M.

Exceptions to the foregoing provisions may be accorded to employers for not more than four weeks per year, but in no case shall children be permitted to work after eight P.M. and before six A.M. All employers must be in possession of the necessary certificates of the age, education and physical condition of each child and young person employed by them. A copy of the law must be posted in the establishment together with a statement of the working hours.

The enforcement of the law was entrusted to the public health authorities of the cities and the local councils in the communes. Infringements of the law were to be punished by fines.

The general order of 1831 as far as the regulations are concerned, was a fairly good measure. It lacked, however, means for its enforcement and became for this reason a so-called paper law. The large cities were partial exceptions since they attempted to enforce the regulations to some extent.

The general feeling was that the law was ineffective, and as a consequence of this, the Kommers Kollegium\(^1\) was requested, as early as 1865, to make an investigation. In the meantime, the first International labor Legislation Convention was held at Bern, in 1890. Sweden was represented at this convention, and as a direct result of this representation, a committee was appointed to revise the child labor regulations. This committee reported Mar. 11, 1892, and recommended the revision of two measures, viz: the phosphorus match act of 1870 and the child labor measure of 1861. No action was taken on the first question.

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1. The Central Statistical Bureau.
This year a bill was presented to the Parliament and the following year, the first child labor law was passed. Parliament now took the question of child labor regulation out of the hands of the King where it had hitherto reposed and made the question a purely legislative one. Even after this change was made, the old order still continued to apply to handicrafts. The new act applied only to industries operated in a factory manner.¹

The act of 1900 (Oct. 17) was not much of an improvement on the regulations of 1861 as far as the nature of the regulations is concerned. Its great merit was the provision it made for the enforcement of the regulations by factory inspectors appointed for this special purpose.

The act forbids the employment of children under twelve years of age in any work except outdoor work at mines and sawmills. Children of eleven years may be employed for six hours per day at this kind of work provided they have received a physician's certificate stating that they can perform such work without any danger to themselves, and have in addition a statement showing that they have completed their primary school work.

In regard to young persons twelve to eighteen years of age, the law provides certain regulations for those under thirteen years and less strict regulations for those between the ages of thirteen and eighteen. Young persons under thirteen may work only six hours per day. The others may work for ten hours per day. No young person, however, may engage in night work between the hours of seven P.M. and six A.M. unless the industry in which he is employed is of such a nature that it must be kept in operation day and night. In such industries, as well as in lumber industry, boys over fourteen years of age may be employed at night work for twelve hours per day.

¹ Sv. Arbetare lagstiftning p. 72.
No young person may be employed to tend a boiler or engine or other
dangerous machinery, and no young person under fourteen may be employed in mines
or quarries. The provincial authorities also have the right to forbid the employ-
ment of young persons in other dangerous industries whenever such action is
recommended by the inspector. Another regulation which is important is that
every young person must be in possession of a certificate showing that he has com-
pleted his primary school work, and must also procure yearly statements from a
credited physician certifying that the work he is engaged in is not detrimental
to his health.

Such in brief are the provisions of the child labor law of 1900. In
many ways they are very unsatisfactory. The age limit of twelve years is not a
high limit at the present day and the exception which permits children of eleven
years of age to work is certainly out of place in modern legislation. The ex-
ception which permits the night work of boys over fourteen years of age for a
period of twelve hours daily is also a negative feature in the law.

Besides the order of 1881 and the act of 1900, several minor orders
have been issued which regulate the work of children in certain lines of work.
The first of these orders was an ordinance of July 10, 1891, which forbade the
employment of children for the selling of certain wares at night. An ordinance
of Dec. 4, 1896 replaced this ordinance. Another order of Dec. 10, 1897 con-
tained a prohibition of the employment of children at Public shows.1

Both of these prohibitions apply to boys under fourteen years of age
and girls under fifteen. The ordinance of 1896 has reference to the distribution
and sale of goods on the streets and in public places. Such a prohibition, how-
ever, does not become effective unless the local authorities decide to have it
apply to their community. The prohibition may include the hours from eight P.M.
to eight A.M. every day and for the entire twenty-four hours on Sundays and holi-
days. The ordinance of 1897 against the employment of children at public shows

has reference to rope dancing, organ grinding and similar entertainments where admission is charged.

Enforcement.

In regard to the enforcement of the child labor regulations the fact that the number of factories inspected annually amounts on an average to only ten per cent of the total number of factories speaks for itself. In 1906, the number of factories were 19,701 and the number of inspections, 2,126. It is, of course, impossible to expect that any law should be very satisfactorily enforced when the inspection force is so insufficient that a factory is inspected on an average of only once in ten years.

In 1906, the inspectors found violations of the child labor regulations in 211 establishments and these violations concerned 565 persons. The largest number of these were violations of the regulation that each employer must register those persons in his employ who are under eighteen years of age and the next largest number were violations of the provision that each child must be provided with a health and school certificate.

The following table shows the number of children employed in 1906 and the number of those who had procured a physicians certificate for this year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Under 12</th>
<th>12 to 13</th>
<th>13 to 16</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1271</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number examined by a physician in 1906 was 27331 for the boys and 9996 for the girls.

The law on child labor regulation has been subject to an investigation during recent years by a committee appointed Jan. 20, 1905. This committee made its report Dec. 9, 1909. The principal recommendations made were, to substitute thirteen years for twelve as the minimum age limit, to raise the age limit of

1. Yrkesinspektionsens verksamhet i 1905 1 5 & 6.
2. Yrkesinspektionsens verksamhet i 1905 p 16 - 7.
those permitted to work under ground from fourteen to fifteen years and to ex-
tend the law to apply to handicrafts as well as to other industries. The com-
mittee points out the numerous industries to which the present law does not
apply and states that the regulation of child labor in handicrafts which is in
the charge of the local health boards signifies practically nothing. Compared
with other advanced countries, the extent to which the Swedish law applies is
extremely limited.1 The committee also states in regard to the age minimum that
the representatives of the workingmen in every case urged that the minimum es-
tablished by the present law be raised. The employers to some extent also stated
that such a change would not be opposed by them.2

Child Labor Legislation in Denmark.

Child labor legislation in Denmark dates from the enactment, May 3, 1873,
of a law regulating the employment of children and young persons in factories.
This law provides that all establishments carrying on work according to factory
methods and employing persons under eighteen years of age shall be subject to
the government supervision and regulations provided by the act. The most im-
portant of these provisions are as follows:6 Children under ten years of age may
not be employed in factories as above described. Children between ten and four-
ten years of age must not be employed more than six and one half hours in each
twenty-four inclusive of a rest of at least one half hour, and they must not be
permitted to work before six A.M. or after eight P.M. If they work before
eleven A.M., they must not be employed after one P.M. either in the same or in
another establishment.

Young persons of both sexes between fourteen and eighteen years of age
must not be allowed to work more than twelve hours daily, or between the hours

1. Revision of Yrkesförelagen p. 54
2. Ibid. p 105.
of 9 P.M. and 5 A.M. There must also be provided intervals of rest of a total duration of not less than two hours coming between the hours of eight A.M. and 6 P.M. — one and one half hours of which must be included in the twelve hours that they are permitted to work.

Children and young persons must not be allowed to remain during their meal hours in rooms in which work is being carried on. Where dust or other injurious substances are generated in the prosecution of the work, the health authorities can order that the children and young persons be provided with a clean room in which to pass their intervals of rest.

Children must not be employed on Sundays and church holidays. Young persons of the female sex and the children, must, as far as possible, be kept apart from the adult male workers, both during working hours and during intervals of rest.

In the case of work, which is especially unhealthy, or requires the exercise of great strength, the Minister of the Interior can, by order, fix the age at which children and young persons can be employed only under certain conditions at a higher limit than that set by the law, or entirely prohibit the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age in such work. The Minister can also, whenever the conditions are sufficiently favorable to warrant it, grant exemption from the general restrictions; but in no case can he permit children to be employed at night.

Before employing a child, or young person, the employer must inform himself concerning the child's age and state of health. The age is to be established through the birth certificate, which must be delivered gratuitously by the authorities, and the state of health through a certificate from a duly authorized physician, stating that the child's health is such as to permit of its employment without injury to its health in the work for which it is intended. The physician is entitled to a remuneration for his services which must be paid.
by the employer.

Children who have not completed their school requirements must not be employed in the establishments covered by this law during the hours when they should be in school, nor during, at least, one hour preceding this time. Each child must, therefore, be provided with a certificate from the teacher of the school which he attends, stating the hours when he should attend, and the employer must not employ a child unless the latter is in possession of such a certificate.

In all establishments comprehended under the law, there must be kept a register showing the name, age and address of every child and young person employed. In the case of children, there must also be shown the name and address of the children's parents or guardians, the hours when they should be at school, and other details thought necessary by the Minister of the Interior.

The factories must be so maintained, the machinery so installed, and the work so carried on that the health and lives of the employees will be protected as far as possible while at work and during the time they remain in the establishment. All the moving parts of machinery and all engines with which children or young persons can come in contact in the course of their work or in moving about, must be substantially enclosed as far as the nature of the work or machinery will permit, and the removal of the protecting enclosure while the machines are in motion must be prohibited.

For the enforcement of the law, the Minister of the Interior was directed to appoint two inspectors with all the necessary powers. (The place of these officials is now taken by the factory inspectors provided for by the law of 1889).

Infringements of the law are punished by fines varying according to the offense.

A copy of the essential provisions of the act, and the name and address of the inspector of the district must be posted by the employer in a conspicuous place in his factory. The health and local police authorities are furthermore
directed to see that factory buildings are kept in a sanitary condition; that they are well ventilated and that they are not overcrowded. To this end they are empowered to draw up and enforce regulations setting forth more fully the particular conditions that must be observed.

The factory act of 1859 made only a slight change in the child labor regulations. The provisions added by this law were: (1) that children under ten years of age may not be employed in tending agricultural machines included under the law of 1859 unless they are under the immediate supervision of their parents; and (2) that children and young persons under sixteen years of age must not be permitted to tend steam boilers or any machine which has been classified as dangerous by administrative order. Neither must they be allowed to oil, oilen, or examine machinery while it is in motion, nor to change belts, cables, or pulleys, etc., unless use is made of special appliances.

With this amendment of 1859, the child labor regulations of 1873 remained in force until 1901, when a new law was enacted. In the meantime, however, child labor regulations, of some importance had been inserted in a bakery act of 1897. (Aug.6) This act was revised in 1906. (April 24).

The principal feature of the act of 1901 was that it raised the age limit from ten to twelve years. An attempt was made to place the minimum age at fourteen years when the bill was first introduced, but it met with too many objections from the industrial interests. The old arguments that the poor families need the earnings which the child can bring home; that work is better for the child than freedom to run about the streets, and that the industry of the country cannot compete with other countries if forced to hire men instead of children were all brought into light once more.

Other changes as to working time and age were: (1) that children twelve to fourteen years of age could work only five and one half hours daily instead of six hours; (2) that children who had not completed their school requirements should not be employed during the one and one half hours preceding their school
time instead of one hour; (3) that young persons fourteen to eighteen years of age could be employed only ten hours daily instead of twelve, and (4) that young persons should not be employed between eight P.M. and six A.M. instead of between nine P.M. and five A.M. In regard to the last restriction, the Minister of the Interior may, by order, permit young persons over fifteen years of age to work between eight P.M. and six A.M., when it appears that this is necessary for their apprenticeship in the trade.

The law in that it extended the scope of the regulations to include all handicrafts and industries employing five men or more was a decided improvement over the old law. It also strengthened its provisions by requiring that all exemptions be sanctioned by the labor council. This will give the workingmen's representatives in the council an opportunity to express their opinion and exert their influence.

The factory inspector states in his report for 1902: (1) that the reduction of the working time for children twelve to fourteen years of age from six to five and one half hours had no practical importance since there were only a few instances in which the maximum time was used; (2) that the reduction of the working hours of young persons had practical importance, and that the extension of the prohibition of night work was a distinct advance. It is, of course, unnecessary to state that the changing of the age limit from ten to twelve years and the extension of the law to apply to a wider field has proven very beneficial.

Since the enactment of the law of 1901, a bakeries act, as has been mentioned, was passed in 1906. (April 24). This law forbids the employment of children under fourteen years of age in bakeries. It increases the number of working hours, however, from ten to twelve for young persons. In addition to this, an order of the labor council of June 1, 1906, forbade the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age at certain classes of work in printing.

The inspector's reports show that the employment of children has been on the decrease since the law of 1901 went into operation. In 1902, there were in all some 5,190 employed while in 1907, only 192. The number of young persons employed has also decreased slightly during these years, being 11,217 in 1902, and 10,336 in 1907. As to the effectiveness of the inspection, it is the opinion of the writer that the law has been satisfactorily enforced since 1901. The inspector's report of 1907 show that legal proceedings have been instituted by the government for violation of child labor regulations in twenty-four instances. During the preceding year, the same report states that there were at that time seventy-five instances in which exemptions had been granted to individual employers. Of these, twenty-four applied to half of the year and fifty-one to the whole year. Of the latter, two concerned children exclusively; three to both children and young persons, and forty-six to young persons exclusively. There existed, according to the report, only one exemption from the prohibition of night work for children and young persons. This exemption permitted young persons fifteen to eighteen years of age to work at night in one establishment under certain conditions.

With respect to the bakeries act, it was found that apprentices often fared very ill. Many were required to sleep on the premises and were called upon at irregular intervals to lend a hand at the work. Oftentimes, the evils were not brought to the attention of the inspector because the apprentices feared the consequences.
The importance of keeping in mind the potential consequences of certain actions cannot be overstated. It is crucial to weigh the possible outcomes before making a decision.

In 1940, the government decided to implement a new policy aimed at addressing certain issues. This decision was hotly debated, with many expressing concern about the long-term implications. Despite these concerns, the policy was approved and put into effect.

Over the years, the policy has been evaluated, and it is evident that its implementation has had a significant impact on society. Many believe that the policy was a necessary step to ensure the stability and growth of the country.

However, there are also those who argue that the policy has become outdated and that it is time to reassess its effectiveness. The ongoing debate highlights the importance of considering the potential consequences of our actions.

In conclusion, it is essential to be mindful of the potential outcomes of our decisions. Taking the time to carefully consider the implications can help us make informed choices that benefit us and society as a whole.

Further reading and discussion are recommended to explore the various perspectives on this important issue.
Regulations applying to woman workers in Norway.

The factory act of 1892 provided the following regulations to apply to the women workers: Women may not work during the four weeks following their confinement; they may not be employed below ground in mines and other similar occupations during the day, and they may not be employed in the cleaning, oiling or supervising of machinery while the latter is in motion nor in the changing of belts, pulleys, etc., unless there is absolutely no danger. In regard to the first mentioned restriction, the time will be extended to six weeks unless the woman produces a certificate from a physician showing that she can perform the work in question without endangering her health. The King is furthermore authorized to increase the time limit of four weeks in dangerous employments and to prohibit in a greater measure than the law provides the employment of women in dangerous industries.

The only change made in the regulations governing the employment of women by the act of 1909 was to increase the time during which women could not work after confinement to six weeks. The new act also provided that such public aid as would be made necessary by the above provision should not be considered to be poor relief.

The reports of the labor inspectors show that the number of women employed was 9,635 in 1895, 14,975 in 1900 and 19,191 in 1907. In proportion to the whole number of workingmen coming under the factory act, there has been a slight relative increase in the number of women employed. In 1895, the percentage of women was 1.7%, in 1900 it was 1.89%, and in 1907 it was 1.9%.

The position of the organized workingmen relative to the regulation of the employment of women.

The organized workingmen desire not only to shorten the working day of
women the same as for men by establishing a nine hour day but to prohibit the night work of women entirely. In Norway, as in other countries, the organized workingmen have been in doubt as to the advisability of enacting special regulations for women workers. Many of the organized working women, especially, have maintained that such legislation discriminates against the woman in the labor market. The position of the organized workers as a whole is that such legislation is desirable for society as a whole and for the workingmen as a class even though it might be prejudicial to the interests of some of the present women workers. They state that their position with regard to women workers is merely representative of their position with regard to all workers. Taking the prohibition of night work for women as an example, they state that it is their aim to restrict the night work of men as well, as soon as it will be possible to introduce such a measure.

Regulations applying to women workers in Sweden.

The first regulation to apply to the labor of women in Sweden appeared in the royal order of 1861. This regulation prohibited the employment of women underground in mines and quarries. This regulation remained the only restriction until 1900, when a provision was incorporated in the new law which prohibited the employment of women during the four weeks following their confinement. This provision, however, will not debar a woman from work during this period provided she can procure a physician's certificate showing that the performance of the work in question will not endanger her health.

In 1906, the Labor Legislation Congress held at Bern, agreed to prohibit the night work of women. To this agreement the Swedish representatives had subscribed and it was therefore in order that Parliament should take this question up for consideration. In 1906, a measure was introduced and in 1908, two measures repeating the recommendation of the previous year were presented. In the latter

2. No. 34 of 1st Ch., Nos. 6 & 4 of second chamber.
year, a measure was passed which prohibited the night work of women in certain industries.

The main opposition to this measure centered about the question whether such a measure discriminated against women and impaired their ability to compete on an equal footing with men. In Sweden, as in many other countries, there are many women who champion the woman's cause and are opposed to all measures which would indicate that woman is not an equal with man. Though this position was naturally taken by many women socialists, it is a noteworthy fact that the socialist faction in Parliament favored the passage of the measure and did all in its power to secure the enactment. The advocates of the measure contended that labor legislation is the instrument by means of which the state in its own interest seeks to improve the living conditions of the economically weak, wherefore no cognizance should be taken of the sex question. It was also contended that woman is physically weaker than man and that the state is therefore justified in passing measures which apply to one sex only.

Regulations applying to woman workers in Denmark.

The first regulation of woman labor in Denmark was contained in a minor provision in the law of 1659. This stated that women must not be employed to clean or oil machinery. The law of 1901 added to this lone regulation by stipulating that no woman may work during the four weeks following her confinement unless she can present a physician's certificate showing that she can perform the work without endangering her health or that of her child. It was furthermore decreed that the public aid granted during the four weeks in question should not be held to be poor relief. The bakery act contains the same regulation for the bakery trade and stipulates in addition that no woman under eighteen years of age may be employed after eight P.M. and before six A.M. nor more than ten hours per day.

1. Andra Kammaren III p 42 and 47.
Night work is not forbidden in any case for women over eighteen years of age but in 1906, the Danish representatives at the Bern Convention subscribed to the prohibition of night work for women. From this it may be concluded with comparative certainty that the revision of the factory law in the near future will prohibit the night work of women.¹

¹ Social Demokraten July 29, 1910.
Ch. IV Regulations applying to work on Sunday.

Norway.

The church in Norway has wielded such a great influence that the regulation of Sunday labor was found unnecessary in the past except for religious purposes. The first regulation which appears to have had its source in industrial conditions was issued in 1657. This measure prohibited the baking of bread on Sunday. From that time on no similar regulations were issued until the factory act was passed in 1892.

The provisions of the factory act are as follows: No work must be performed from six P.M. of the day preceding Sunday or any holiday until the next day, unless two holidays follow in succession when work may commence at ten P.M. of the second holiday. Where the nature of the industry or other circumstances render the performance of work absolutely indispensable, work may be done on Sunday provided the Department in charge grants the permission. The worker in such cases must be allowed every other Sunday. Work in connection with urgent repairs can be performed without authorization but the inspector must be notified immediately.

After the passage of the act of 1892, the regulations have been modified to a very slight degree by an order of the Department of the Interior in 1895, an act passed in 1897, and the general revision of the regulations in 1909. The order of 1895 brought the brandy distilleries under the general act and the act of 1897 contained special regulations for bakeries. This act prohibits all work in bakeries on Sundays and holidays from six P.M. of the preceding day until the beginning of the next day with the exception of the preparation of yeast which may continue until twelve P.M. Employers themselves may work until eight P.M. of the preceding day instead of six P.M. The law permits overtime on Sundays and at night in the case of certain holidays or the days immediately preceding them. The councils of the communes with the sanction of the King may grant further ex-
exceptions to the restrictions during certain seasons of the year when the pressure of the work is unusually great.

The law of 1909 seems to have weakened the provisions bearing upon Sunday and holiday labor. It has the merit, however, of stating the exceptions to the law in a very definite manner. In the first place it restates the provision of the old law that men may not be employed from six P.M. of the day preceding the holiday or Sunday until the following day or in case two holidays come in succession until ten P.M. of the second holiday. The act then proceeds to name those industries to which the above regulations do not apply. These are: (1) industries or parts thereof where the work may not be interrupted; (2) work necessary to keep establishments, machines and products from being harmed; (3) creameries and newspaper printing establishments; (4) work connected with firing, repairs and the like, and watch man's work. Persons engaged in these occupations must be allowed every other Sunday off from six P.M. the preceding evening till ten P.M. Sunday evening. As in the previous law work may be done on Sunday whenever extraordinary circumstances require it.

It need scarcely be remarked that the regulations of Sunday labor are very elastic. The law, however, makes it evident that a weekly rest of one day is considered beneficial as a general rule and that encroachments upon this rule can be suffered only as exceptions.

Sweden:

Labor on Sundays and holidays is forbidden in Sweden during fifteen hours of the day. The time embraced in this prohibition is from six A.M. to nine P.M. The religious character of this prohibition is revealed by the fact that it is also included in the criminal law on the violation of religious mandates. The prohibition was originally only a religious matter and it is only in relatively recent times that it has been by economic interests.

1. Svensk Arbetare Lagstiftning p.43.
In Denmark as in the other Scandinavian countries, the influence of the church made work on Sunday prohibitory at an early date. The change in economic conditions, however, brought the matter to the attention of Parliament and in 1876 (Apr. 7) a law was formed which prohibited in a sweeping manner the performance of work on Sunday or Church holidays. By a later law of 1891 (Apr. 1) the provisions of the former act were added to by a prohibition of work in factories but another provision was attached which is far more important. This provision authorized the Minister of the Interior to grant exemptions to industries which are periodic or seasonal in their nature or require uninterrupted work.

In accordance with the last named provision, eight different Ministerial orders were issued permitting work on Sunday or church holidays in various industries. Finally in 1900, (May 9) a general ministerial order which modified very much the requirements of the law of 1891 was issued.

In 1904. (Apr. 22) a new law regulating work on Sundays, etc. was enacted. This law again prohibited Sunday work in general in industrial and commercial occupations. It provided, however, for a permanent exemption of large branches of industries by ministerial order. A notification of Aug. 15 the same year, specified these branches, and other notifications since then (Feb. 1, 1905 and Jan. 22, 1906), have added to the exemptions. As a consequence there exists at present a law prohibiting in general work on Sunday which is so modified by exemptions that it is to a large extent nominal. To the writer it seems that the Danish experience in this connection is very instructive. At three different times, the law has been revised and each time the strong religious sentiment of the past has succeeded in passing a prohibitory law in the statute books. The changing economic conditions, however, have forced themselves upon the law makers and as a result, the exceptions have become just as important as the rule.

FACTORY REGULATIONS.

Factory Regulations in Norway.

Modern labor legislation, excluding by its term, the early legislation relating to trades but including such enactments as apply to handicrafts as well as to factories and other industries, made its first appearance in Norway in the form of a rather specific regulation of Oct. 1857. This measure prohibited the baking of bread on Sunday or holidays. Three years later an act was passed containing some general sanitary regulations. These regulations, contained in article three of the act of May 16, 1860, authorized the health commissioners to lay down certain requirements as to the ventilation of working-rooms and the protection of workingmen in industries injurious to the health. Another regulation of Mar. 14, 1874, provided that where any industry presented unusual danger either to the public or to the workingmen, the authorities could make special provisions to lessen the danger. In addition to these early measures there were several enactments which had reference to the protection of workingmen in mines.

Of the acts referred to, the general acts pertaining to sanitation and industries injurious to health, were never effectually enforced, but remained paper laws. The acts pertaining to labor regulations in mines, on the other hand, were of more importance since the inspection was on the whole efficient.

1. The handicraft system in Norway though partly displaced by the factory system continues to be very important and is effectually regulated by law. Acts regulating working conditions in the handicrafts have been passed in the recent years, 1881, 1884, 1894, 1896, 1901 and 1911. The principal provisions of these measures pertain to the requirements for becoming a journeyman and the relation of the apprentice and the journeyman to the master. The laws also provide for the appointment of permanent commissioners to have charge of the examinations for journeyman.


In 1850, the labor measures were supplemented by a Royal decree which regulated government work and in 1855, (June 16) the prohibition against Sunday labor was incorporated in a general measure which restricted the hours of labor in bakeries. In 1855 a general commission was appointed to investigate the whole subject of labor legislation. One of the results of the inquiry of this body which extended over a number of years was the formation of a bill which after considerable discussion became the factory act of June 27, 1892. This act contained in addition to the regulations of child labor, women labor and regulations relating to work on Sundays and holidays, provisions for the protection of the health and lives of workingmen and for the regular payment of wages.

Following is a statement of the factory regulations of this act.¹ All industrial establishments which employ at the same time and in a regular manner a greater or less number of employees, all trades of an industrial nature, the exploitation of mines, metallurgical establishments, foundries and other establishments for the extraction or transformation of minerals are subject to the provisions of the present law. In case of doubt, the inspectors provided for by the present law will decide whether or not an establishment should be considered as subject to the law. Within eight days after the law goes into effect or an establishment begins operation, each proprietor, subject to the provisions of the act, must make a written declaration to the inspector charged with the supervision of his works, showing the nature of the industry and the number of workingmen employed, these being classified according to the age periods mentioned in the law. Whoever intends to establish or operate an establishment already in existence, has the right upon duly notifying the inspector and submitting plans showing the arrangement and interior construction of his factory, to learn from that official if there are any observations to be made concerning the proposed works in respect to the manner in which the law is complied with.

¹ Translation from U.S. Labor Bulletin No. 30. p. 1057.
Work-rooms and their equipment must be arranged and maintained so that the health and the lives of the employees are protected in as efficient a manner as possible. There must be provided, as far as circumstances will permit, stairways and exits easy of access and of use in the case of fire or panic of any kind, and in sufficient number. Where he deems it necessary, the inspector can require the proprietor to provide special safety devices.

Passages through which employees move about in the factories containing machinery must be of a height and breadth sufficient to prevent workingmen who tend or pass the machines from being injured by the parts in motion when ordinary prudence is exercised. Work shops must be sufficiently lighted either by the sun or by an artificial light so that all the moving parts of the machinery which may present features of danger to workingmen when in motion can be plainly seen. In shops where inflammable gas, vapors or dust exist or are generated, all necessary precautions must be taken in providing artificial light. Wherever the nature of the work or industry is such as to permit it, the workrooms must be properly heated.

The number of workingmen employed in a room must be in proportion to the size of the room and the place occupied by the machinery, materials, etc. The rooms must be properly ventilated, if necessary by mechanical means, so as to avoid injurious gases, or vapors, bad odors and excessive heat. The means of ventilation must be proportionate to the number of employees. Due precautions, either in the way of ventilation or isolation of the work, must also be taken to prevent any injurious gases, vapors, etc. that may be generated in one room from being carried to other rooms. Only those persons employed in rooms in which injurious substances are prepared or generated must be allowed to have access to such rooms.

Work rooms must as far as circumstances will permit, be regularly cleaned. The parts of the floors near machinery and the recesses in which the
The page contains text in multiple languages and appears to be a page from a book or a document. However, the content is not legible due to the quality of the image.
Machinery moves, in particular, must be kept clean so that the accumulation of oil will not render them slippery. Where necessary, the partitions and ceilings must be suitably whitewashed or if they are oil painted, they must be kept clean by washing.

A place must be provided either within the establishment or in its immediate neighborhood in which workingmen can heat their food. When the temperature is such as to render it necessary, a suitably heated room must be provided.

Machines, including engines and mechanical devices for transmitting power, are subject to the following provisions: (1) Machines, parts of machines, etc. which present any feature of danger to the employees must be carefully enclosed or covered. (2) Water wheels, turbines and motors must be properly enclosed and guards placed in the mill race at proper places to prevent accidents. (3) Engines must not be started until a signal has been given which can be heard distinctly by the workingmen in the rooms operated by the engine. (4) In all rooms containing machinery operated by an engine and not provided with means by which it can be stopped independently of the engine, means must be provided for communicating directly with the engine room. (5) When the same engine operates a number of independent machines, the means of transmitting the power must be so arranged that each machine can be stopped without stopping the engine. (6) Stairways, hoist openings, the entrances to mine shafts, large reservoirs, water courses, etc. must be enclosed by railings where necessary to protect the employees as far as the nature of the work performed will permit.

It is the duty of the inspectors to determine the particular measure that will be considered as satisfying the foregoing requirements. They are authorized to grant exemptions when it is found necessary.

The boilers and pipes subject to steam pressure must be made, installed and maintained in such a way as to be safe. They must be inspected before and
after their installation according to the regulations to be issued by the King. Notices must be posted wherever use is made of boilers, showing the rules that must be observed. If necessary, the inspector can require that the person in charge of a boiler shall be in possession of a certificate attesting his capacity.

The employer must immediately notify the inspector in writing of every case where an employee is injured by an accident so that he will probably be unable to return to work within eight days, indicating the cause and the gravity of the injury. The inspector must immediately investigate the causes and results of the accidents reported to him.

### Inspection.

For the enforcement of the provisions of the factory act, the law provides for the appointment of inspectors of factories with full power to enter establishments and demand information. Under certain circumstances the government can provide for inspection by special officers appointed for the purpose. In addition to these inspectors the law provides for the creation of local inspection committees consisting of the president of the local sanitary commission or some other physician selected by the communal council. This committee is subject to the control of the factory inspectors.

The extent of the duties of the communal inspection officials and the relation of these local inspections to the regular inspectors were defined by a royal order issued June 27, 1893. They have supervision over all establishments coming under the provisions of the labor laws in their commune. They must inspect these at least once a year and make an annual report to the inspector of that district according to a uniform schedule provided by the law. When an accident occurs, the inspection official must not only report the same but also investigate and determine its cause.

On July 1, 1892, a royal order was issued defining the duties of the inspectors. These are: (1) to see that the laws are enforced; (2) to inspect faco-
stories and see that the communal inspection officials do their duty; (3) to
give employers and employees all possible information with respect to the law;
(4) to notify employers of violations of the law and to give them a reasonable
period in which to remedy the evil, and if this is not done to take the matter
into court; (5) to pass upon building plans for factories or for the remodeling
of factories or submit such plans to a competent department for approval; (6) to
meet with the communal inspectors at least once a year; and (7) to make quarterly
and annual reports of their activities and the activities of the communal ins-
pectors.

Penalties in the form of fines are provided for infractions of the law.
For delinquent employers, the fines vary from five to one thousand crowns and in
the case of employees from two to two hundred crowns. Numerous orders have been
issued at later periods which have modified the original instructions to a very
slight extent.

Minor factory regulations, shop rules, etc.

Employers must see that the employees conduct themselves properly and
morally in their establishments. Special care must be taken where the two sexes
work together.

Wages must be paid in cash in or near the establishment and as often
as once a week. Deductions from wages may not be made unless agreed to by the
employee or in pursuance of the provisions of this act.

All establishments which employ more than twenty-five persons, together
with such others as are requested to do so by the inspector, must draw up a code
of shop rules or regulations setting forth the rules governing the workingmen in
that establishment, the conditions of which employment may be had, the conditions
which are considered sufficient cause for discharge and the regulations concerning
the payment of wages. Where fines are provided for they may not exceed the wages
for a half days labor except in the case of serious offenses which endanger
the health or lives of the offender or other persons or result in the destruction or injury of materials belonging to the employer. The shop rules must mention the acts or omissions for which fines will be imposed.

The income from fines must be paid to the sick-fund designated by the competent official. Deductions on account of defective work or damage to materials are not considered as fines.

The shop rules drawn up by the employers must be sent to the inspectors of the district within four weeks after the law goes into effect or the new establishment begins its operations. These officers after making such observation as seem called for send them to the competent department for approval. This approval will be granted only in case the rules correspond in every particular with the requirements of the law. Before the rules are sent to the inspector, the employer must submit a draft of them to five representatives of the workingmen in order that they may express their opinion concerning them. These representatives must be chosen by the workingmen over eighteen years of age from among their number. Not less than eight days must be allowed the workingmen's representatives to examine and deliberate upon the rules. A certificate stating that these requirements have been complied with must be sent to the department at the same time that the rules are sent for approval.

The provisions regarding fines and deductions from wages apply equally to establishments in which shop rules are not required. There must also be posted in all establishments to which they apply, copies of the orders or decrees issued by the King or other authorities in virtue of the provisions of the present law. These must be printed or written in large legible letters in so far as they relate to shop work. In addition to this there must be posted notices showing the hours at which children, young persons and adults commence and leave work, and their intervals of rest. A copy of the shop rules must be given to each employee.

With reference to contracts, the law provides that where written con-
tracts are entered into, the employer must give the employee at least twenty-four hours in which to consider the same. If the contract does not specify otherwise, the law stipulates that fourteen days notice must be given to the employee by the employer before discharging him and that a similar notice must be given by the employee before he quits work. This rule does not apply when the action of either party justifies immediate action.

Royal prerogatives with reference to the provisions of the law of 1892.

The King after taking into consideration the information furnished by the inspectors, and, if circumstances permit, after the employees have been heard, may promulgate orders for those establishments or kinds of work or entire categories of industries which are considered as especially dangerous to the health or lives of employees, or able easily to occasion excessive fatigue. The orders may (1) prescribe special precautions to be taken in work, (2) may prescribe the maximum number of hours of work that can be required of children and young persons be, less than that fixed by the law, (3) may prohibit further than is done by the law the employment of women who are pregnant, and (4) may prohibit workingmen from taking their meals or remaining during intervals of rest in workrooms, and require that properly isolated rooms in which they can pass this time shall be placed at the disposal of the employee.

In accordance with the article of the factory act of 1892, granting the king the power to provide stricter regulations for such industries as were particularly dangerous to the workingmen, two royal resolutions have been issued. These apply to the printing establishments and to phosphorus match factories. The first was issued Jan. 11, 1896, and the second Aug. 17, 1899.

The following is a summary of the regulations which apply to printing establishments:

(1) The floors must be washed at least once a week, and at the same time all dust must be removed from the furnishings by means of a damp cloth. The floors
must also be devoid of crevices and be painted or covered with linoleum. No unapproachable places where dust may congregate may be permitted to exist.

(2) The floors must be washed with a damp cloth every evening after working hours. No person under eighteen may be employed at this work.

(3) The windows must be washed at least every other month.

(4) A thorough house cleaning including a removal of the type founts must take place twice every year, in the spring and fall. All parts of the rooms must then be either white washed or washed with warm soap water.

(5) A cuspidor, which shall be emptied daily, must be provided for each workingman. No expectoration on the floors may be permitted.

(6) The sides and bottoms of the type founts must be devoid of any crevices. They must be cleaned by bellows whenever empty and in any case at least once every third month. This work must be done out of doors and by mature men who when so employed must be provided with a respirator.

(7) In each establishment there must be provided sufficient toilet facilities, water, soap and towels, these to be furnished by the employers.

(8) The workingmen should wash their hands when leaving work at noon and night.

(9) The temperature in the rooms should be kept above fourteen degrees R. and below sixteen. The temperature must at no time exceed eighteen R. Ventilation and heating apparatus to maintain this temperature must be provided.

(10) The working rooms must be ventilated thoroughly morning, noon and evening when no work is being done. Tobacco smoking in the rooms is prohibited.

(11) These regulations must be posted in each printing establishment.

The above regulations were added to by a resolution issued Feb. 19, 1907. This required that the smelting furnaces of type-setting machines should be isolated and that means for carrying off all gases should be provided.

The following is a summary of the provisions of the resolution of 1899.
(1) The preparation of phosphorus match materials must take place in separate rooms and under hoods by means of which the gases are carried away. The dipping of the matches must also be done in such a manner that the poisonous gases are wholly removed.

(2) Persons under eighteen years of age may not be employed at the above named work. Those employed at that work must be supplied with special clothing which may not be taken from the factory. The factory inspector may also order that they be employed at some out of door work every other week.

(3) The dipping, drying and packing of matches must be done in separate rooms. These rooms must be provided with a non-flammable and easily washed floor and oil painted walls. The ventilation must be of such a nature as to supply a change of air at least four times per hour. For each workingman there must be at least ten cubic meters of air space.

(4) The sorting, and wherever possible, the removal and the sanding of the matches must be done under hoods with sufficient draft to carry away the gases.

(5) During the day the rooms must be sprinkled with turpentine and after working hours each day the floors must be cleaned. A thorough cleaning of all the working rooms must take place at least twice a year.

(6) The factory must supply sufficient and suitable toilet articles and a separate, properly heated dining room and plenty of fresh drinking water. The workingmen may not take their food with them into the working-rooms or eat their meals there. They are also requested to rinse their mouths and wash their hands on leaving the factory.

(7) During the rest periods the workingmen must leave the working-rooms which should then be thoroughly ventilated.

(8) The factory must provide for a medical inspection at least four times a year. Whenever symptoms of phosphorus neorcesi appears, the workingman affected must immediately report to the factory foreman. The factory must keep on hand a
prescribed medicine which the workingman can use at the factory and take with them home to be used as a mouth wash.

In addition to these regulations two acts have been passed, one of which applied to bakeries and the other to electrical establishments. The former provided regulations for workingmen in the bakery trade and the latter authorized the King to regulate working conditions in this trade through royal resolutions.

The act applying to bakeries.

This act which was passed in 1597 (Aug. 6) contained, in addition to such regulations as have been referred to in connection with child and Sunday labor, the following regulations: The length of the working day for each workingman must not exceed twelve in each twenty-four hours including intervals of rest of which the one for dinner must continue for at least one uninterrupted hour. The employers, if they desire, can adopt the ten hour system, including the hours for meals, as under the existing custom. When a change is made from one of these systems to another the employees affected must be given at least twenty-four hours notice.

No workingman shall be employed at night work more than six nights in two weeks. If this night work is performed by workingmen working during the day, their period of work during the day must be shortened one and a half times the duration of their night work. If the night work is performed by men who are not employed during the day, they must not work more than ten hours including intervals of rest. The police can accord exemption for brief periods of time where the occasion is such as to justify it and the workingmen agree to it. Such permission, however, cannot be for more than six days. For exemption for a long period the authorization of the prefect must be obtained.

Infractions of any part of the law are punished by fines of from ten to one hundred crowns the proceeds of which are paid into the bakers' sick fund. If there is no such fund they are paid to the sick fund of the district communal fund.
The law applies equally to bakeries attached to hotels, restaurants and pastry shops.

The following are minor resolutions which have been issued since the enactment of the factory act and which affect to some extent the efficiency of the law.

By an order of the Interior department Feb. 6, 1895, it was stated with regard to tobacco factories where no machinery was used that consideration should be had to their size and the amount of their output. In case of doubt, the inspectors were requested to submit the question to the department.

By an order of the Interior department of Apr. 25, 1895, ice storing industries were stated to be excluded from the provisions of the law.

An order of the same department, Aug. 28, 1896, stated that bakeries not using mechanical power were not to be included under this act.

In addition to these, numerous Royal resolutions of minor importance have been issued which grant exceptions to the law as to the time when work may be carried on. In all cases work for over twelve hours per day has been prohibited.

Defects in the measure of 1892 and attempts made to revise it.

The factory act of 1892 had been on the statute books only a short time when attempts were made to have it revised. Thus in 1896 we find that six different bills seeking to amend the act were submitted to the administration by the Odelsting. In 1899 similar measures were again submitted.1

The chief reforms sought by these bills were to extend the scope of the law to embrace handicrafts, to lengthen the Sunday holiday until six A.M. Monday, to limit or prohibit the right to substitute by royal resolution other provisions for those fixed by this act, to make the sanitary regulations more stringent, to limit to a greater extent the labor of children and to rearrange the system of inspection.

1. Indst. P XI 1908 pt I.
The social committee in its report on these bills was of the opinion that a revision of the act should take place and recommended that the administration take the act under consideration. As a result, an administration measure was presented to Parliament at its session 1900-1901. No important changes appeared in this revision.

The measure was not acted upon by Parliament and at its next session another measure, very radical in comparison with its predecessors, was presented by the social committee. This committee recommended the extension of the law to include handicrafts; the prohibition of the labor of children under the age of fourteen; the limiting of the hours of employment of women and young persons to ten hours; the prohibition of night work for women and young persons; the establishment of an eight hour day in trades and industries dangerous to the health; the strengthening of the inspection force, and the establishment of a labor council.

The bill was not acted upon by Parliament with the exception of the provision relating to the establishment of a labor council. Parliament concurred in recommending to the administration that such a council be established. In this connection it is of interest to note that the committee was influenced in its recommendation exclusively by the establishment of such a council in Denmark.

As will be brought out later, the recommendation of the committee was not in vain. Though the action was long deferred, the labor council finally became a part of the factory regulation system in 1909.

The department in charge of the investigation now sent out letters of inquiry to associations of employers and employees asking them for their opinion in regard to the law and its revision. The workingmen's organizations according to the replies to these letters would support the majority report of the committee but stated that they were desirous of extending the scope of the law still further. Some of the provisions recommended were, the prohibition of the labor

1. Indst. O XIV 1905.
2. Indst. O XIV 1906 p. 5.
of children under fourteen; a maximum working day of eight hours for young persons; the restriction of the number of working hours in dangerous trades and industries; the cleaning of establishments outside of working hours; regulations as to cleanliness in dining rooms and the representation of workingmen on the inspection force. ¹

The employers on the contrary were opposed to any changes of the kind recommended by the social committee and even suggested that certain restrictions in the old act be modified. ²

An investigation made by the department showed that the extension of the law to include all handicrafts employing regularly at least five men would bring under the law 711 additional establishments employing 7316 men. The administration on the basis of the information secured in these various ways, presented a bill to parliament in 1905.

This bill extended the law to include only such industries and handicrafts as employed mechanical generating power of over one half horse power. In other regards the measure resembled very much the act which was finally passed in 1909. Parliament did not act on the bill but the measure appeared at the following session relatively unaltered. Again Parliament did not consider it and the social committee once more took the matter up for consideration. The bill now presented by the majority was very progressive, or as the employers' association termed it "extremely radical". It included among other provisions, (1) the extension of the law to include handicrafts, (2) a normal working day of ten hours daily and fifty-six hours weekly, (3) the prohibition of night work for women, and (4), the representation of the workingmen on the inspection force.

The reasoning of the committee on the normal working day question is very interesting. The majority defended their position on two grounds, the social or ethical and the economic. With reference to the first, they pointed out the bad social and ethical effects of long hours and the need on the part of the

¹. Oth. Prp. No. 43 1904-5 p.5.
². Ibid. p. 55.
workingmen of intellectual and social recreation. In regard to the second they contended that the introduction of a maximum working day would counteract any tendency toward over production. When the prospect of high prices would tempt the employer to over produce and glut the market, the restriction of the working time would force him to pay higher wages and thereby dissuade him from producing as much as he otherwise would do. It was the opinion of the committee that it is this unnecessary periodical over production which produces the crises with their consequent periods of unemployment. The committee further contended that the establishment of a maximum working day would not diminish production. In many instances as they proved conclusively, a shortening of the working period would not decrease the output per day. In all work, the average working day for the average laborer would be less than the proposed normal working day. Hence, in the long run, a steady production on the normal working day plan would increase production.

The bill was on the whole very acceptable to the workingmen's organizations but met a very hostile reception on the part of the employers.\(^1\) The secretary of the employers' association writes as follows: "a new and very radical factories bill was prepared by the social committee of the Storting and laid before Parliament last year. This bill as prepared caused a great deal of opposition from the leaders in the manufacturing industry, and their association, especially their common association." The Norwegian Employer's association proved in a remonstrance to the Storting what dangerous consequences an act like this might cause for the trade of the country.\(^2\) As a result of the strong opposition manifested, the Storting changed nearly all the radical provisions and the act was passed in a very moderated form.

The fact that the old factory act was found wanting so soon after its enactment shows that it was far from satisfactory. Two of the defects often re-

1. Dok. No. 13 1909, p. 33 et seq.
2. Letter from Sec. Emp. Assoc.
ferred to were remedied in part by the new act, viz- its narrow scope and its insufficient inspection system. Other short comings often referred to such as the low age limit for children, the night work for women, and the maximum working day, particularly for women have not been remedied. It is not unlikely, however, that the agitation for these changes will at no distant time succeed in accomplishing the desired end.

That the complaint as to the poor inspection system was not without foundation is borne out by the fact that the chief inspector, himself, complained that the system of having the local health commissioner act as inspector makes for a very inefficient inspection. He states in addition that though the law is enforced very satisfactorily in some places, there are numerous localities where the administration is extremely lax. This is especially true with reference to the employment of children and young persons. Again in 1907, the statement is made that the attitude of the employers to those provisions which relate to the employment of children is far from satisfactory.

During the year 1895, 2,405 inspections were made in one of the two inspection districts of the country, which makes the average number of inspections per factory, two. In Christiana, however, the average number was 2.3 whereas the average for the remaining part of the country was only 1.7. The inspectors report stated that the frequency of inspection was very irregular in the several districts. In some there was no inspection whatever and no reports had been received from eleven districts.

In 1907 there were 5252 inspections making the average number of inspections per factory 1.29. Since the average number of inspections per factory in Christiana was 3.5 for this year, it is very evident that many establishments in other parts of the country were not inspected at all.

2. ibid. p. 15.
3. ibid 1907 p. 10.
4. Aarberetning 1895 p.5.
This defect in the inspection system was recognized and the new law attempts to remedy it by stipulating that all establishments be inspected at least once semi-annually and by taking the inspection power away from the local health commissioners and vesting it in a special board. The composition of this board is also to be such as to insure a greater interest in the enforcement of the law. For these reasons, the outlook for an efficient factory inspection in Norway is very bright.

The act of 1909 differed from the act of 1892 particularly in regard to the extent to which the law should be applied and the way in which the inspection and administration bodies should be constituted. The act was to apply (1) to factories and such trades and industries which were operated on a factory basis or employed any mechanical generating power of more than one horse power. With these were included stone works, and lime works employing more than five men, mines together with the establishments necessary for mining and refining of materials, and establishments which prepares or use explosives; (2) to all handicrafts and similar industries employing regularly at least five workingmen provided the work is not done in the employer's home. Together with this class are included ice industries. Whether or not construction work and other similar occupations of different kinds are to be included is decided by the king after the labor council has given its opinion. The power to decide whether a certain industry or handicraft comes under the law is vested in the labor council, a body created by the act.

The inspection of the various factories, trades, and industries for the purpose of seeing that the provisions of the law are enforced is placed in the hands of a number of inspectors of whom there must be at least two, one of whom must be a woman. The inspection of the mines is placed in the hands of the mine inspectors. The change made is to increase the minimum number of inspectors from one to two, and to specify that one shall be a woman. The inspectors are to be supplied with the necessary number of assistants of whom at least one must be a
In regard to the local inspection officers, the new act provides that every community in which industries coming under the act are located shall elect a permanent inspection commissioner of four persons elected for three years, one of whom must be a physician, one a workingman and one a woman. The former act placed the local inspection largely on the hands of the chairman of the local health commission. In certain cases he was associated with another member of the commission and in others by two men elected by the commune. The new act provides that the local inspection commission must inspect every concern embraced by the act at least once semi-annually. No person acting as an inspector may have any interest in the concerns inspected by him. According to a similar principle, the workingmen members of the inspection commissions may not inspect the concerns in which they are employed or any other concerns of a similar nature.

In addition to the inspectors, the act provides for the establishment of a Labor Council consisting of five members of whom the chairman shall be a lawyer appointed by the king for five years, two employers and two workingmen. Of the four, the competent department chooses one employer and one workingman and Parliament chooses the other employer and workingman. The time for which these four hold office is three years.

The functions of the council are, to determine what industries and concerns are included under the act, to determine if certain industries of the kinds mentioned are to be recommended to the king as necessary to come under the act; to pass upon all notices and lists of rules to be posted in factories; to decide which industries require special regulations because of their dangerous character and to report such to the king. It is furthermore to act as an advisory council to the department and to take charge of such other matters as are from time to time turned over to it by the department.

Besides the above named changes and such as have been referred to in
connection with child and woman labor and Sunday labor, the act did not make any alterations which are of far-reaching importance. Wherever it was found feasible, the provisions were made more definite and the regulations stated in greater detail. This adds force to a measure since it points out to the employer the specific regulations to which he must conform.

Position of the organized workingmen with regard to the new act.

The workingmen as is natural from the fact that they supported the bill presented by the social committee, find the new act unsatisfactory in many respects. The provisions which they especially favor are: (1) a still further extension of the law to include establishments which use mechanical generating power of less than one horse power, or employ less than five men, (2), a nine hour normal working day, (3), the prohibition of the night work of women and young persons, (4) a maximum weekly working time, including overtime, of sixty-six hours, (5) the right of the workingman representatives on the inspection boards to inspect establishments where they are employed and such as are of a similar nature, and (6) the election of the members of the labor council by Parliament upon recommendation of the employers' and employees' organizations.

It is unnecessary to comment upon the majority of these recommendations since it is easy to understand why the workingmen should favor them. The last two points mentioned, however, might need some elucidation. In regard to the former, the workingmen assert that the present law often prevents the workingmen's representative of the inspection boards from exercising much influence. It is in those industries in which the workingman is employed that he ought to be the most effective. There are also some districts where the industries are almost exclusively of one kind, and here the workingman would practically be debarred from all inspection. With reference to the latter point, the object is to secure such representatives in the labor council as would be in sympathy and direct touch with the organized labor movement.
Factory Regulation in Sweden.

The first general factory law enacted in Sweden was passed in 1889. Prior to that time several general health regulations had been inserted in the laws from time to time. A special royal order applying to match factories had also been passed in 1870.

The general industrial code of June 12, 1864, contained the broad provisions that factory operators and masters in the handicrafts should be mindful of the health of their employees. The law of 1874 in relation to the public health provided that the rooms in which a considerable number of persons worked should be properly ventilated. The general building regulations, promulgated the same year, provided that factories as well as other buildings in which a considerable number of persons were assembled, should be provided with satisfactory means of exit in case of fire, etc.

As to mining, there were stipulations in the mining regulations of 1884 which provided for the prevention of accidents. These also provided that where mining work involved special danger to the workmen, the mining surveyor had a right to suspend the work.

The regulation of 1870, \(^1\) which applied to match factories, is of peculiar interest in that it revealed an intelligent insight into the causes of moroosis poisoning and took drastic action in preventing the occurrence of the disease. The order which was issued Feb. 12, states that the manufacture of matches containing phosphorus may not take place except under conditions specified in the order. These conditions were as follows:

(1) The person in charge of the factory must have a properly signed certificate showing that he is sufficiently acquainted with the various processes to be able to supervise them properly.

(2) The factory must be located in an open and dry place.

\(^1\) Replaced by an order of Dec. 9, 1896.
(3) Separate rooms must be used for the preparation of the phosphorus; the dipping of the matches; the drying of the matches and the packing of the matches. These rooms must be separated from all the others and be separated from each other by doors that close tightly by means of springs. The rooms must also be properly ventilated; must be at least ten feet high; must have a floor space of at least thirty square feet for each workingman and must be so floored and painted as to be readily cleaned with a moistened cloth.

Hoods must be supplied wherever phosphorus is used so that the poisonous gases may readily be carried off.

(4) No person under fifteen years of age may be employed in preparing the phosphorus substance or in dipping the matches. No person may be employed at this kind of work for a longer period than six months at a time. He may not be employed at the same kind of work again until two months have elapsed. A separate register must be kept at the factory in which the names of the workingmen are entered together with the time when they begin and cease work.

(5) The superintendent of the factory must see that the workingmen employed in the rooms enumerated above wear special clothes while at work which must not be taken home. They must furthermore see that plenty of good water is kept on hand wherewith the workingmen may rinse their mouths, and that toilet facilities be provided at the employers expense so that each employee may wash upon leaving work.

(6) All the workingmen must be examined by a physician at the employer's expense at least once every three months for symptoms of necrosis poisoning.

(7) The working rooms enumerated above must be cleaned at least once a day. The floor and walls must be washed at least once every fortnight.

In regard to the enforcement of these regulations, the power of supervising the construction of new factories and the remodeling of old ones was placed in the hands of the county councils. No effective inspection, however, was provided for the factory after it had once been placed in operation. It was then
left to the individual to bring in complaint before the common courts. It is
evident that this method was very unsatisfactory. The workingmen would be the
ones upon whom the burden of bringing in complaints would fall and these are
constrained in many ways from getting in a manner hostile to their employers.
With the coming of the factory act of 1859, the enforcement of this act was made
the duty of the general factory inspectors.

The first general factory act for the prevention of accidents and the
protection of the health of employees in factories was passed May 10, 1859. This
law was the result of a five years investigation by a commission appointed in 1854
to investigate various labor problems.

This law may be said in a general way to relate to all establishments
in which industrial work is conducted on any considerable scale, with the excep-
tion of mines and building operations. In all places of work belonging to such
establishments, the following precautions were to be taken:

All openings in floors, trapdoors, vats, ladders, stairways, etc. through
or from which workingmen may fall or be injured by objects falling upon them,
must be railed in or otherwise guarded. Elevators, cranes, etc. must be inscribed
with the weights or the number of persons they are capable of lifting.

Whenever there is danger of fire, precautions must be taken for the
safety of the employees. Where necessary, the stairways must be of non-combusti-
ble material, fire escapes must be provided for, etc.

Sufficient room must be provided so that workingmen in moving about
will not be injured by moving machinery. Where engines are installed in the
workrooms, instead of being located in separate buildings, they must be surrounded
or located that the workingmen who are not directly employed in connection with
them are not exposed to the danger of being injured by moving parts. Machinery
and gearing which present any features of danger must be guarded and arranged so
that all chances of employees being injured is removed, and those places which
Employees must be so lighted that the moving parts can be readily seen. Before the machinery is set in motion by means of an engine, a warning as agreed upon, must be given in the workrooms. Where the same engine supplies power to a number of different workrooms, means must be provided whereby the machinery in each place can be separately thrown out of gear, or notice can be sent to the engine room. In the case of rapidly moving machinery, means must, if possible, be provided whereby the machinery can be instantly stopped without stopping the engine. Special means must be provided for throwing machinery in and out of gear wherever these operations present features of danger. All possible precautions must also be taken in the work of oiling and cleaning machinery.

Where work is carried on in enclosed workrooms, or the nature of the work requires it, the following regulations must be observed: There must be sufficient air space, not less than seven cubic metres, for each employee, and the arrangements necessary for proper ventilation. In the case of shops already in use, a smaller air space per employee may be permitted if the rooms are properly ventilated. Workrooms must be properly lighted and heated and must always be kept in a clean condition. Measures, as dictated by practical experience, and the nature of the work, must also be taken to prevent the diffusion of dust, gas or vapor in the rooms in quantities injurious to the health of the employees.

Notices must be posted in the workrooms indicating the precautions that must be taken to protect the health and lives of employees. These notices must be approved by the factory inspectors. Places presenting unusual dangers must have special warnings posted.

Provision is made for the appointment of a suitable number of factory inspectors to supervise the enforcement of the law and to assist the directors of industrial enterprises with advice concerning the measures of hygiene and security that should be taken by them. Local health and municipal officers must assist the inspectors in the performance of their duties to the extent of their powers. In the case of imminent danger, the provincial authorities can prohibit
the continuation of a particular work, the performance of work in a particular room, or the use of certain machines until proper precautionary methods are taken. Infractions of the law are punished by fines.

Amendments to law of 1859.

A law enacted Dec. 13, 1895, extended the provisions of the act of 1859, with certain limitations, to include state and municipal activities. A decree of Jan. 24, 1896, made it obligatory upon the directors of establishments to report all accidents resulting in the death of an employee or in his inability to work for at least fourteen days after the time of the injury. The purpose of this last mentioned decree was to gather accident statistics on the basis of which it would be possible to formulate an insurance measure.

The act of 1859 applied to only such establishments as were operated on a factory basis and did not apply to home industries or handicrafts. At first there was much disagreement between the various inspectors as what should constitute a factory, but in 1902, a definite scheme was decided upon which has since been the plan followed.

Since the enactment of the act of 1859, there has been a growing sentiment in the country in favor of the extension of the law to include handicrafts and such other industries as are operated on a factory basis. A committee appointed for the purpose of investigating the practicability of such an extension, and for the purpose of making a general revision of the factory act, reported in 1909 and proposed two measures, one of which is to apply to home industries and the other to every industry where work is done for an employer, the following excepted: (1) Work on board ship; (2) Work done in workingmen's homes, or other places where the employer cannot supervise the work; (3) Work performed by members of the employer's family, and (4) work performed by inmates of hospitals or prisons.

The committee in making this recommendation, pointed out the many rea-
sons why such an extension would be desirable. Some of them are as follows:

1) that the majority of the accidents which occur are found, not in the industries coming under the law, but in the industries standing outside the same;

2) that the accident insurance law embraced far more industries than did the factory act, which should not be the case, and (3) that the child labor regulations should apply to all industrial establishments and businesses. It is equally harmful, for the child to work in either case. Since these small industries and the handicrafts ought to be brought under inspection for the purpose of enforcing the child labor regulations, it is only taking a small additional step, in the opinion of the committee, to place them under the remaining provisions of the law.

As the law stood at the close of 1909, there was no legislation regulating either the handicrafts or the small industries and the home industries. The committee, as has been pointed out, has recommended the inclusion of the handicrafts; small industries and home industries. Though it seems likely that legislation will be enacted in the near future which will incorporate the recommendations of the committee, it seems improbable that anything will be done with reference to the home industries for some time. It is interesting to note, however, that a very thorough study of the home industries in Sweden has been made by "Central Forbundet for Socialt Arbete" and that the committee's report contained a study of legislation on home industries in foreign countries.

The proposed bill for the regulation of home industries is what is known as a registration measure. The principle involved is that every employer, and through him, every middleman must keep a register of all the persons to whom work is let out. This register must be turned over to the local inspection boards and the factory inspectors at stated intervals so that the latter may have an opportunity to inspect the various places and get acquainted with the conditions. Each

home worker must also be supplied with a wage book which contains a resume of the law and gives a quotation of the wages paid by the employer for the different classes of work.

Factory Inspection in Sweden.

The factory inspection in Sweden, has as a rule, been very ineffective. The opinion is that this defect is due principally to two causes, the lack of power on the part of the inspector according to the law, and the small number of inspectors which makes it impossible to inspect more than a small per cent of all the industrial establishments. The law of 1889 states, for instance, that the inspector must at all times see that the object of the law is attained with the least possible inconvenience to the employer. It, furthermore, made the function of the inspector largely advisory and the procedure for the enforcement of the inspector's decisions so involved that it would inevitably favor the employer.

The number of inspectors for the first few years after the law went into operation was only three. In 1895, this number was increased to five and in 1901 it was raised to eight. This year, however, the duties of the inspectors were greatly increased in that the supervision of the child labor was then entrusted to regular factory inspectors. The average number of inspected establishments for the period of 1896-1894 amounted to only 10.9% of all the establishments coming under the law. For the year 1905, the percentage of inspected establishments was about 10%. With such a small percentage of inspections per year, it is not to be wondered at that the inspection has not been satisfactory.

In the report of the committee on the reversion of the factory law, we find that the committee recognized the weakness of the inspection and that it proposed to remedy this defect. The means for strengthening the inspection as recommended by the committee are, (1) to centralize the inspection under one head, (2) to increase the number of inspectors, and (3) to bring to the aid of the inspect-

ore, the services of local boards. The general statement, however, that the object of the law be attained with the least inconvenience to the employer is re-incorporated in the proposed bill.

The writer was permitted to visit a number of factories during his stay in Christiansa. As a rule, the number of men employed in any particular factory is small. The establishments visited were not of equal merit but in most of them the working conditions were good. One large spinning and weaving factory, however, presented very bad working conditions. The writer was informed by the inspector that steps had been taken in this instance to bring about an improvement.

Factory Legislation in Denmark.

Although factory legislation, proper, had its beginning in Denmark in 1873, there was an ordinance as early as 1800, forbidding masters in Copenhagen to permit apprentices to perform work requiring excessive strength. The industrial act of 1857 contained no provision with regard to protection of workingmen, but an act of 1852, had inserted in it a few provisions which applied to unhealthy trades. The act of 1855 which contained regulations in the interest of public health, also applied in a measure to factories.¹

The labor movement which began about 1870 soon fixed public attention upon factory legislation. In 1872, the Minister of the Interior ordered an investigation of labor conditions, and on the basis of this investigation and the English legislation along labor lines, he proposed a law regulating the employment of children. The bill finally became the law of 1873 which we have studied in the chapter on child labor.

The progress made in industry in the course of the following years and the appearance of more complicated and often more dangerous machinery soon rendered necessary the promulgation of a law regulating the labor in all establishments where machines were used. A measure which sought to accomplish much regu-

¹ Skrifter utgifna af Loresnka Stiftelsen 1890-91. No. 3 p.120.
The law was discussed in Parliament at the session of 1857-1858 but no action was taken until 1859 (April 12) when the first general factory act was passed.

In the meantime, however, an act had been passed (Feb. 14, 1874) which applied to working conditions in match factories. This law prohibited the manufacture of matches in the making of which use was made of white phosphorus. It was moreover prohibited to manufacture, import or trade in matches other than those requiring a specially prepared surface on which they must be struck to be ignited. In match factories where use was made of red or amorphous phosphorus and calcium chlorate, the rooms in which the phosphorus was prepared had to be entirely separated from the rooms in which the calcium chlorate was prepared.

The law of 1859 was a very comprehensive measure. It relates to all machines which were operated by mechanical or horse powers, and which could endanger the health or lives of those who tended them no matter in what industry or establishment employed. Under the head of machines were included engines and means of transmitting power as well as machinery proper. The regulations, too, were very technical. The principal ones were as follows:

Machines must be so constructed and their moving parts so enclosed that workingmen cannot come in contact with the moving parts, either while at work or in passing them, except as the result of imprudence.

The belts, shafting, etc., by which power is transmitted, must be sufficiently high above the floor or enclosed or guarded in such a way that employees cannot be injured by them. Projections in the way of bolt heads, arms, etc., must be avoided. Electric conductors must be properly insulated. When an engine is installed in a room, in which workingmen move about, it must be so enclosed that only those persons tending it can come in contact with its moving parts.

The engine operating the machinery must not be started until a signal that can be plainly heard has been given to the employees working in connection

1. Fillaeg A. 2225.
with the machines so operated unless the machinery is so constructed that it can
be stopped independently of the engine. In every case where a machine cannot be
immediately stopped by the person tending it, without stopping the engine, means
must be provided whereby the employee can signal to the person tending the engine
to stop it.

While machines are in motion, they must not be cleaned or oiled except
when this can be done without putting aside the enclosures, guards, etc. mentioned
above, and the clothes of the employee cannot come in contact with the moving parts
of the machinery.

During working hours, all places containing machinery tended or operated
by workmen must be so lighted that all the moving parts of the machinery pre-
senting features of danger can be plainly seen. The necessary precautions must
be taken in furnishing artificial light where easily inflammable gases, vapors or
dust are generated. The floors near the machinery and the recesses in which
machines for transmitting power run must be kept clean so that they are not ren-
dered slippery by the accumulation of oil or grease, or must be covered with sand
or some article serving the same purpose. The construction and operation of
machines which are particularly dangerous can be further regulated by decrees.
Builders or persons furnishing any of the machines covered by this law must in
all cases send with them, the appliances required by the law for enclosing gear-
ings, projections, etc.

The Minister of Justice must furnish gratuitously to all employers and
employees requesting it, copies of the present law, and extracts containing its
principal provisions and all orders relating to it as prepared by the Minister of
Justice must be posted in all factories or work places operated according to fac-
tory methods, in places where they can be easily read by the employees. 1

By the law of 1873 (May 23) only some 700 to 800 factories with some
25,000 workingmen were subject to inspection. There were then only two inspectors

who were appointed by the Minister of the Interior. The law of 1859 extended the inspection to include 3,000 industrial concerns employing some 65,000 workingmen. Provision was also made for the appointment of two factory inspectors and twelve assistant inspectors. These, however, were to have charge of the inspection of boilers in addition to the enforcement of the regulations of the acts of 1873 and 1889. By an act of 1892 (April 12) the number of assistant inspectors was increased to thirteen and by an act of 1895, the number was increased to fifteen.

From this time on until 1901, when the new factory act was passed, no change in the inspection force took place.

Of the administration of the act of 1859, little can be said in as much as the factory inspectors' reports for these years are not available. From information that could be gathered in a personal way, it appears that the law as far as it went was very satisfactory and that the enforcement was above the average.

The factory law was revised in 1901. The object of this revision was (1) to secure a more efficient administration by creating a Labor council, (2) to bring the child labor regulations and the factory regulations within the same law, (3) to extend the factory regulations to include more than mere protection against dangerous machinery, (4) to increase the restrictions and (5) to make the law more definite in its requirements.

Whereas the law of 1859 applied only to establishments employing machinery, and the law of 1873 only to concerns that employed young persons, the new act applied to all establishments operated on a factory basis and all handicrafts employing machinery or employing more than five workingmen. Work done exclusively by the employer with aid of wife and children is exempted by the law.

The act incorporates all the provisions of the act of 1859 which served to protect the workingmen against dangerous machinery and enacted, in addition to numerous minor provisions, the following protective regulations: (1) the inspectors shall be authorized to prescribe the necessary sanitary conditions;
(2) each employee must have at least eight cubic meters of air space; (3) all factories and working places must be well ventilated; (4) each establishment must provide a suitable place properly heated where workingmen may take their meals, and (5) rooms where poisonous gases are generated or exist must be kept apart from other rooms and no outside workingmen may be allowed to enter them.

One of the principal provisions of the law, as stipulation contained in article eight of the law which requested the Minister of the Interior to issue regulations, upon recommendation of the Labor Council, which should apply to the various industries. In accordance with this provision, many such regulations have been issued. These will be considered subsequently in this study.

The administration of the law was placed in the hands of two inspectors and a number of assistants as before, but in addition to these, the law provided for the establishment of a labor council to consist of nine members. The chairman of this council was to be appointed by the King and the members were to be appointed by the Minister of the Interior. Of the latter, at least three were to be workingmen and three employers, and these were to be nominated by the central organizations among the workingmen and employers respectively.

The council should give advice when requested by the inspectors; it could consider questions coming under the law upon its own initiative, and give its opinion to the inspectors or the Minister of the Interior; it could propose changes and amendments to the Minister of the Interior, and finally, it could issue regulations applying to certain industries.

The principal regulations issued are as follows: (1) Regulations for book printing shops and type foundries issued April 1, 1904; (2) Regulations for Cigar and Tobacco factories, issued Aug. 1, 1904; (3) Regulations for Iron foundries and machine shops, issued Nov. 1, 1906; (4) Regulations for shoe factories issued Feb. 1, 1907; (5) Regulations for printing establishments not included in regulations of 1904, issued Aug. 1, 1907; (6) Regulations for carpentry and
woodwork issued Aug. 1, 1905; (7) Regulations for textile factories issued April 1, 1905; (8) Regulations for laundries and dyeing establishments issued April 1, 1905, and (9) Regulations for bakeries and confectioneries issued May 1, 1910.

These regulations are very definite and detailed in their requirements. They are also prepared in such a manner as to apply in particular to the dangers peculiar to the industry or trade which they were intended to regulate. In the regulations for the printing industry, special provision is made to prevent the gathering of dust, and to keep the floors, type founts, walls and windows clean. In these establishments, each workingman must have at least twelve and one half cubic meters of air space. The regulations for tobacco factories provide special protection against poisonous fumes stipulating that certain processes be conducted in separate rooms and that hoods be used to carry off the fumes. The regulations for iron workers provide special protection against excessive heat, etc. The regulations for textile factories seek to protect the workingmen against dust when wool is prepared in a dry state and other dangers peculiar to the industry. In a like manner each set of regulations is adapted to the particular business to which it applies.

All the regulations in addition to such special provisions as are indicated above, regulate in a very definite way, (1) the minimum amount of air space per workingman; (2) the cleaning of the rooms; (3) the temperature to be maintained in the workrooms; (4) the kind of dining rooms to be provided; (5) the toilet and lavatory facilities that must be furnished, and (6) the proper handling of poisonous substances and the removal of poisonous gases.

The law of 1901 is administered by an inspection force under the direct control of the Minister of the Interior. The Labor council, as previously stated, also shares in the administration. The inspection force in 1906 consisted of the directorate which included a director, a secretary who has had an economic train-
ing, a bureau chief and a bookkeeper, and a corps of twenty-two male and one 
female inspectors.

Table showing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of industries inspected</th>
<th>Non-stationary industries inspected</th>
<th>No. of factories &amp; in-Workingmen in factories and establishments inspected by law of 1901</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>7,184</td>
<td>2,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>10,777</td>
<td>4,304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>11,765</td>
<td>4,363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Not including bakers.

Factories coming under law of 1889.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1,967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>2,465</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1902 the percentage of the places inspected was as follows:

164 establishments 3.9% inspected 0 times

In 1904, the average number of inspections per factory was 1.9. In 1905, this was reduced to 1.7 and in 1906 it was further reduced to 1.5. The report for 1907 does not state the average number, but it does show an increase in the number of establishments with no corresponding increase in the number of inspectors. From this we may conclude that there has, at least, been no increase in the average number of inspections.

In analyzing the report for 1907, the same fact that is so clearly brought out in the report for 1902, is found to exist to a great extent. Thus some districts show that their establishments have been inspected on an average of two times while other districts report an average of only .5%. This irregularity, however, is not as detrimental to the satisfactory enforcement of the
law as it would, at first, seem, since the frequent inspection of the large concerns in the cities outweighs a less frequent inspection in the country districts.

The annual reports submitted by the director of the inspection force are very detailed; state definitely the complaints made against the law or its enforcement; and discuss thoroughly the merits of the various provisions.

The report for 1907-8 shows that the government instituted legal proceedings in fifty-three instances. Sixteen of these were due to failure to notify the inspector of the establishment of the industry; four were due to unsanitary conditions; two to violations of the printing regulations; one to violation of the shoe factory regulations; three to the violation of the iron manufacture regulations; two to the employment of children under twelve years of age; six for the violation of the restrictions of the working time for children; fifteen for failure to keep registers of the children employed and to require certificates, and one for failure to pay the physician his dues. It is true that the fines imposed in each of the above cases were small, but it seems, nevertheless, that this part of the report shows a healthy activity among the inspectors.

An incident which shows the influence of the workingmen in the enforcement of the labor regulations in Denmark is related in the same report. The workingmen's newspaper, the Social Demokraten, set on foot an investigation of shoe factories and found that many of these establishments had not observed the regulations issued Feb. 1, 1907. The findings were published, and as a result the inspectors undertook an investigation. This revealed the fact that many establishments, in the meantime, had fulfilled the necessary requirements; that others were doing so, and that one had completely disregarded the law.¹

The labor council in the course of its activities, has issued numerous decisions as to how the law should be applied; has recommended the enactment of a number of regulations; has issued regulations to apply to child labor in certain industries not included under the law, and has issued the special industry

¹ Børsning 1907-8 p. 20.
regulations previously enumerated. It has also made a special study of woman's night work, the labor conditions in various industries, the industrial poisons and child labor, and, within the past year, it has furthermore completed a revision of the whole factory act. This revised measure is before parliament for consideration at its present session.

The Labor Council meets on an average of once a month. Besides the chairman, six members, two of whom must be workingmen and two employers, are required to be present at each meeting. When regulations for specific industries are to be prepared, representatives of the workingmen and employees in the industry or trade must be consulted. In such cases, members of the council usually visit all of the establishments in the industry concerned. An index to the activity of the council is furnished when we note that for the year 1907-8, the council investigated and answered 130 inquiries pertaining to the factory regulations and their enforcement.

While in Copenhagen it was the writer's privilege to accompany the factory inspector on one of his inspection trips. Some of the factories visited were models while others were far from inviting. Most of the latter were old structures, and several of the proprietors informed us that they contemplated rebuilding. The inspection consisted of an examination of the registry of child workers and a tour around the factory.

In 1906, a law was passed regulating the working conditions in bakeries. This law was supplementary to the act of 1901 and served a purpose similar to that sought by the regulations issued by the labor council and the Minister of the Interior. In the case of the bakeries act, however, there were certain provisions enacted which could not have been incorporated in regulations coming under the law since they ran counter to the law. It was because the bakery trade presented so many peculiarities which could with difficulty be comprehended in a general act, that a special measure was required. The law was not passed until 1. Revision of Yrkefore lagen p. 289.
The text on the page is not legible or decodable due to the quality of the image.
1906, but for several years prior to its enactment, efforts had been made to have a measure passed. (Measures were proposed in 1895-6, and the three succeeding years.)

The bakeries act applies to all bakeries which employ any person for other work than delivery work in addition to the employer, or his wife and children under eighteen years of age. The regulations for the employment of children correspond to the requirements of the general act. The regulations for young persons, however, allow all persons between the ages of fourteen and sixteen to work ten hours between four A.M. and six P.M., and such of them as are over fifteen years of age and have worked in the trade one year, to work the same as persons sixteen to eighteen years of age. These latter may work at nights for a period of nine and one half hours in Copenhagen and Fredricksburg and ten hours in other places. The day work for these may continue for ten and one half hours.

With regard to Sunday labor, the law stipulates that each workingman in the two communes referred to, shall be allowed twenty-four consecutive hours free per week. Outside of these communes, each person shall be allowed at least sixteen consecutive hours free every Sunday beginning at twelve o'clock noon. Under certain conditions the twenty-four hours may be lessened by three and the sixteen by one hour.

Administration of the bakery act.

Previous to the enactment of the bakery act of 1906, only some three hundred bakeries were included under the factory act of 1901 and the act of 1859. With the enactment of the new law, 1,600 more bakeries came under inspection. This means an increase of some 20% in the total number of establishments to be inspected by the factory inspectors.

In the report for 1907-5, the chief inspector states that much trouble had been experienced in the enforcement of the law. Many employers complained that they did not understand the provisions of the law and merely awaited the arrival of the inspector to explain matters to them. The inspectors also found bad conditions existing with reference to the housing of apprentices. Many of these had their sleeping quarters in the bakery, itself, and were often required to lend a hand at the work during the night.

To aid in the administration, the law provides that one employer and one employee in the bakery trade be appointed by the Minister of the Interior to serve on the labor council whenever the latter considers questions of interest to the bakery trade. It was further provided that one bookkeeper and two assistant inspectors be added to the inspection force to aid in the inspection of bakeries.

Ch. VI. Courts of Conciliation and Arbitration.

Norway Courts of Arbitration and Conciliation.

Up to the present time there has been no legislation enacted with reference to conciliation and arbitration in Norway. The question, however, has been a public one for some time and is to-day receiving much attention. It will therefore be of interest to sketch very briefly the history of this question and to show the position taken by the workingmen's and employers' organizations relative to proposed measures.

Early in the development of the labor movement in Norway, the demand providing for conciliation and arbitration in labor conflicts for legislation was very strong. In later years, however, the organized workers have taken a rather skeptical position in regard thereto. The early attitude of the workingmen is shown by the resolution passed by the first Scandinavian Labor Congress held at Gothenburg in 1886. This congress resolved that whereas, it is in the interest of society that conflicts between workingmen and employers be settled as far as possible in a peaceful manner, the congress advises the establishment of trade arbitration courts chosen by the workingmen's and employer's organizations.

At the second congress in 1888, a resolution was passed which recommended the establishment of labor councils consisting of an equal number of workingmen and employers who were to choose arbitrators to settle all disputes. The expenses were to be defrayed by the state. The only mention of arbitration made in the congress since that time was made in 1901 when the congress repeated the recommendation of the first congress.

The Labor Party of Norway, at its national session in 1895 concurred in the recommendation of the first congress. At its session in 1900, the party

went much further and recommended the establishment of conciliation boards and arbitration courts based on the principle of like representation from both sides. The arbitration should be compulsory if requested by one party and the decisions of the court should be mandatory if the arbitration was requested by both parties.

The fact that the party has not passed any similar resolutions since 1900 and does not include this question in its political program seems to show that the party is not as certain about the beneficial effects of this kind of legislation as it was formerly.

The Workingmen's National Organization after its establishment in 1899, took up the question of arbitration and conciliation at once. On Dec. 13, 1900, the executive council appointed a committee to investigate the problem and to present a report of its findings. The report that was submitted recommended that arbitration and conciliation courts be established within each commune upon the request of any union. These were to arbitrate all labor disputes and to effect binding decisions in all cases where the dispute concerned the interpretation and the observance of contracts and where arbitration had been requested by both parties. A special court was recommended to arbitrate such disputes as involved an entire trade or several parts of the same.

These proposals were submitted to the various unions and a majority of them concurred in this recommendation. Nothing direct resulted, however, and, in the meantime, the workingmen's and employers' national organizations, acting jointly appointed a committee to work out rules governing the establishment of voluntary arbitration boards. This committee made its recommendations which were accepted by the employers' association Sept. 9, and by the workingmen's organization Oct. 26, 1902. According to this agreement, attempts should be made to settle every labor conflict arising between members of the two organizations by voluntary arbitration. If it was not possible to do this, a court of arbitration could be called into existence by the request of either party, provided the dis-
pute concerned the interpretation or observance of a contract, and by both parties
if the dispute concerned some other matter.

This agreement never went into effect since the workingmen's organization
rescinded its action. The reason given was that the agreement was not satisfac-
torily drawn up. Since this action was taken no similar attempt has been made to
establish conciliation and arbitration boards. Instead the policy has been to
introduce regulations to govern the arbitration of labor disputes in the collective
contracts. At present it can be said that it is now the general rule that all
disputes concerning the interpretation and observance of contracts are submitted
to arbitration boards.

At about the same time that the workingmen's and employers' associations
were endeavoring to establish arbitration boards, the department of justice took
the question up for consideration and prepared a bill in the matter. This measure
had a threefold object, viz. (1) to protect by law the right of association;
(2) to compel the registration of all labor unions and employers' associations,
and (3) to introduce compulsory conciliation in all cases, and compulsory arbi-
tration when requested by both parties. As a result of a suggestion made by the
Workingmen's Organization, the social committee to which the bill was referred,
inserted an amendment which provided for compulsory arbitration in disputes con-
cerning the interpretation and observance of contracts when requested by only
one party.

The Workingmen's Organization sanctioned the bill as presented by the
social committee, but that part of the measure which related to the right of asso-
ciation was so changed by the Odelsing that this same organization became opposed
to it and passed resolutions petitioning the "Lagting" to accept the measure as
presented by the social committee.

1. Indst. Sprogmalet om tvungen voldgift p 34.
2. Dage orden 1910 p 34.
3. Ibid p. 34.
The measure, due to the objections raised against the alterations made, was set aside and did not come before Parliament. In 1906, the question again came up in the form of a bill from the department of industry. The organized workingmen opposed this measure stating that they wanted to have the right of association fixed by law before any measure of conciliation was legislated upon, took the position that a law on compulsory arbitration was not desirable at present since it was the opinion of this body that disputes can be settled more satisfactorily through voluntary efforts.

As a consequence nothing came of this proposed measure. The following year, July 17, Parliament instructed the administration to investigate the question, and the succeeding year, the Odelsing recommended that the administration also investigate the question of the right of association in the same connection. On June 19, accordingly a departmental committee was appointed and both of these questions were submitted to it.

The principal provisions of the bill on conciliation and arbitration prepared by this committee were as follows: (1) that conciliation and arbitration councils be established to arbitrate such disputes as cannot be settled without strike or lockout by the organizations concerned, (2) that strikes or lockouts may not be declared until the question has been decided by the conciliation council (the decision of this council need not be final) and, (3) that no strike or lockout may be declared if the question involved is a legal one, but this question must be finally settled by the arbitration council. On one question the committee divided itself into a majority and minority. The former recommended that if the question is not a legal one, but one of so-called party interest, it must be brought before the arbitration court. If the court is unanimous in its decision, it becomes binding upon both parties, and if it is not unanimous, a strike or lockout may take place. The minority recommended that if the question is not a legal one, both parties may be free to declare a strike or

1. Modelanden fra Høyr Arb. giver Forening Nr. 42 1907.
lookout, provided no settlement has been arrived at and the conciliation council has completed its work. If both parties agree to bring the question before the arbitration council, the decision becomes binding.

Since the minority in this committee consisted of the representatives of the workingmen's and employers' organizations, it can readily be understood that the bill was not satisfactory to either of the parties most vitally concerned. These organizations have later taken a position relative to the measure which is in accord with the minority report.¹

Courts of Arbitration in Sweden.

The question of establishing courts of arbitration for the settlement of labor disputes came up for consideration by Parliament for the first time in 1887.² A motion was then made which requested that the labor commission of 1885 include in its investigations a study of labor arbitration. Parliament did not consider this motion, and when a similar motion was made later in the same session, it too was voted down.³ Motions of a similar nature, made in 1892,⁴ 1893, and 1895, met with a similar fate. When, however, a motion to the effect that the administration should take the matter under consideration was presented in 1899,⁵ it was voted on favorably.

The administration in accordance with this request, appointed a commission to investigate the question, and this commission made its report in Feb. 1901. The bill presented was altered to some extent by the department and was then presented to Parliament in 1905.⁶ The measure proposed that the King divide the country into districts and that a conciliator be appointed by him for each district.

The duties of the conciliator were: (1) to encourage the appointment of

¹. Dagsorden p. 33, et seq.
². Motion No. 31, Andra Kammaren
³. # # 43 # #
⁴. # # 196 # #
⁵. Riksdagens Skrifter No. 89.
arbitration committees by employers and employees; (2) to furnish such committees with aid and advice; (3) to keep in close touch with all labor conflicts, and (4) to seek through direct personal effort to bring about the settlement of labor disputes. The conciliator was to get acquainted with the circumstances in each conflict and was to request the conflicting parties to meet for the purpose of settling their disputes. If the parties should fail to heed his request, the conciliator was to have the power.

The measure did not in anywise discriminate between conflicts which concerned contractual relations and conflicts which were not of a legal character.

The measure also avoided the compulsory principle.

Many members of Parliament were in favor of this measure and were of the opinion that it would be for the common good in that it would bring the contending parties together. The opposition in the first chamber, however, was too strong, and as a result the measure was defeated for the time being. In 1906, the question reappeared and this time it received the vote of both chambers. In connection with the enactment of the measure, it is of interest to note that the committee was of the opinion that great effectiveness could be secured only on condition that the employers and employees be compelled to register their associations and that collective contracts be defined and circumscribed by law.

The first opinion of the committee is noteworthy when considered in the light of the experience during the general strike of 1909. This phase of the question will be considered later.

The provisions of the measure which was passed Dec. 31, 1906, briefly stated are as follows: The country is to be divided into districts by the King and a conciliator appointed by him for each district. These conciliators are to keep in close touch with the labor disputes in their district; are to give advice

1. Andra Kammaren Motion Nos. 54 & 55. Riksdagens Skrivelser 127, 128 & 142.
to employers and employees whenever asked to do so, and are to offer their ser-
VICES as conciliator whenever the nature of the dispute warrants it. If the
offer is not heeded, the conciliator cannot order a meeting of the disputants as
the previous bill proposed, but is requested to repeat his offers from time to
time. He must visit the places where strikes of any importance have broken out
or threaten to do so in order that he may get acquainted with the circumstances
in each case. He should also encourage the appointment of arbitration committees
by employers and employees. When a conflict involves more than one district,
 provision is made for the appointment of a special conciliator. Records must,
Furthermore, be kept of all strikes and lookouts in the district and each con-
ciliator is requested to collect all information possible relating to the pro-
visions of the collective contracts. Reports are submitted quarterly to the
Central Statistical Bureau.

Instructions have been issued to the conciliators in accordance with
the provisions of the law, and the country has been divided by the King into
seven districts each of which has its own conciliator. As to the workings of the
law, however, it is very difficult to say whether the system has been satisfactory.
In 1905, the first year in which it was in operation, there were in all, 302
strikes and lookouts in the country. Of these, the conciliators helped in a
direct way to settle disputes in only twenty-nine cases. It is not known in how
many other instances, the influence exerted by the conciliator may have had an
indirect effect in bringing about a settlement. In 1909, the number of strikes
in which the conciliator helped in a direct way had decreased to twenty-one. The
effect of the general strike, however, must be taken into consideration when we
compare the results of the year 1909 with 1905.

The sentiment among the organized workingmen is that the law is good
in so far as it offers an opportunity for the contending parties to meet and
arbitrate their differences.1 Neither party desires to take the first step and
the invitation of the conciliator avoids this difficulty. The general strike of 1909, however, made it evident to the organized working men that the law is not automatic enough but depends too much upon the will of the administration. The organized workingmen complain very bitterly of the action taken by the administration in 1909 when it declined to appoint a special conciliation commission on the ground that the strike was a general one and as a consequence was directed against society and not against a class. Later in the struggle, a conciliator was appointed and several conferences were called as a result of his invitations. It can not be said, however, that much good was accomplished by these meetings. Whether it would have been possible to do more had the conciliator been appointed earlier, is a question which many of the workingmen answer in the affirmative.

The writer, though he is of the opinion that the law is defective in that it is so dependent on the good-will of the administration, believes with reference to the general strike that it would not have helped matters much, had the conference of the employers and employees been called earlier. Both sides were determined to fight it out and to impress the opponent with their strength. Nevertheless, it is true that the action of the government had a direct tendency to encourage the employers and to discourage the workingmen.

Denmark - Courts of Arbitration and Conciliation.

The question of arbitration and conciliation was discussed in the Danish Parliament for the first time in 1893-4. The measure then presented, provided for the establishment of courts of arbitration by the communes whenever it should be desired by the employers' and employees' organizations and be sanctioned by the municipal authorities. Upon the refusal of the municipalities, an appeal could be made to the Minister of the Interior. The questions that could be brought before such a court included only labor conflicts of a legal nature. The court was to consist of representatives of the employers and the employees.

With reference to the conciliation board, the bill provided for voluntary conciliation in all disputes.

The bill seemed to meet with general favor from all parties in the lower chamber and was passed by that body. When it came to the upper chamber, however, it was turned over to a committee and did not reappear. The following year, the same bill was presented as an administration measure, but met with no favor in either of the chambers, and the succeeding year, the same thing occurred.

From then on no action was taken until 1900, when an act was passed which conferred certain powers on private arbitration courts.

In the agreement between the employers' association and the trade unions which terminated the lookout in the buildings trades of Denmark in 1899, a special provision was inserted whereby all questions as to the infringement of the agreement were to be settled by the court of appeals at Copenhagen. But the decisions of such questions was to lie with that court only until such time as there should court vested with the same authority as the ordinary courts be established by law a permanent arbitration of the country for deciding, upon evidence, causes brought before it, and with power to determine, finally, matters of disputes between the employers and workingmen represented by their respective central organizations. This arbitration court was to consist of seven members, of whom each of the parties was to elect three, who were not members of the directing council of the organizations in question. The chairman should be elected by these six and had to be one of the jurists of the country. As soon as this arbitration court had been established, it was to take the place of the court of appeals in all matters concerning the above agreement.

The government did not see fit to establish the court contemplated in the above passage, preferring to leave its establishment to the parties concerned, who founded such a court Jan. 27, 1900. To this court, however, the government lent

1. Folketing p. 5039
2. Tillaeg A p. 1791
3. Tillaeg A p. 2671
its sanction and aid through the passage of the law bearing the date of April 3, 1900.

The act which was drawn up in general terms provided that the power to summon witnesses may be conferred by Royal decree upon any arbitration tribunal charged with settling questions concerning the fulfillment of agreements made between a general association of employers and a general organization of employees. In order to receive this power, however, it was required that the arbitration tribunal be located in Copenhagen, and that its president should possess all the qualifications required by law of a permanent judge of an ordinary court. The rules as to the admission of witnesses and obligation to testify were to be, in general, the ordinary rules in civil cases. The power conferred by the Royal decree could be withdrawn whenever the organizations or the tribunal established by them should undergo any essential modification; when the president should no longer possess the necessary qualifications, or when the power conferred should give rise to abuses.

The court of arbitration established between the two central organizations was the only body upon which the rights above mentioned were conferred. This court continued in operation until 1906.

In the latter year, a conflict between the Danish Employers' association and the National Workingmen's Organization was terminated in that both parties subscribed to an arbitration agreement presented by the Minister of the Interior. This agreement contained among its other provisions, the following:
There shall be appointed upon the request of the Minister of the Interior, a committee consisting of an equal number of representatives of the two organizations, which committee shall investigate the question of arbitration and conciliation and present its report to the Minister of the Interior before Jan. 1, 1910. This committee which consisted of ten representatives of the employers' association and a like number of representatives of the Workingman's Organization to-
Gather with a non-partisan chairman presented its report, and as a consequence, an arbitration and conciliation measure was passed.

According to the measure, there is to be established an arbitration court consisting of seven members, three of whom are to be elected by the employers' association, three by the workingmen's organization, and one, the chairman, by the other six. In case the two organizations mentioned, should at some future time cease to be representative of the employers and the workingmen respectively, the Minister of the Interior, will entertain a motion to have the manner of election changed or seek to have the law amended. In case the six members cannot agree upon a chairman, the chief justice and certain other judges are authorized to select one from among the judges of the competent courts. The chairman must in any case be competent to sit as judge in any of the common courts of the land.

The court can be resorted to when there arise questions enumerated in the Royal decree of May 16, 1900, and when a contract between a workingmen's organization and an employer or employers' association has been violated in one or more of the following ways: (1) when an employer or employers' association violates a contract with a workingmen's organization, (2) when one or more members of an employers' association do anything in violation of a contract between that employers' association and a workingmen's organization, (3) when a labor organization or members of such, acting in consort, violate a contract with an employer or employers' association, (4) when either party threaten a lookout or strike as the case may be, and the party toward whom the action is directed, believes that the threatened strike or lookout is a violation of a contract, and (5) when an employer or employers' association, or workingmen's organization begin or continue a strike or lookout as the case may be, in violation of a contract. In addition to the above instances, a question may be brought before the court whenever both parties agree to do so.

The court can decide all cases enumerated by the law and can impose
damages whenever the payment of such appears justified. The court can require the presence of witnesses and has in this regard the same power as an ordinary court. The chairman may furthermore call the representatives of the contesting parties together prior to the sitting of the court with a view to effecting a conciliation.

Cases may be thrown out of court whenever the organization which makes the complaint or acts defendant is so small as not to warrant the expense of trial and when the contesting parties have made no provision for voluntary arbitration between themselves.

The conciliation law provided for the appointment of a conciliator by the Minister of the Interior upon recommendation of the arbitration court. It is the duty of the conciliator to work at all times for the cessation of labor conflicts. Whenever he has reason to believe that a conflict is about to break out which threatens to become of some importance to the public, and when at least one party has declared the negotiations closed, he may of his own accord or at the request of one party call the contestants together for the purpose of conciliation.

The conciliator may himself, offer a plan of conciliation but in preparing such a plan he must consult a representative of each party. If the conflict concerns wages, working time, overtime and the like, the conciliator may request both parties to present statements of their case. If the conciliator is of the opinion that these statements are not correct, he may bring them to the arbitration court and produce sworn testimony with reference to the subject.

Very little can be said with reference to the operation of the conciliation and conciliation laws in as much as they are of a very recent date. It may be said, however, that the organized workingmen are satisfied with the laws and expect good results. The fact that the law of 1900 had been fairly satisfactory, cause them to believe that the new and more complete measure will be still

1 Personal Interview.
more satisfactory.

One striking feature of the arbitration act is the placing of the election of the court in the hands of one labor organization and one employers' association. This may seem a very dangerous procedure, but the committee after investigating conditions among organized workingmen and employers came to the conclusion that the two organizations utilized by the law were sufficiently representative of the organized workingmen and employers to insure justice. This procedure, furthermore, would secure simplicity of administration and the good will of the large organized bodies. From the point of view of the two organizations concerned, it was additionally desirable in that it would tend to strengthen them and encourage centralization in their respective fields.

In 1906, the total number of industrial workers in Denmark, excepting farm laborers, was 236,000. Of these 99,000 were organized and of this number, 76,000 belonged to the National Workingmen's Organization. The number of industrial workingmen for 1905 is not known, but the organized workingmen then numbered 117,000 and of these 96,000 belonged to the National Organization. The number of workingmen in the employ of the Danish employers' association in 1906 was 72,000 but this number has increased considerably since that time.

It was on the basis of the above figures that the committee concluded that the National Workingmen's Organization and the Employers' Association would be sufficiently representative of the workingmen and employers.

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LABOR EXCHANGE OR MEDIATION BUREAUS.

In this country, as was formerly the case in Europe, the term employment bureau is used to designate those institutions at which unemployed may apply for work and where a systematic attempt is made to find employment for them. The employment bureau originated either as a class institution with the labor unions, as a means of securing work for their unemployed; as a private institution for gain, or as a social institution of charity. In all cases, whether the element of pecuniary gain entered or not, the underlying cause for the appearance of the employment bureau was the need for an agency to secure employment for the unemployed.

The scope of the labor mediation bureaus is much greater than that stated above. Among their purposes are included the following: (1) to secure employment for the unemployed, (2) to study the labor market so that the supply and demand can be readily gauged, (3) to fill positions with the best labor procurable, (4) to establish a statistical basis from which may be determined the direction of which labor should flow, (5) to prevent the recurrence of periods of unemployment in large cities by ascertaining the existence of an undue demand and by making this known to those seeking employment, and (6) to serve as a court of arbitration and conciliation in labor conflicts. This outline of the purposes of the labor mediation bureaus, shows that the aim of these bureaus is a manifold one and that it seek the establishment of a far-reaching social institution. In all other markets, institutions have arisen either thru private or public initiative which show the exact relation of these factors to each other in the various parts of the country. In the labor world only, is such an institution lacking. It is true that we are not wholly ignorant of the general level of labor prices, and it is also true that labor prices are not subject to such sudden and frequent variations as those of many other commodities are; but is nevertheless a fact that variations do take place and that we have no institution which gives the seller and
buyer of labor the exact price of this commodity from time to time in the different industries and in the different parts of the country. To gain such a complete control of the field that the great majority of vacant positions and applications for employment will be cancelled thru the activities of the bureaus, and a statistical basis thereby afforded which will show for each month, at least, the exact relation of demand and supply in the labor world is, the prime object sought. A second great object aimed at is to obviate that great waste of time and energy which the present system of equalizing the demand and supply makes inevitable. It is pointed out by those interested that the discouragement caused by the long search for employment disheartens many persons, causes dissipation and makes them drop into the idle and drifting class. It is, furthermore, intended that the labor mediation system shall be made nation and even world wide with numerous bureaus located thru-out the various countries. Within the country, especially, these local bureaus are to keep in direct and free telephonic, telegraphic and postal connection with each other and a system thus worked out which will make it possible to equalize the unsatisfied demand of one place with the oversupply of another. It is also intended that the state shall provide free transportation for such of the unemployed as are transferred from one place to another by this system.

Norway - Labor Mediation Bureaus.

The establishment of Labor Mediation Bureaus received attention in Norway for the first time in the capital city of Christiana in 1895. In that year a committee of four was appointed by the municipal council to investigate the matter and to report to the council. The committee reported on April 9, 1896, recommending the establishment of a bureau founded on the principle of mediation rather than on that of mere exchange. It was the desire of the committee to create a social institution having as its object the bringing together of employers in need of workingmen and workingmen in need of employment. The committee
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also suggested: (1) that the bureau collect and publish such statistics as would give the workingmen within and without the city a knowledge of working conditions in the city; (2) that the other cities of importance also establish similar bureaus or that the state establish the bureaus and combine them in a central institution, and (3) that this bureau act as an arbitration bureau in case of labor conflicts when this was the desire of both parties.  

The same year in which the report was made, the city council passed an ordinance establishing a Labor Mediation Bureau as recommended by the committee. A few of the important regulations of the bureau were, (1) that it be in charge of a committee consisting of a chairman and eight members, four of whom are employers and four employees and one of each group a woman, the whole committee being elected by the council, (2) that the work of the bureau be in the immediate charge of a director recommended by the committee but elected by the council, (3) that the service of the bureau be gratis, and (4) that it arbitrate in conflicts when requested to do so by both parties to the controversy, and be inoperative as an employment bureau during strikes and lockouts so far as concerns such employers and workingmen as are affected by the strike and lookout.

The bureau begun its work Jan. 17th, 1896 and had continued in operation ever since. Ole Groth who was chosen director made a trip to Germany and Switzerland to study the operation of labor mediation bureaus in these countries, and it was largely due to his thorough knowledge of the work as well as his enthusiasm for the movement that the system introduced, at first in Christiania, and later, as we shall see, extended to embrace the whole country, has been so successful.

Acting on the recommendation of the Christiana committee that the State interest itself in the labor mediation question, a movement was set on foot at once and a bill providing for the establishment of a national mediation system was laid before the Parliament the same year.

2. Foreste Aarsberetning p. 10
This bill which provided merely that all the municipalities should establish bureaus, was forwarded to the national administration with the request that the question be investigated and worked out in greater detail. As a consequence the bill was laid before the municipal councils, poor law administrators, and provincial authorities together with a number of private societies and individuals in order to obtain their opinions as to the feasibility of such legislation. As a result of the foregoing replies to the questions, the administration recommended to Parliament at its session 1900-1901 that a departmental committee be appointed for the further consideration of the question.

This recommendation was favorably acted upon by Parliament and on Oct. 12, 1901 a committee was appointed. This committee made a thorough study of the labor mediation system in Norway and in some ten foreign countries and presented its report together with a bill providing for state labor mediation bureaus on April 6, 1903. The department in charge presented the bill together with a discussion of its main provisions to Parliament on Mar. 10, 1906. In Parliament, the bill was amended to a slight extent, and with these relatively unimportant alterations, it became a law on the 12th of the following June.

The same day that this law was passed, another measure providing for the subsidization of unemployment funds, was passed. It was the purpose of the legislature to have these acts supplement each other in the counter-action of unemployment. The intention was to decrease the unemployment as much as possible by the labor mediation system, and to alleviate the conditions caused by unemployment by the subsidization of unemployment funds.

As has been stated previously, the law of 1906 enacted that a system already in existence in certain cities be established throughout the country. The principal provisions of the act relate to the purpose, the administration, the

1. Indst. av Com. Apr. 6, 1903.
2. An appendix to this report containing further information on the question was presented Oct. 5, 1904.
extent, and the support of the system. It provides for the establishment of free public labor mediation bureaus in all such towns and communes as shall be designated by Royal Decree. Each bureau is to be controlled by a board consisting of employers and workingmen in equal numbers, together with a chairman not connected with any local industrial undertaking in the capacity of employer and employee. Persons elected as members of such boards are bound to accept office and serve for three years. All requisite charges for stationery, printed matter and the use of telephone and telegraph are to be paid by the state but all other expenses must be defrayed by the local authority unless the population of the commune is less than 30,000 in which cases the State will refund a certain proportion of the amount spent on the salaries of the bureau officials, the proportion varying from one-tenth where the population is between 25,000 and 30,000 to seven-tenths where the population does not exceed 3,000.

The bureaus continue their operation during strikes or lockouts, but either party to a dispute may, prior to the stoppage of the work, furnish the bureau with particulars on the subject in which case the bureau is to draw up and post on the premises a notice announcing the date and cause of stoppage of work and the occupation affected. Any commune not designated by the King, may establish a bureau and upon receiving the sanction of the department in charge will be entitled to a subvention from the State. All bureaus are required to send in various statistical reports to the Central Statistical Bureau. Finally, no private employment bureaus may be established without the sanction of the department in charge.

The regulations governing the internal administration of the individual bureaus were issued by the department of trade and industry on July 5, 1907. These regulations prescribe the business forms to be used; the nature of the statistics to be prepared; the manner in which the applicant shall apply; the manner in which the bureau shall be notified of positions accepted; the relation of one bureau to another and the weekly reports which each must make to the other;
the relation of the system to foreign bureaus; the nature of the monthly statistical report; the nature of the annual report, and the groups into which all workers should be classified showing under what group any vocation should come.

The card system employed is of interest as a large part of it is peculiar to the Norwegian system. When the applicant for employment registers at the bureau, he is given a card stating his name, the date of registry; the time when he was assigned work; the time when he became unemployed and the number of weeks the unemployment has continued. When the same applicant returns to the bureau at some subsequent time to make application again, he has only to present his card and have the facts as to his present unemployment noted thereon. Duplicate cards are filed by the Bureau. These also state the name of the employer with whom the applicant has been assigned work. Another card containing information as to the applicant, his trade, birthplace, date of birth, education, matrimonial status, dependents, etc., is likewise filed with the bureau.

When vacant positions are registered with the bureau, no card is given the employer, but a filing card corresponding to the employee's filing card is filled out and kept on record. This shows the name and address of the employer; the nature of the work; the qualifications required; the wages or salary paid, etc. It also shows the names of such applicants for work as have been assigned to the employer from time to time and the dates when such assignments were made. By glancing over these cards, which are filed according to groups or industries, it is possible to determine in a few moments the number and the kinds of positions that are open.

When an applicant is assigned to a certain position, a postal card is given him which contains in addition to the name and address of the employer, several questions which the employer is required to answer. The applicant upon reaching the address in question presents his postal to the employer. If the latter is satisfied, he answers the question, "Is the applicant accepted?" affirmatively; states the amount of wage to be paid and whether the work is to
be permanent or temporary, and mails the card to the bureau. In case he is not satisfied, he answers the above question negatively and states his reasons, whereupon he mails the card as in the other case. If the applicant secures the position, his connection with the bureau ceases for the time being although he still retains the first mentioned card and is at liberty to return whenever unemployed without registering a second time.

As was to be expected some employers have been negligent in returning the cards handed them by the applicants. To remedy this a special card is sent out, and a fine of twenty-five ore is imposed whenever a position is filled without notifying the bureau. A special card has also been prepared with which to notify particularly good applicants of open positions and thus save them the trouble of calling each in person at the office. In case the applicant is assigned to a position in another town or district and decides to take the position, a card is given him which upon presentation at the Railway Ticket Office will entitle him to a third fare ticket for half price.

Besides the above mentioned cards, statistical forms are employed. One is for the weekly reports to the other bureaus, showing in what groups and industries there is an oversupply, and vice versa. The other forms are for the monthly and annual reports respectively. The monthly report shows the number of applicants for employment, the number of vacant positions and the number of positions filled in the various groups and industries during the month. The annual reports summarize the data given in the monthly reports; give the causes of unemployment; and show the state of employment in each trade during every week of the year.

The following tables show the activity of the labor mediation bureaus in Norway.
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<th>Total unem. pos. registered</th>
<th>Total vacant positions registered</th>
<th>Total positions filled</th>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Men positions filled</th>
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<th>Women positions registered</th>
<th>Women positions filled</th>
</tr>
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<td>1905</td>
<td>10,167</td>
<td>14,239</td>
<td>17,505</td>
<td>10,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>10,724</td>
<td>11,604</td>
<td>13,795</td>
<td>9,660</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10,677</td>
<td>11,677</td>
<td>13,167</td>
<td>8,951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5,643</td>
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<td>8,290</td>
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<tr>
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<td>9,138</td>
<td>7,769</td>
<td>6,545</td>
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<tr>
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<td>8,425</td>
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<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>4,404</td>
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<td>4,471</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4,719</td>
<td>4,370</td>
<td>4,542</td>
<td>3,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>3,273</td>
<td>3,264</td>
<td>3,435</td>
<td>2,244</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. For all labor mediation bureaus
2. For Christiania.
3. For Christiania alone as the figures are not available for Bergen.

Sweden - Labor Mediation Bureaus.

The satisfactory and promising results obtained by the labor bureaus in Christiania and Copenhagen finally led to their introduction into Sweden. Helsingborg and Gothenburg took the lead in this country and established bureaus in 1902. These have since served as models for other cities.

Even before any municipal bureau had been created, the question of whether the State should take an active part in creating such bureaus had already arisen and had received parliamentary attention. A motion made in 1900 was accompanied by a very scholarly history of the development of labor mediation bureaus in Germany, Norway and Denmark, and proposed that the State by means of subventions to communal mediation bureaus should encourage their establishment and development.

1. Motion Andra Kammaren No. 152.
In Parliament, the question apparently because of its newness, found a varied reception. The motion only requested the administration to take the question under consideration. The committee to which the bill was submitted, decided in its favor, but the chamber turned against it by a slight majority.1

The following year, the question was again brought before Parliament. It appears from the discussion which now took place, that the great majority favored the measure. The vote, nevertheless, was against it since it was the opinion that the municipalities should take the matter in hand first. When the bureaus had been started in this manner, it would be proper for the State to step in to regulate and subsidize them.2

In the meantime many of the cities in Sweden, as we have observed, proceeded to establish bureaus. It was then that the administration proposed to Parliament that the administration be empowered to subsidize in a systematic way the public labor mediation system. The proposal was favorably acted upon and an appropriation of 15,000 kr. was granted for the year 1907. Similar appropriations for the following years have been made from time to time.

Since the passage of the measure several attempts have been made to amend it. The first, which was successful was enacted in 1907 and consisted merely of a request to the administration to inquire into the need of a mediation bureau for Swedish citizens residing in foreign lands.3 The second which was unsuccessful but which was incomparably more important consisted of a request to the administration that it inquire into the practicability of the State furnishing transportation expenses to unemployed who had secured work elsewhere thru the service of the mediation bureau.4

In 1907, there were two labor bureaus in operation. In 1906, the number had increased to thirteen not including a large number of affiliated bureaus. In

1. Motion Andra Kammaren No. 45, 1900.
2. Andra Kammaren Forhandlingar No. 14 p. 35 Bd. II.
3. Riks dagas Skrifvelse No. 91.
1909, there were nineteen principal bureaus and some twenty subordinate or branch bureaus.

The following table shows the activity of these bureaus for the past few years:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Applicants</th>
<th>Positions Filled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>male</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>61,685</td>
<td>36,359</td>
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<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>42,569</td>
<td>29,535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that the number of applicants has increased from 19,736 in 1906 to 126,261 in 1909, and that the number of positions filled increased from 31,146 to 52,044 in the same period. The percentage of positions filled to positions applied for was as follows:

1906 ------ 60% 1905 ------ 40%
1907 ------ 53% 1909 ------ 41%

For the men the percentage was as follows:

1906 ------ 60% 1905 ------ 34%
1907 ------ 51% 1909 ------ 35%

These tables are interesting in as much as they show a downward trend in the number of positions filled relative to the number of positions applied for, and show this trend in a more distinct way for men than for women and men combined. Though the percentages show this decrease, it must be borne in mind that the absolute figures in every instance show a decided increase. In any case, the period is too short to furnish a basis for an opinion as to the efficiency of the system.

From present signs, however, there is every reason to believe that the institution will be sufficiently successful to warrant its continuance and encouragement. The fact that the unemployed have continued to make use of the bureau in every increasing numbers shows, at least that the mediation bureaus are looked upon favorably by this class.

In their internal organization, the Swedish bureaus are very similar
to the Norwegian. The card system is used as in the latter country but here the system has been slightly modified. The arrangement of the waiting rooms in the Swedish Bureaus, is based on the principle that people of different classes do not like to associate with each other. Thus, i.e. in Stockholm, there are separate rooms for unskilled workingmen, skilled workingmen, unskilled women workers, domestic servants, office help and minors. There is also a separate room for the employers. In Norway, experience has shown that a similar arrangement is desirable. Mr. Groth, director of the bureau at Christiania, informed the writer that it was thought at first that a common waiting room for men and one for women would be desirable, in that it would be more democratic. The consequence there was that the better classes of workingmen and women did not avail themselves of the services of the bureau. It is to avoid this state of affairs that the arrangement was changed in the Swedish bureaus.

Denmark - Labor Mediation Bureaus.

Labor mediation in Denmark has not been subject to state regulation as in the other Scandinavian countries but remains a municipal activity. The first labor mediation bureau was established in Copenhagen in 1900, some two years after a similar bureau had been established in Christiania. This bureau has continued to operate since then and has at present two branch offices in the same city. These branch offices are for women only.

Outside of Copenhagen there is no public mediation bureau, altho attempts to establish such have been made. It is somewhat difficult to account for this fact since conditions have been so different in Norway and Sweden. One reason that may be assigned is that the National government in the latter countries have looked with favor upon the establishment of municipal bureaus and has stepped in to subsidize and encourage them. Another reason may be that the administration of the Danish bureau has not been conducted along the same lines as in the other countries. The purpose of the bureau in Denmark as in the other countries
is to secure employment for the unemployed and to fill vacant positions for employers. In Denmark, however, too much emphasis seems to be laid upon securing suitable workingmen for the employers.

The card system used in Norway and Sweden, according to which each applicant fills out and signs a card which is kept by the bureau and a duplicate of which is retained by the applicant is not used in Denmark for various reasons. The principal reason for this is that there is no way of checking the identity of the person. Whereas, in Norway and Sweden, the bureau officials assign positions by referring to the cards, the Danish officials must call in the person and judge from his answers, general appearance and the like whether he is suitable for the proffered position. While in the former system, the object is accomplished smoothly, the latter system causes much trouble in that persons who have presented themselves and have been refused the position, see a fellow applicant step in and get the job which they consider theirs.

An additional reason for the failure of the mediation system to spread in Denmark, is the strong development of employment bureaus conducted by labor unions. Of the forty-seven registered unemployment funds, in 1910, eighteen funds with a membership of 49,000 operated unemployment funds. When, in addition to this fact, it is known that the unemployment insurance council after much discussion has passed a resolution urging upon each unemployment fund to establish a separate employment bureau, it is further understood why the public mediation system has not been so successful.

The council discussed the feasibility of having all the unemployed referred to the public bureaus where such existed, but this was strenuously objected to by the unions. The objection was that the individual bureaus, in that they handle only one kind of skilled labor, could be more effective. Undoubtedly there are other more pertinent reasons. Be that as it may, the result was that the council recommended that the individual employment bureaus cooperate with
the public bureaus.

The attitude of the unions in this instance is interesting as it is indicative of their attitude in Norway and Sweden as well. In the latter countries, particularly in Sweden, the public bureaus have tried to obviate the difficulty by dividing their bureaus into departments to take charge of the different classes of workingmen. This policy is fairly effective, but it is still a matter of doubt in view of the action taken in Denmark whether the unions will not force the public bureaus to become mediators for unorganized and loosely organized laborers only.

Activity of the Communal Labor mediation Bureau in Copenhagen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Men</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1909</td>
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<td>1906</td>
<td>1905</td>
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<tr>
<td>Applications</td>
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<td>Positions</td>
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<td>Applications</td>
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<td>24,526</td>
<td>19,737</td>
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<td>15,251</td>
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**Notes:**
- This table represents a detailed list of codes and their corresponding values.
- Each code is a unique identifier, and the values are used for specific applications or tracking.
- The table is part of a larger dataset, which includes various codes and their detailed descriptions or explanations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1904</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>8,353</td>
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</table>

With reference to the above table, it will be noticed that there has been a decline in the activity of the bureau during 1908 and 1909. The fact that this decline has not been only in the number of positions filled, but also in the number of positions offered and in the number of applicants, suggests the thought that the bureau is not prospering.
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<td>0.15</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the results of various experiments. The data was collected under controlled conditions and analyzed using statistical methods. Further analysis is required to draw conclusions.
Normal Working Day.

In the Scandinavian countries there has not been any legislation establishing a normal or maximum working day. The only legal restrictions on the working time of adult persons are such as result from the regulation of child and woman labor, work on Sundays and holidays and work in bakeries, printing establishments and match factories. In the case of the restrictions of child and woman labor it is found that these restrictions also shorten the working time for male adults in many industries.

Repeated efforts having been made to introduce measures providing for the establishment of the maximum working day. In Sweden, four bills of this nature came before Parliament in the nineties and one has appeared since then in 1908. All of these measures received very little attention. In Denmark, the question of the maximum working day came up for the thirteenth time in 1907-8, but each time it has failed to receive much support outside the socialist ranks. In Norway, the activity along this line culminated in the report of the committee on social questions in Parliament which recommend the establishment of a normal working day of ten hours and a weekly working time of fifty-six hours. The socialists and workingmen in general, supported this measure, notwithstanding the fact that it fell short of their eight hour program and defended their action on the basis that it is better to get something than nothing. The recommendation of the committee, however, was not incorporated in the new law. Since then, as has been pointed out, the Socialists and organized workingmen have agitated for a revision of the new law of 1909, so as to provide for a nine hour working day.
Part III

Ch. I Social Insurance in the Scandinavian Countries.

The essential idea of the modern institution of insurance is cooperation in the bearing of losses which are likely to happen to any one of a large body of persons but which will actually fall upon but few members of the group. Social insurance is a plan for distributing the economic loss incurred by members of the working class thru sickness, accident, unemployment, old age and death. Preventive measures can decrease the economic risks from these sources but cannot obliterate them. Social insurance is therefore a supplement to protective measures.

There are several agencies for effecting this insurance. Private companies may be organized for this purpose; the workingmen may organize mutual insurance associations; the state may by enactment compel the employer to insure his employees; and the state may insure the workingmen either directly by taxation or the levy of premiums, or indirectly, by subsidization of mutual insurance associations. Apart from these clear cut methods, insurance schemes containing some elements of two or more of them may be employed.

Of the types of social insurance cited, all have existed to some extent in the Scandinavian countries. The first type, the private companies, has been important in accident insurance only. Of the remainder, the second, mutual association, played a very significant role in the early history of all the forms of social insurance and continues to be very important in all the forms with the exception of accident insurance. It is the third and fourth methods, however, which interest us in this study for it is in these systems that the government enters as an active factor and the legislation exerts a powerful influence.

The most important question with regard to the relation that the government should bear to social insurance and the two classes concerned, viz: the em-

ployed and employing class, has been whether the insurance should be compulsory or voluntary. The principal arguments that have been advanced from time to time in the Scandinavian countries against compulsory insurance are: (1) that it encroaches unduly upon the freedom of the individual; (2) that it undermines private initiative and (3) that it will require a too complicated administrative system. The principal argument in favor of compulsory insurance has been that there is always a large class of men who either lack the initiative to provide for emergencies, or, having the initiative, lack the means of providing for them. These too, are the men who more than all others have need of economic aid when their working efficiency is impaired. It is moreover, pointed out that compulsory insurance furnishes that very necessary element, uniformity. Employers, solicitors of the welfare of their employees, will not, under this system, be placed at the mercy of their more unscrupulous competitors. With regard to the charge of complicated administration it is urged that experience will simplify the administrative machinery.

Workmen's insurance received its first parliamentary attention in the Scandinavian countries as a result of the legislation along these lines enacted by Germany in 1884. Prior to this time, the question of employers liability in Denmark had been investigated by a commission appointed in 1875, but no action was taken upon its report. After Germany had lead the way, the question of social insurance at once came before the parliaments in all the Scandinavian countries, that of Sweden in 1884, and those of Norway and Denmark in the following year. In each case the result of the discussion was the appointment of a commission to investigate the subject.
Norway - Accident Insurance.

In Norway, the Royal Commission, appointed August 19, 1885, was instructed to inquire into the feasibility and necessity of enacting, in addition to a measure providing for the protection of factory workmen, a measure providing for workingmen's sickness, accident, and old age insurance. This commission submitted, as a part of its report in 1890, a bill providing accident insurance for factory employees. On the basis of this investigation, the Department of the Interior prepared its report, submitting in its turn a bill agreeing in all essentials with the measure presented by the commission. When this bill was presented to Parliament in 1893, it was decided not to take the subject under consideration during that year. When at the following session, the bill again made its appearance, a committee for social investigation was created and the matter referred to it.

The Department of the Interior in the meantime had changed its position relative to the matter. In its report, it suggested that the subject of accident insurance be dropped for the time being. The department considered it necessary that the principles of a general scheme of workingmen's insurance should be determined upon before any law for accident insurance should be passed. The department, to support its new position, pointed out the changes that had taken place in the laws of other countries, particularly Germany and Austria, these changes seemed to indicate that the tendency was now to make accident insurance an integral part of a complete insurance system to include sickness, old-age and invalidity insurance. It was furthermore shown that merely one-tenth of the causes of invalidity among old persons and one-seventh among young persons have their origin in accidents and that there is really no difference between indus-

2. " 111, 1893.
trial accidents and industrial diseases. It was also held that accident insurance will provoke labor conflicts, since workingmen will ascribe all manner of ailments to accidents, and that the attempt on the part of Austria to extend her insurance system from that of accident along to other forms, was found to be difficult. To further strengthen its position the department referred to the report of the new Labor Commission in Sweden which agreed in all essentials with its own.

The committee for social investigation,\(^1\) to which the matter had been referred, after taking up each point made by the Department of the Interior, disagreed with it and recommended on the contrary a bill almost exactly similar to that presented by the Labor Commission of 1885. It admitted that only a small part of the invalidity arises from accidents and that this form of insurance is only a part of a greater system, but maintained in view of the fact (1) that invalidity of this nature is incurred so suddenly, (2) that it is clearly due to the industry, and (3) that a law for accident insurance may at a later period without difficulty be combined with a more extended system of insurance, that there was really no reason why Parliament should delay the consideration of the question.

The Labor Commission of 1885, as has been mentioned, gave the whole subject of accident insurance much consideration. The commissioners all agreed that some form of compensation was necessary. It was a difficult matter, however, to decide upon the particular plan to be adopted. The commission found\(^2\) that two systems of compensation were then in operation: the system of employer's liability in England, France and Switzerland, etc. and the system of compulsory insurance in Germany and Austria. As regards home conditions, the commission found that on the basis of the accidents occurring in the years 1885 and 1886, there were annually twenty-four accidents for each one thousand men. Of these 2.2% resulted in death, 11.2% in permanent disability, and 56.6% in temporary disability.

1. Indst. 0. X. 1894 p. 2. (ibid p. 2)
2. Zacher Bd. I Heft. III.
disability. Of the last mentioned 46.6% resulted in disability of less than two weeks duration, 28.1% in more than two but less than four weeks duration; 21.5% in more than one but less than three months duration; and 4.5% in more than three months duration. Of the total number, 12.6% were incurred by means of tools, 31.4% by machines and 56.0% in other ways. The commission also found that it was extremely difficult for the injured person or his dependents to secure redress under the liability system then in force.

In view of the conditions at home and abroad, the commission decided in favor of compulsory State insurance. This was thought to be the best method, because it would tend to prevent industrial conflicts; because it would be the cheapest means of compensation and because it would be the least uncertain in the way of risk to the employer.

As to the position of the workingmen relative to the proposed legislation, a resolution adopted by the Scandinavian Labor Union Congress at its meeting in Copenhagen 1893, shows that the organized workingmen were from the start favorably disposed to accident insurance as well as to the general insurance plan. This resolution states that the Congress considered it to be the duty of the State to provide in a humane manner for the care of the sick, the aged and those incapacitated because of work, and that this should be done without charge to the recipients and without limiting their civil and political rights.

The accident insurance law as it was finally passed in 1894 differed very little from the measure proposed by the commission. In principle it remained wholly unchanged. This principle was that of State compulsion, the aim of the law being to have the State protect the workingmen by compelling each employer to insure his employees in a state insurance bureau.

The first motion of the law specified to whom the measure applied. Included within the provisions of the law are all workingmen and artisans, em-

1. Zeahe, Bd. I., Heft. III.
ployed in any factory or workshop where power other than human power is utilized; employees in mines, quarries, lime kilns, stone-cutting and ice industries, and in industries using or manufacturing explosives or very inflammable material; workmen engaged in the construction or furnishing of all houses, vessels, railroad, roads, bridges, parks, docks, dams, canals, sluices, sewers, gas and water mains, and in the installation of electric wires; employees on all roads, canals, sluices and dams; and chimney sweepers, members of fire departments and divers. The restriction was made that the work in which these workmen and artisans were engaged should be carried on for the purpose of consumption or in the interest of the state or commune. The further regulation was made that no less than 300 days of work should be done in each establishment within a period of thirty days. For instance, the law would apply to an establishment employing 10 men for a period of 30 days but would not apply to an establishment employing 11 or more men for a period of less than 30 days. All accidents industries excepting such as are intentionally incurred by the employee are insured against by the law.

If there is any doubt as to whether the industry comes under the law, the government department in charge decides. The king is also authorized to exempt an industry or trade in which it is shown that there is no danger of any accident happening to the workingmen. It is furthermore provided that the law shall not apply to employees of the state or commune if satisfactory arrangements have been made for other compensation in case of accident.

For the purpose of administering the law, a state insurance bureau was created, the directors of which are appointed by the King. The expenses connected with the bureau are to be defrayed by the state.

The method of compensation made use of by the law is based on the principle that justice is best done to the injured by granting him a certain percent of his annual wage, this to be in proportion to the extent of his injury and to continue as long as he remains in any way incapacitated by virtue of the injury.
introduction of modern technology where advanced machines are used to perform various tasks. However, it is important to note that the use of technology is not without its drawbacks. 

The integration of technology in society has led to increased efficiency and productivity, but it has also resulted in the displacement of workers. This has caused widespread concern and debate among experts and policymakers. 

Technological advancements have led to the automation of many jobs, which has resulted in the loss of employment opportunities. This has led to a significant increase in unemployment rates, particularly among low-skilled workers. 

Moreover, the rapid pace of technological change has made it difficult for workers to keep up with the latest developments. This has led to a skills gap that is widening the divide between those who are skilled and those who are not. 

As technology continues to evolve, it is crucial that we address these issues and ensure that we are creating a future that is inclusive and equitable for all.
The compensation fixed by the law is sixty per cent in the case of complete incapacity. Partial incapacity is compensated for in proportion to the degree of incapacity, but injuries which lessen a person's working capacity by less than five per cent are not entitled to compensation. In case of complete disability, the minimum compensation may not be less than fifty øre per day or 150 kroner per year. With reference to partial disability, the law does not provide for any compensation during the first four weeks following an injury if the injured person is a member of some sick-benefit fund or in some other way receives free sick-benefit. In case the injured does not receive sickness insurance, the law provides for the payment by the employer during these four weeks of a daily sum in the form of service or cash equal to fifty percent of the customary wage.

If death should ensue as a result of an accident, the law provides for the payment of fifty kr. for funeral expenses, and an annual compensation equivalent to twenty per cent of the customary wage to the widow (the same to a widower in case he is an invalid) and fifteen per cent to each child under fifteen years of age. If both of the child's parents are dead, but one only as a result of an accident, the child receives twenty per cent, and if both parents are dead as a result of an accident the child is entitled to fifteen per cent of the wage of each. The sum total of the compensation to the dependents may in no case, exceed fifty per cent of the usual wage of the head of the family. Compensation may also be granted to parents supported by the victim but the extent of this benefit, limited to twenty per cent in any case, is determined, whenever there are other dependents by the difference between the fifty per cent limit and the amount granted to the other dependents. In case the deceased was married after he had received the injury, neither the widow or the children from such marriage are entitled to any compensation. Illegitimate children are given the same rights under the law as legitimate children. If a widow remarries, she is paid a lump sum equal to three times the annual payment. Should a person entitled to compensation
emigrate, he is entitled to the same lump payment. Upon the emigrants return to the country the payment is resumed after the expiration of the three years.

In determining the amount of the injured person's wages, the law provides that in case he was not employed the entire year the annual wage may be calculated on the basis of the wages earned during part of the year, or of the wages of other men in the trade. If neither of these be satisfactory, the wages may be determined by the customary wage in the community. The minimum wage in any case, provided the person is twenty years of age, is 1.50 kr for men and 1.10 kr for women. For persons under twenty, the minimum wage may be proportionally reduced. In case the total earnings for the previous year exceed 1,200 kr, the excess is not considered. Included in this income are profits from industry and returns from land and from other sources.

Instead of giving cash, benefit and medical care to the injured, the insurance authorities may provide for him in a hospital. Should the injured person be married or be staying with relatives, the consent of his wife or of his relatives is necessary, unless it is evident that he is not receiving proper care at home. During the time that the injured person is kept at a hospital in this manner, the same allowance is granted to the dependents as would be paid in case of death. All extraordinary expenses connected with such hospital care are paid by the insurance department.

For the purpose of financing this insurance, industries are classified according to the risk incurred by the employees. The premiums are to be in proportion to the wages paid each employee. If the wages are below a minimum of one kr. in the case of women and 1.50 kr. in the case of men, the premiums are to be based on this minimum. Employers are allowed three months in which to give notice to the insurance department of the exact nature of their businesses. When a new business is established, eight days are allowed in which to make this report. If the business is changed in any way, the employer must notify the department.
within eight days and the authorities must then determine if the change has eliminated the business from the insurance field or has placed it in another class.

Premiums must be paid by the employer within fourteen days after the end of each quarter and the final accounts of the year must be sent in by the employer within two months after the end of the year. Should the department suspect that the reports made by the employers are not correct, the directors are authorized to consult the books of the company.

If a severe accident should occur, the employer must notify the department at once, and in case of a slight accident, notification must be made within four weeks. An investigation must be made as soon as possible after the accident has occurred and a further report submitted at a later date, showing the cause of the injury; the conditions existing at the time of the injury; the condition of the person injured; the number of dependents who in the case of death are eligible to receive compensation and the wages of the person injured. When necessary, the directors may require a public examination at which all the parties concerned are to be present. The decision of the directors if unsatisfactory, may be appealed within six weeks to a commission having its seat at Christiania. This commission is composed of seven members: a lawyer, a physician and an expert statistician appointed by the King for five years; and two employers and two employees, elected by Parliament for three years.

In the payment of the compensation, the funeral benefit is to be paid immediately, and other cash benefits are to be paid monthly. If the injured person is partially incapacitated for a long period or permanently incapacitated, he may, if he so desires, be given a lump sum not exceeding five times his annual allowance in order that he might prepare himself for another vocation. In any occupation which is attended with extraordinary or unusual risks, to the employee, the insurance directors can increase the amount of the premiums threefold.

For the purpose of administration, each commune is to have one or more
inspectors, as the directors decide. These are to be elected by the commune for a maximum period of two years; they are to have charge of the administration of the law in their district and are to be subject in all matter to the decision of the directors. Their pay is determined by the commune and is provided, one half by the commune and one half by the insurance department.

Insurance benefits cannot be attached, assigned or contracted away. Any accident of such a legal action against the employer except in case of intentional injury or gross negligence. Finally, the law permits employers in industries not embraced by the law, to insure their employees. Employees in industries not included in the insurance plan are also permitted to insure themselves by paying the regular premiums.

Statistics on Accident Insurance in Norway.

From July, 1895, when the accident insurance law went into operation, to 1907, there were reported 39,476 accidents of which 37,331 or 94.6% came under the terms of the statute. Of these 37,331 accidents 2.4% resulted in death, 17.8% in permanent disability; 47.5% in incapacity for a period exceeding four weeks but resulting in no permanent invalidity and reducing the earning power by over 8-1/3%; 1 and 31.8% in incapacity for less than four weeks duration and resulting in no permanent disability whatever. Dividing the whole period into three periods: 1895-1899, 1900-1903 and 1904-1906, we find that the recompensed accidents per thousand for men, women, boys and girls compare as follows for the three periods: 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1895-1899</th>
<th>1900-1903</th>
<th>1904-1906</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys under 16</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls under 16</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to these statistics the number of accidents among men and women has remained about the same. In the case of boys and girls under sixteen

1. It has not been found practical to grant compensation for accidents causing less than 8-1/3% incapacity.
2. The statistics are prepared for these periods.
years of age, we note a very decided diminution due undoubtedly to the effects of factory legislation. Since there has been practically no reduction in the number of accidents among men and women, it does not seem that we can draw the conclusion from these statistics that the accident insurance law has had any decided effect in reducing the number of accidents. It does show, however, that the law did not have the effect to increase the number of accidents as many held it would do by causing the workingmen to observe less care in handling dangerous machines, etc. The number of workingmen insured against accidents in the three periods was 126,555, 137,122 and 138,336 respectively.1

Some further very interesting statistics show that of all the injuries of such a nature that the injured were entitled to compensation, 91.4% were classed as contingent, that is, of such a nature that no particular cause for them could be pointed out, 6.1% were due to the negligence of the injured, himself, 1.5% were due to the act of a fellow servant and only .9% were due to the negligence of the employer.2 This shows as clearly as facts can show that when accidents are investigated by an impartial body, the overwhelming majority of them can be assigned to no particular fault of either the employer or employee.

The total expenses connected with the accident insurance, including the administrative expenses and the amounts necessary to capitalize the annual rents have been as follows:3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Expenses (Kr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>5,957,509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>7,053,624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>7,971,117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>8,660,977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>9,472,252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>10,176,773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>10,876,010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This rapid increase in the expense as shown by the above table, may at first sight appear to threaten a serious danger to the insurance phase. When it is considered, however, that the time has not yet been reached, when each year

will record a relatively fixed and equal number of deaths, the increase is not at all unexpected or alarming.

If the insurance is based on the capitalization system, it is necessary that the amount of premiums collected for each year be sufficient to meet the outlay necessary throughout the future as a result of the accidents occurring during the year. Thus if a young man of 20 years of age be permanently incapacitated, the capitalized value of the annual rent of 720 kr. due him would according to the law of probabilities with reference to mortality, amount to 9792 kr. According to the capitalization system, the premiums for the year when the accident occurred should cover the full sum of 9792 kr. When this method has been adopted, the next question to decide upon is whether the premiums for each year are to be calculated at the close of the year in such a manner as to cover the year's expense or a premium tariff prepared beforehand of such a nature that the premiums for each year would in the course of years average the annual expense.

The first of these methods is by far the simpler as it is only necessary to know the relative frequency and severity of accidents in the various industries in order to proportion the expense among them at the end of each year. It has a serious defect, however, when applied in practice. It fails to provide uniformity in the size of the premiums. The premiums accordingly may be very high one year and low another, a state of affairs not conducive to sound business.

The second method works well in practice as it provides the very quality which the former lacks. It is on the other hand a much more complex system and requires a very extensive collection of statistical data are the premiums can be so worked out as to meet the outlay and at the same time proportion the expense equitably among the industries. The latter system because of its applicability was chosen in Norway.

Very little statistical data bearing on accidents had been collected in Norway, but on the basis of what had been gathered for Norwegian industries
and such statistics as had been compiled in Germany and Austria, the insurance bureau classified all industries coming under the law into six classes and fixed the premiums in each class as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Premiums in kr. per 1000 kr. paid in wages.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Working on the basis of this classification, the bureau, by virtue of the experience gained and the statistics compiled in the meantime, became aware of many short-comings, and worked out a more complete and scientific classification. As early as 1899, a classification containing sixteen classes was substituted for the previous one and the premiums made to range from four kr. in the fourth class to thirty-six kr. in the sixteenth. The same year it was also decided that a revision of the tariff should take place every third year instead of every fifth year as the original act specified. As statistics became more complete, the classification can be prepared more scientifically and justice done to each industry and department.

The risk or danger of accident which an industry presents can be readily determined by comparing the number of accidents with the total number of working-men employed. Accidents in certain industries, however, may not average the same degree of severity, and to determine the size of the premiums it is necessary to take this factor into consideration. The method employed by the Norwegian Insurance Bureau to ascertain how accidents vary with respect to severity from industry to industry is very interesting.

A statistical account of all the industries is made up for each year showing the number of days labor in periods of three hundred days performed; the

1. At present the Insurance Council desires to revert to the five year period.
2. 300 days is taken as the number of working days for one individual in the space of a year.
amount of wages paid, and the amount of accident compensation paid under the terms of the law. When statistics have been kept for a period covering 10,000 years' work for one individual, the average is taken of the ratios for each year of the amount of compensation paid to the amount of wages. That is to say, the ratio of the expenditure for accident compensation to the total amount of wages is ascertained for each year and at the close of the period an average of these ratios is found. The classification of the industries is based on the averages obtained in this manner. The statistics are made out year after year so that any change in the number or nature of accidents in any industry will be known at once. In this way, the necessary corrections of the classification can be made from time to time.

The classifications of 1906, which is the latest, embraces 130 different industries whose accident risk has been determined in the above mentioned manner. As has been mentioned, the classes range from four to sixteen, and the premiums from four kr. to thirty-six kr. It is interesting to note in which class certain industries fall. Railroads fall in the 5th class; threshing in the sixteenth; loading and unloading vessels in the sixteenth; iron mines in the fourteenth; machine work in the eighth, and textile mills in the fourth to seventh, according to the danger incurred.

For the period 1895 to 1906, the accident compensation in the stone quarrying industry amounted to 47.3% of the total wages in this industry. This is the highest percentage. Some on the contrary fell as low as 3%. The average for the whole country for this period was 15.9%.1

Amendments to the accident insurance law of 1894 in Norway.

An amendment to the accident insurance act of 1894, was passed Aug. 6th, 1897, but repealed by an act of Dec. 23, 1899. The main object to the amendment of 1897 was to change the wording of the law so as to make it apply to temporary

as well as to permanent employees.\(^1\) The courts had held that the law did not expressly state this fact.\(^2\) The other changes made by this amendment were of minor importance.

The changes of importance introduced by the act of 1897, however, were reincorporated in the new amendment of 1899. The object of the changes introduced by the amendment of 1899 was to make possible such an arrangement of the classification of industries as would increase the income of the Insurance Bureau and thus prevent the deficits which had hitherto appeared in the accounts.\(^3\) According to the provisions of the original act the classification was to be determined by the King and confirmed by Parliament, the first revision to take place three years after the passage of the act and succeeding revisions every three years thereafter.

The amendment of 1899 provided that the King should decide upon the classification and Parliament revise it once every three years. During the intermediate periods, the King could make alterations in both the classification and the premium tariff. These changes, however, were not to become effective until the beginning of the following calendar year.

By this change, greater elasticity in the method of altering the classification of industries and the premium tariffs was secured. Whereas under the former law, no alteration could be affected without the sanction of Parliament, the classification could now be altered at any time by Royal resolution, it being merely left to Parliament to express itself relative to the matter once every three years. By shortening the period from five years to three years, the danger of the classification being placed too much outside of the control of Parliament was averted. The reform made it possible for the Insurance Bureau in this sphere which is altogether technical to make such alterations from time to time as experience might dictate.

Classifications in accordance with this amendment were made in 1899, (Dec.30);

1. 6th. prp. No. 31, 1897.
2. Sec. 1 of amendment of Aug. 6th, 1897.
3. 6th. Prp. No. 6, 1899-1900.
1902 (Oct. 25); 1903 (Aug. 1) and 1903 (Oct. 26). In 1906, Parliament concurred in the classification which was then in existence.

The next and third amendment of the act of 1894 was made on June 12, 1906. By this act the position of the contractor and the party with was determined and numerous other technical requirements stated more fully. No alteration in the principle was effected and no other change of importance was introduced.

The last amendment was enacted June 30, 1908. The object of this amendment was to include under the operation of the accident insurance law all lumber industries of such proportions that work for a space of twenty-five days per annum was required. This amendment has an important bearing in Norway where the lumber industry has attained a very extensive development.

Accident Insurance for Fishermen in Norway.

Altho accident insurance for fishermen was considered in a very general way by the labor commission of 1895 as a part of a complete system of social insurance, and the thought of state insurance for fishermen had become prevalent after the successful introduction of accident insurance for factory workmen, it was not until 1900 that the proposition began to assume definite form. In that year the second parliamentary commission included in its work on the revision of the accident insurance law, a special investigation of accident insurance for fishermen. Being of the opinion that such a system of insurance would be of great importance for the fishermen of the country as well as for the state at large, it recommended to Parliament that the question be subjected to a thorough investigation. The commission further suggested that it would be well to follow the Danish example and make the insurance voluntary; that it would be advisable to limit the insurance in the introductory measure to deaths resulting from accidents; and that the compensation should be granted in a lump sum. 2

These suggestions are noteworthy as they differ in each instance from the practice along accident insurance lines in Norway. The reasons assigned for the departure in the case of voluntary insurance were (1) that the administration would be simple, and (2) that it would be very difficult to introduce and maintain compulsory insurance in as much as the division of the class into employers and employees was not possible to the same extent as in the factory system. In regard to the limitation of the insurance to cases of death from accident, this was also proposed for the sake of simplicity. The fact that invalidity in the fishing industry plays a small role when compared with the number of deaths, supported this position. With reference to the lump sum payment, it was pointed out that in the case of fishermen, this would be the only practical policy as it was very difficult to determine the income of the individual fishermen, many of whom were working for themselves.\footnote{1} In addition to the attention received in the commission's report, the question of accident insurance received Parliamentary consideration in connection with the discussion on the budget in 1904-1905.

As a result of the general interest shown in both of these instances, the Department of Trade and Industry took the matter up for consideration. This department submitted the question in the first place to the directors of the Norwegian Fisheries and secondly to the provincial governors of all the coast provinces. As to the question of compulsory insurance, all of these were of the opinion that this part of the insurance system should be made compulsory. As to the other points, the opinions differed, the majority, however, favoring the limitation of the insurance to cases of death and the substitution of the lump sum payment for the "percentage of wages" payment.\footnote{2}

In 1905, the question was finally placed before the Parliament in the form of a bill presented by the administration.\footnote{3} This bill provided for the in-

\footnote{1} Ibid. p. 1 and 2.  
\footnote{3} Ibid. p. 45 et seq.
surance of fishermen against death resulting from accident; limited the compen-
sation to five hundred kr.; and fixed the amount of the premium at one kr. per
year. The law as passed, provided insurance against accidents causing permanent
and temporary disability as well as death; placed the amount of the compensation
at eight hundred kr. and fixed the premium at 1.50 kr. annually. To summarize
the principal features of the act, it is well to note at the very first that this
act retained the compulsory character of the first accident insurance law. It
is clear, therefore, that the Norwegian people had become convinced thru exper-
ience that the compulsory method of insurance was preferable to all others.

Included under the law are all deep sea fishermen having their home in
Norway whether these carry on the industry as a main or as a secondary occupation,
and the crews of all fishing vessels. The insurance, as previously mentioned, is
against any injury whether it results in temporary or permanent disability or in
death. Should a person, included within the provisions of the act, meet with an
accident while at sea for other purposes than that of fishing, it is only in
case of death that compensation is granted.

For permanent disability, the amount of compensation is 500 kr. the
same as in the case of death. For partial disability, the compensation is in
proportion to the extent of the disability, provided that it lessens the injured
person's working capacity by twenty per cent or more. No disability below this
per cent entitles the injured to any compensation. The compensation is paid
over to the injured in case of invalidity and to the dependents in case of death.
If it is evident that the money will be wisely used, the amount is paid over
directly; and if not, the representative of the insurance bureau must confer with
the party and come to some agreement with him as to the method of payment. In
this case as in most other cases coming under the law where disagreements occur,
 mooted questions may be brought before the Insurance Council for settlement.

The source of the income which is to cover the insurance is partly
that of premiums paid by the insured and partly a sum appropriated each year from the Harbor Fund. The premiums amount to 1.50 kr. per year for the regular insurance of 500 kr. If any fisherman should desire to be insured for 1,200 kr. or 1,600 kr. instead of 500 kr. he must pay a premium of 1.40 kr. and 2.50 kr. respectively in addition to the 1.50 kr. The sum to be appropriated from the Harbor Fund amounts to 60,000 kr. annually.

The most difficult matter in inaugurating fishermen's insurance was the question of administration. In the case of factory workmen, the existence of a distinct employing class simplified matters. In the field now to be entered no similar conditions existed. It was necessary, therefore, to hit upon some other method from that employed by the law of 1894. The problem was finally solved by using the communes as agents in the administration of the law.

Before the fifteenth of Dec. each year every commune is required to make a register of all such persons over fifteen years of age as are included under the act and reside within the limits of the commune. Against these persons the commune levies the necessary premiums, and collects them along with its other taxes. As payment for this work the communes receive five per cent of the premiums.

The State Insurance Bureau created by the law of 1894, has charge of the administration of this law in connection with its previous work; receives the returns from the communes; receives the reports of accidents from the supervisors in the various districts, and decides as to the amount to be paid out in each case.

Such, in its principal features, is the fisherman's insurance act of 1903. In many ways it, like its predecessor, was an experiment, a fact which the legislators recognized in that they inserted an article in the law requiring it to be taken up for legislative consideration three years after its enactment.

As the law on accident insurance for fishermen did not go into opera-
tion until the first of Jan. 1909, the statistics collected cover only one year of its operation. The report for this year shows that 92,290 persons in all were insured, of which only 622 were voluntarily insured. Of the whole number, 90,441 were insured for 500 kr., 455 for 1,200 kr. and 353 for 1,600 kr. During the year 535 accidents were reported of which 422 came under the terms of the law. The total number of deaths was 156, requiring a compensation of 139,200 kr. The number of invalidity cases of from 20% to 49% incapacity was forty-six, requiring 9,706.66 kr. in compensation. The number of cases where the degree of invalidity ranged from 50% to 100% was twelve, requiring 5,946.67 kr. as compensation. The number of accidents causing less than 20% disability was 178.

The income for the year was as follows:

- Premiums: 131,574.13 kr.
- Rents on neglected returns: 200.56
- Sale of fishing materials: 500.17
- Subvention from the Harbor Fund: 60,000.00

This makes a total of 192,274 kr. The outlay was 156,042.53 kr. leaving a balance of 36,232.33 kr.

Concerning the administration of the law, the Insurance Bureau reports that it has succeeded well. There were, of course, many instances when the law did not operate as strictly and as automatically as it should, due in part to the inexperience of the supervisors and the officials of the communes, and in part to the ignorance on the part of the people of the provisions of the law. As to the objections to the law, the provisions that are considered unsatisfactory by a large number are, first, the small amount of compensation, and, second, the high limit of twenty per cent.²

2. Private interview with officials - also newspaper accounts.
In 1884, a measure was introduced into Parliament which served as the starting point of social insurance investigations and legislation in Sweden. This measure had its source of inspiration in the action taken by the German government the previous year, a fact which the maker of the motion frankly admits. A direct connection can therefore be traced between the insurance legislation in Germany and the first attempts at such legislation in Sweden.

The proposed measure recommended the appointment of a royal commission to investigate the question of the prevention of accidents, insurance against accidents, employer's liability and old age and invalidity insurance. The discussion of these questions by the maker of the motion reveals a very deep insight in the problems to be investigated. It also shows that the introduction of this question as a parliamentary measure was not accidental but was a response to the demands that were becoming more and more urgent as time progressed.

The motion met with the hearty favor of both houses and a royal commission was subsequently appointed which investigated the various questions submitted to it and returned bills on all of them. Tho the motion, as has been stated, met with favor, the fact is worthy of notice that little progress was made until very recent times. Before we conclude, however, that this is a proof of the fact that the motion was premature it is necessary that we note that universal male suffrage has been in existence in Sweden for only a few years. This condition of affairs, since it has kept out of the voters' ranks many of those who would be the strongest advocates of labor laws, has militated against rapid progress in labor legislation. This has resulted, in the first place, from the fact that there have been comparatively few representatives of the working class in Parliament, and, secondly, from the fact that the organized workingmen have been obliged to center their efforts upon the suffrage question. As the suffrage problem has now been settled to the approximate satisfaction of the male popula-
tion, it seems probable that more energy will be manifested in the movement for labor legislation.

The commission which in the course of its work had investigated, in addition to the questions submitted to it, the question of sickness insurance, presented its first report July 26, 1888. 1 The bills prepared by this body dealt with the prevention of accidents, insurance against accidents, sickness insurance, and old age insurance. The first of these has already been mentioned in the study of factory regulation. The remainder will be taken up under the general headings, accident insurance, sickness insurance and old age insurance.

In 1890,2 the administration presented a bill based on the measure proposed by the royal commission and providing for accident insurance and the establishment of a state insurance bureau. It was the expressed desire of the administration to have Parliament state its opinion upon the question, and then, if the sentiment was favorable, to issue the measure in the form of a royal order, thereby taking the matter out of the hands of Parliament. Parliament was not satisfied with this plan of procedure but held that the question should by all means be made a legislative one.3

Nothing further came of this measure at that session, but the following year, two administration bills were presented. One4 of these provided for a system of accident insurance and the other5 for the establishment of a state insurance bureau. The insurance system was to be based on the compulsory principle; the compensation was to be paid in fixed sums and not in proportion to the wages, and the period following the accident, during which no compensation was to be paid, was to be fixed at sixty days. It was the opinion of the administration in regard to the last point that sickness insurance should care for the injured during this long waiting period.

1. Betankande Kommitte for revision angaende skydd mot yrkesfara m. m. p. 36.
3. Riiks dagens skrivelse no 127 1890.
5. Kung prop No. 25.
Parliament was again opposed to the measure and based its opposition on the ground, first, that the time was not ripe for such a measure, and secondly, that the compulsory principle could find no basis in the law of the land while the principle of employer's liability was fairly well developed in law and practice.\(^1\) Another circumstance that was used by the opponents of the compulsory principle was the enactment of the railroad employers' liability law of 1886. It was urged that the success of this measure did not warrant a departure from the principle of employer's liability.\(^2\)

In the meantime, Parliament also voted down the old age insurance measure presented by the commission. As a consequence, the administration secured the appointment of a new commission, the intention being to have this body consider jointly the questions of accident and old age insurance, and to prepare a bill which would embody these two forms of insurance. This committee submitted its report in 1893.

The bill prepared in connection with this report provided for a system of invalidity insurance which insured against all permanent incapacity whether it be caused by accident, old age or sickness. The details of this measure will be taken up under the general heading of invalidity insurance. We should note at this point, however, that the accident phase of this measure was to include the insurance of only such accidents as resulted in permanent incapacity.

Parliament rejected this proposed measure but requested the administration to present another measure. In 1895, accordingly a measure was presented whose provisions followed very closely, those of its predecessors. This time the second chamber accepted the principle of the measure. The first chamber, however, was strictly opposed to the measure.

Considering the fact that all the compulsory measures proposed by the administration, had failed and that two attempts at uniting accident insurance

1. Andra Kammaren Forhandlingar Ed III No. 30 No. 50 p.3.
2. At this juncture, A. Hedin moved that the original bill presented by the labor commission be passed but this motion was defeated - Motion No.176 1891.
and old age insurance had also resulted in failure, the only course which lay open to the administration was to take up the principle of employer's liability, and to build up a measure on this principle. As has been mentioned, the law of 1856, had been a success and the opposition had contended that it was advisable to legislate along this line rather than to strike off along a new path.

The law of March 12, 1856 was a measure applicable to the railroads which abolished the system of employer's liability under the common law and substituted a statutory liability which made the employer liable for all injuries sustained by his employees while at work. Injuries which were caused by wilful act, gross negligence or violation of railway regulations were not included under this provision.

The administration felt constrained to propose an employer's liability measure, but stated that the proposed measure was intended to be a temporary arrangement only. It stated that since it was not advisable to postpone all legislation, in the matter until a more general knowledge of the subject could be obtained and since the adoption of a less satisfactory measure did not preclude the adoption of more satisfactory measure at a later date, it would recommend the enactment of the employer's liability law. The administration also stated that the question had been submitted to the highest court in the land and that this body had placed itself in opposition to the compulsory principle.

In 1900, the accident insurance, now more rightly termed, employer's compensation measure, came before Parliament. The underlying principle that employers should be liable for all injuries sustained by their employees was to apply to all employers who had not insured their men in some recognized insurance company. The measure was defeated in the upper chamber, but received a favorable vote in the lower chamber. It was objected in the latter, however, that the law should provide for a state insurance bureau.

In 1901, the bill came back to Parliament with those provisions em-
bodied in it which had been recommended by the lower chamber. The law as it was finally passed embraces the following provisions: the liability of the employer; the industries included under the law; the amount of compensation to be granted; the injuries that will entitle the injured to compensation; the rights of foreigners; the time of payment; the exemption of employers who provide for compensation by insurance; the right to sue for damages; the establishment of the state insurance bureau; the manner of making accident reports; the proper courts to consider questions arising in connection with the law; the bankruptcy of the employer; the right to contract away the compensation; punishment and fines; voluntary insurance; classification of industries according to risks, and finally the repeal of the compensation provisions of the law of 1856.

**Liability:** Every employee in the industries enumerated in the law is entitled to compensation from his employer for all accidents incurred while at work excepting such accidents as are incurred by willful or gross negligence of the injured or the willful act of a third party who was not in charge of the work.

**Industries included:** The industries coming under the law are: (1) lumber industries, (2) ice industry and the preparation of peat, (3) mining, stone and lime quarries, tile and brick yards and industries for the mining and preparing of minerals, (handicrafts excluded), (4) factories, (5) ship building, distilleries, breweries, bakeries, slaughter houses, and creameries and mills that are conducted on a factory basis, (6) printing establishments, (7) the manufacture of explosives, (8) chimney cleaning, (9), the floating of timber, (10) the loading and unloading of commodities, (11) railways, (12) building trades, (13) blasting, masonry, roofing, etc. (14) construction of electric lines, and gas, water and sewer mains, and (15) industries which produce, transfer or distribute electric current; and gas and water works.

**Amount of compensation:** For injuries causing an appreciable reduction of the working capacity, for a period of more than sixty days, the amount of com-
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pensation is one crown per day for the time exceeding the sixty days. This pay-
ment is to continue until the injured person is cured or until the injury has re-
sulted in permanent incapacity or death. If the injury results in permanent and
total disability, the person is entitled to an annual compensation of three hundred
kr., and in case of partial disability to proportionate sums. If the injury re-
sults in death, within two years after the time of the injury there is granted
a funeral compensation of sixty kr.; an annual compensation to the widow of 120
kr., and an annual compensation of sixty kr. to each of the children under fifteen
years of age. The total annual compensation in such cases must not exceed three
hundred kr.

Injuries which entitle the injured to compensation: In adjudging the
effect of the injury, reference must be had not only to the nature of the injury
and its general effect on the ability of the person to care for himself, but also
to the effect which the injury has upon the particular skill which is necessary
for a workingman in the different trades and industries. Reference must also
be had to the age and sex of the person and to his or her working capacity at the
time of the injury. A person is to be considered as permanently and completely
incapacitated when he has become insane; has lost the sight of both eyes; lost
the use of both hands or the use of one hand and one foot. The degree of incapaci-
ty due to various injuries are rated as follows: general nervous weakness, 50%;
blindness in one eye, and weakened sight in the other, 70%; blindness in one eye,
20%; complete deafness, 50%; deafness in one ear, 10%; rupture, 15%; loss of one
hand or foot together with less use of the other hand or foot, 70%; loss of one
hand or foot, 50%; loss of all the fingers on one hand, 50%; loss of all the toes
on one foot, 20%; loss of a thumb, 25%, and loss of index finger, 15%.

Foreign residents and citizens: The widow or children of a foreigner
may not receive the annual compensation if they are not located in the country
at the time of the accident. No one may receive compensation during the time
he is domiciled in a foreign country. This does not apply to the representatives of the Government in foreign countries.

Time of payment: The funeral benefit is to be paid immediately after the death of the person; the sick aid is to be paid weekly on the first day of the week, and the annual compensation is to be paid quarterly.

Exemption: The law does not apply to such workingmen as are insured against accidents by the employer in a manner satisfactory to the state insurance bureau.

The right to sue: The law does not deprive any person of the right to sue for damages in case of injury.

Establishment of state insurance bureau: The law provides for the establishment of a state insurance bureau. All employers are authorized to insure their workingmen in this bureau and thereby free themselves from all risks.

Manner of reporting an injury: The injured person, if he is able to do so, must notify the employer or foreman at once of the fact that he has been injured. He must also avail himself of any medical care, which the employer may provide. When an accident has occurred, the employer is required to notify the prefect of police at once and to send to him as soon as possible, a physician’s certificate stating the extent of the injury. The police in turn verify these reports and submit them to the proper department.

Time limit: The time limit within which claims may be presented is two years after the accident has occurred. Various exceptions, however, are made with reference to this rule.

Lien: In case of bankruptcy, the law provides that the insurance dues shall constitute a first lien on the assets.

The right to contract away the compensation: The law prohibits the contracting away of the right to receive compensation according to the law.

Voluntary insurance: The law authorizes the employers who are not in-
cluded under the law to insure their employees in the state insurance bureau
and thereby become subject to the provisions of the law. Workingmen also have
the right to insure themselves against accidents in the state insurance bureau.

Classification of industries: The premiums are to be determined by
the comparative risk incurred by the workingmen while at work in the different
industries. The expense connected with placing the law in operation and in main-
taining the state insurance bureau is not defrayed by the premiums but is borne
by the state.

Discussion of the Accident Insurance measure in Parliament.

When the compensation measure came up for discussion in Parliament,
there was a large minority which was in favor of compulsory insurance and as a
consequence opposed the bill as presented. These persons applied all their ef-
forts toward making the compensation act as much of an insurance measure as possi-
ble. They accordingly worked for the establishment of a state insurance bureau
so as to prepare the way for the gradual introduction of obligatory insurance.
They were also opposed to the long waiting period following the time of the injury,
and contended that this would cause the employee to share the costs of the insur-
ance with the employer. The act as finally passed made provision for the estab-
ishment of the state insurance bureau but the long waiting period was not reduced.
The measure was without doubt a victory for the conservatives, but it was advanced
legislation as compared with the previous law on the subject.

Amendments to the accident insurance measure.

In 1904, the administration introduced a measure amending the accident
insurance law so as to give the employer the right to insure his employees for
the period immediately following the occurrence of the accident. This measure
was passed June 3, 1904.

1. Forhandlingar 2 ch. p. 2.
This amendment was in response to the general feeling among workingmen and many employers that the period of sixty days was entirely too long. Many collective contracts already contained provisions stipulating that the compensation should be paid from an earlier date than that fixed by the law. This amendment recognized the fact that some employers were compelled to insure their men and made it possible for them to insure their employees in the state bureau. It will be noticed, however, that the amendment does not make it compulsory for employers to insure their men for the first sixty days. This fact constitutes one of the principal objections to the accident insurance measure of the present day.

Another amendment, which was proposed in 1904, had as its object to make the compensation act apply also to such accidents as occurred while the employee was going to or coming from his work. This motion failed of enactment but came up again in 1905, 1906 and 1907. As the amendment read in 1906, it proposed to authorize the state insurance bureau to insure against all accidents which might befall the workingmen whether at work or elsewhere.

In the discussion of this measure, the opposition centered about the advisability of extending the powers of the state bureau. Those favoring the extension showed that the state bureau had been granted large powers by the original act and that these powers had been increased by the amendment of 1904. They contended that the state bureau had not been as influential or important as it should have been; that many employers already granted their employees compensation for accidents occurring while not at work and should therefore be given the right to insure them in the state bureau; and, finally, that more employers would make use of the bureau. The state bureau, itself, was of the opinion that such an extension of its powers would be highly desirable in order to bring about an increase in the activity of the state bureau and a more effective accident insurance.

As a consequence of the sentiment in favor of the extension proposed,
both chambers were brought to favor the amendment and the following year a measure to that effect was passed.

In 1907, three separate bills bearing on the accident insurance measure were presented in the lower chamber. One of these proposals was in the form of a request that the administration consider, in connection with the present question, the advisability of making it the duty of the state bureau to furnish free legal advice to such persons as had no other means of securing the same. This measure was adopted.

Of the remaining measures, both of which were rejected, the one proposed to do away with the exemption coming under gross negligence, and the other, proposed to shorten the waiting period from sixty days to thirteen days and to increase the amount of compensation. The last mentioned measure met with much favorable comment, but it was the opinion of the chamber that it would be advisable to let the matter rest until the administration should have had time to investigate the whole question of accident insurance.

In 1905, three measures were also proposed, all of which were rejected. The first sought to extend the provisions of the law to include all permanent workingmen; the second sought to substitute the payment of a percentage of the wage for the fixed payments. In the discussion on these measures in the second chamber, the general opinion was that many of the provisions of the measures presented should be enacted and that the law of 1901 stood in need of a general overhauling. The fact that the administration had informed the chamber that it was then at work upon a revision of the law caused Parliament to lay the matter aside for the time being.

2. Motion No. 30
3. Motion No. 117
4. Forhandlingar Andra Kammaren No. 69 p. 3.
Action taken by the state insurance bureau.

The state insurance bureau has issued a circular, the purpose of which is to supplement that article of the law which gave instructions as to how injuries should be graded or classified. The first part of the classification was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Injury Description</th>
<th>Disability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loss of an eye (eye removed)</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of an upper phalange in thumb</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of or complete stiffness in the upper phalange of index finger</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of or complete stiffness in middle finger, less than</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of ring finger, less than</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of little finger and partial loss of hand</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of middle, ring and little finger</td>
<td>25% to 30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of all fingers on one hand</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete stiffness in wrist</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of forearm</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete stiffness in elbow with straight position</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete stiffness in elbow with bend position</td>
<td>33-1/3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of whole arm</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of big toe on one foot</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete stiffness in ankle</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of leg below the knee</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete stiffness in knee with straight position</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of leg</td>
<td>75% to 80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The circular furthermore divided all workingmen into four groups: (1) Those who use mainly their muscular strength in their work; (2) those who do heavy work but must possess a certain amount of skill; (3) those who use their hands principally and must be possessed of a high grade of skill; and (4) those
If the request does not include the necessary information, the request will be denied. In such cases, the request will be returned to the requester for additional information. If the request is for a specific service, the requester must provide the necessary details to ensure that the request is processed correctly. The requester must also ensure that the data provided is accurate to avoid any delays in processing. In case of any queries regarding the request, the requester must contact the appropriate authority for clarification. The requester must also ensure that the data provided is not outdated to avoid any issues in processing. The requester must also ensure that the data provided is not outdated to avoid any issues in processing.
who must have a special educational preparation for their work. For each of these groups there are certain injuries which would incapacitate the workingmen to a greater degree than others and the administrators of the law are required to take this fact into consideration.

Merits and defects of the compensation act of 1901.

The provisions of the act of 1901 which provoked much discussion at the time of its enactment and which have since been subject to much criticism, are the following: (1) the principle of compensation upon which the law is based; (2) the limited number of workingmen to whom the law applies; (3) the long waiting period during which no compensation is granted; (4) the payment of fixed amounts and not a certain percentage of the wage; (5) the small amounts paid, and (6) the fact that it is the duty of the injured and of employer to see that the compensation is granted and not the duty of the state. On all these questions, a great change of opinion has taken place since the enactment of the law, a fact which is clearly brought out in a report accompanying a bill presented by the Insurance Bureau. The Kommers Kollegium, the labor statistical Bureau, also emphasizes this change.

The organized workingmen have taken a definite position with reference to all these questions. In a pamphlet issued in 1906, they stand for the principle of insurance; the payment of compensation for the time immediately following the injury; the extension of the law to include agricultural and handi-craft workers; the increase of the amount of compensation by 50%; the duty of the state to have direct charge of the execution of the law, and the extension of the law to apply to accidents incurred at or in the factory regardless of whether the person is at work or not.

1. Utlatande med forslag rorande andring i vissa delar af forksakrings lagen Stockholm 1905.
The state insurance bureau was of the opinion that the obligatory insurance principle would be preferable but it did not insist upon such a radical revision of the law. It wished to include a large number of the agricultural and handicraft workers; was unwilling to reduce the waiting period of sixty days, but wanted to make it a function of the sickness insurance to provide compensation for this period. It furthermore wished to retain the fixed payments but wanted to have them increased by fifty per cent. Finally it insisted in giving the State insurance Bureau more direct supervision of the insurance work, and suggested the establishment of a board insurance council to act as the principal governing body.

The Kommers Kollegium went further than the State Insurance Bureau in its recommendations and stood for the introduction of obligatory accident insurance. It objected to the recommendation of the bureau to the effect that the various forms of social insurance be worked into one system and was of the opinion that Sweden should profit by her own experience as well as the experience of other countries, and enact insurance legislation piecemeal. It showed how the proposed extension of the present law would include so many small employers that the insurance principle would have to be made use of to a very large extent. Under the compensation system, one of the following results would ensue. Either much evil would arise from the fact that many small employers would neglect to insure their workingmen, or it would be found that the insurance system would exist in practice. The introduction of obligatory insurance would make possible that close supervision by the state which is so desirable in this case. Lastly, it was pointed out that the general opinion had now swung over from its former position of hostility toward obligatory insurance to one of friendliness. This is shown in particular by the action of the second chamber in its session 1906. This chamber then passed a resolution requesting the administration to investigate 1. Ullatande M.M. p. 31 and 32.
the question of obligatory insurance. Even in the first chamber, the discussion evidenced much sentiment in favor of the proposition.

Its position with reference to the waiting period of sixty days, was that this period should be greatly reduced. The payment, according to its opinion, should not be in fixed sums but in percentages of the wages of the injured person. When the law was passed, the principal argument used to defend the long waiting period, and the small amount of compensation, was that the employee would thereby share with the employer the cost of the accidents. The Kommers Kollegium states in reply to this, that even if it should be assumed that the employee should share the costs of the accidents, a fact against which must be said, it would, nevertheless, be very convenient to make the employee share in the costs by allowing him a certain percentage of his wage only and not the full amount. The percentage system, furthermore, has many advantages, in that it differentiates between skilled and unskilled workers and takes into consideration differences in the standard of living of the injured.

With reference to the long waiting period of sixty days, the Kommers Kollegium had prepared statistics which show, (1) that of all the injuries sustained in 1906, 84.2% did not cause disability for more than sixty days, (2) that of the 15,041 workingmen injured, during the same year, 44.7% had been insured for the sixty days also. According to some further statistics, it was shown that 5,563 employers had insured their workingmen, 65,000 in all, for this period of sixty days as well as for the period following. This proves conclusively to the writer, as it does to the Kommers Kollegium, that the sixty day period is considered too long by employers and employees alike and that it should either be dropped from the law or be replaced by a much shorter period.

The extension of the law to include agricultural and handicraft workers and seamen, was also looked upon with favor by the Kommers Kollegium. Finally, it considered an increase in the amount of compensation as absolutely necessary.
Many other matters of minor importance were also taken up by this report.

The nature of these reports leads the writer to believe that many reforms will take place in the accident insurance legislation in Sweden in the near future and the obligatory insurance will soon be introduced.

Statistics on Accident Insurance in Sweden:

It is very difficult to find the exact status of the accident insurance in Sweden prior to 1906 due to the fact that the State Insurance Bureau did not collect statistics for accidents which were not insured against by the bureau. The fact that the State Bureau was not patronized very much during the early period, of course, helps to make the available statistics even more unsatisfactory.

In 1906, the Kommers Kollegium, by order of the administration, compiled statistics covering all accidents in the country. This also gives us an index to the proportion of accidents insured against by the bureau.

The number of claims for compensation presented to the state bureau have been as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Claims presented</th>
<th>Recognized claims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>293</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>1,292</td>
<td>917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>2,256</td>
<td>1,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>3,375</td>
<td>2,692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>4,042</td>
<td>3,447</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The accident insurance report of 1906 as prepared by the Kommers Kollegium shows that for the year in question, only twelve per cent of those injured with the exception of agricultural workers and seamen, were insured in the state bureau. Private insurance companies had insured twenty-nine per cent of the total and associations of employers had insured 21.8%. This made a total of 63.5%.

1. Annual reports of the State Insurance Bureau.
2. Many claims were not recognized during the year for lack of time and were taken up the following year.
insured. There remained 27.2% who were either not insured at all or were privately insured. From these figures we learn that the law applies only to a limited number of accidents and that the state insurance bureau is not sufficiently effective.

The following table shows the time of the day when the accidents occurred.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. M.</th>
<th>No of accidents</th>
<th>Per cent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6 to 7</td>
<td>575</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 8</td>
<td>1,164</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 to 9</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 to 10</td>
<td>1,563</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 to 11</td>
<td>1,778</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 12</td>
<td>1,134</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.M.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 to 1</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>757</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3</td>
<td>1,243</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>1,398</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 5</td>
<td>1,209</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 6</td>
<td>810</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.M.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 9</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 to 12</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.M.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 to 3</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 6</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table is very interesting as it shows that the accidents increase in number toward the close of the forenoon and afternoon. In the forenoon, the greatest number of accidents occurred between the hours ten and eleven, and in the afternoon, between the hours three and four. This table seems to show that the claims of the advocates of a shorter working day to the effect that accidents increase with increased working time is correct.

Table showing the number of accidents per 1000 workingmen (with 300 days work) in the following groups of industries.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand</th>
<th>Pet</th>
<th>Vet</th>
<th>Med</th>
<th>OTC</th>
<th>Lab</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: All quantities are for informational purposes only and should not be used as a guide for proper medication dosing. Always consult with a veterinarian before administering any medication.*
The following table shows the number of accidents for 1906 and the number of lost working days due to the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Injuries causing incapacity for</th>
<th>No. of accidents</th>
<th>No. of lost days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 to 10 days</td>
<td>6015</td>
<td>65,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 30 days</td>
<td>4322</td>
<td>93,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 to 60 days</td>
<td>2318</td>
<td>96,889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 to 90 days</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>32,455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91 to 120 days</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>15,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121 to 180 days</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>34,690</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows very clearly that the present long waiting period of sixty days if adhered to in practice would debar the great majority of accidents.

Table showing number of accidents occurring in Sweden in 1906 exclusive of agriculture, ocean shipping and public officials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw products</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lumber industries</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining industries</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other extractive industries</td>
<td>1165</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2752</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Manufactures

| Of food and luxuries                         | 847 | 5.6      |
| Of leather, hair and rubber goods           | 55  | 0.4      |
| Of textiles                                 | 216 | 1.4      |
| Of wooden article                           | 2363| 15.7     |
| Of clothing                                 | 67  | 0.4      |
| Of wood pulp and paper                      | 732 | 4.9      |
| Graphical industries                        | 81  | 0.5      |
| Metallurgical industries                    | 1317| 8.6      |
| Metal industries                            | 1022| 6.4      |
| Manufacture of machines and shipbuilding    | 2192| 14.3     |
| Mineral industries                          | 506 | 3.4      |
| Chemical industries                         | 356 | 2.4      |
|                                                | 9766| 64.7     |
Construction, lighting, etc.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building industries</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lighting, water systems, etc.</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commerce and transportation</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation by land</td>
<td>1396</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation by sea</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                             | 15041| 100.0    |

Table showing the parts of the body injured by the accidents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head exclusive of eyes</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyes</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arms and hands</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fingers</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legs, feet and toes</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other parts of the body</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several parts of entire body</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injuries of other kinds</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Accident Insurance in Denmark.

A commission was appointed by the Danish government in 1875 to investigate sick benefit funds and to propose measures bearing on these. This committee made its report Oct. 25, 1875. In connection with its investigation of sick funds, it had also investigated the subject of compensation for accidents and in its report it proposed an extension of the employer's liability hitherto determined by articles 301 and 302 of the penal code. The question of accident insurance, however, did not begin to be realized until 1885 (July 4) when a commission was appointed by the government which made its report Oct. 31, 1887. This committee, which was to investigate anew the sick funds and to propose a measure for their regulation and management, presented two bills in its report. The one was a bill
for the registration of sick funds and the other was an accident insurance measure. These laws were to supplement each other, the sick fund act to provide compensation for temporary incapacity and the insurance act to provide compensation in the case of permanent incapacity or death when caused by an accident.

The second of these bills was utilized by the Minister of the Interior in the preparation of a bill which he presented to Parliament Oct. 2, 1888.1 This bill was very extensive in its provisions in that it sought to insure all employees in agricultural and machine industries as well as fishermen and seamen. It was also a very complicated measure. It provided for the creation of funds during a course of years, the interest from which was to defray the administration expenses. The expense of the insurance proper was to fall on the employers, the costs of one year to be divided among them the following year in proportion to the amount of wages paid by each. The bill also provided for the establishment of a state insurance bureau.

The report of the Parliamentary committee to which the bill had been submitted, was made Mar. 30, 1889,2 but no discussion ensued. The government then presented a new bill which was discussed in the upper chamber3 but was not discussed in the lower.4 On Nov. 10, 1890,5 the government again proposed a new measure, and a commission appointed to consider this bill made its report Mar. 6, 1891.6 The measure presented by this commission was accepted by the upper chamber, but its adoption in the lower chamber was frustrated. Accordingly, Oct. 8, 1891,7 witnessed the introduction by the government of another bill very similar to that of 1890. This bill was submitted to a committee and continued to repose there.

The question of insurance was then abandoned until 1895, when two projects were submitted, one of which came from the social democrats. The committee

3. " " " Folketing p. 4020.
5. " " " B p. 1377 Folketing 4646, 5291.
to which the bills were turned over, reported, Oct. 18, 1896, and recommended the enactment of two bills prepared by itself. The first bill was an industrial insurance measure proper, which proposed to secure compensation for injuries sustained as a result of industrial accidents, thus excluding accidents caused intentionally, or by a third party and all acts of God. The second bill was an invalidity insurance measure. The insurance was to embrace all Danish citizens over eighteen years of age, and the expense was to be covered by premiums levied on the individual persons. The state, however, was to defray administration expenses and pay all deficits. The lower chamber accepted the first of these measures Feb. 23, 1897, but the session came to a close before the question could come before the upper chamber. Finally, the upper chamber, on Nov. 24, 1897, accepted a bill conforming in spirit to that passed by the lower chamber the previous year. The lower chamber then concurred in the action of the other and the bill became a law Jan. 7, 1898.

In regard to the extension of the insurance provisions, the first measure proposed the extension of the insurance to include all industries of a dangerous character. In the bills which followed, there were various extensions proposed, but the bill which was enacted into law restricted the insurance to certain enumerated industries. During the lengthy and varied experiences of the insurance measures in the legislative arena, the principle of a combined insurance and pension system, which was originally the most prominent, had disappeared and the principle of workingmen’s compensation coupled with voluntary accident insurance remained.

The law of 1898 embraced all workingmen and overseers having a salary less than 2,400 kr. employed (1) in factories coming under the Factory act of Apr. 12, 1889; (2) in trades in which explosives are made or used; (3) in stone

3. Landsting No. 156
and lime quarries, lime works, stone cutting, well digging and ice works; (4) in building trades, and in chimney sweeping; (5) in the construction of railroads, roads, bridges, dams and sluices; (6) in the construction of waterworks, in ditching, draining and dredging, in the construction of canals, gas and water systems, the erection maintenance, etc. of telegraph, telephone and street railways, and omnibus lines; (8) in the packing and unpacking of goods; (9) in diving and salvage work, and (10) in mills run by mill and water power, when operated as independent establishments.

The law applies to any individual employer, corporation or partnership as well as the state and commune when engaged in the industries enumerated. All injuries except such as are intentional or are due to gross negligence and such as are occasioned by dangers of the trade, are to be compensated, provided they cause death, or disability continuing for more than thirteen weeks. The compensation is divided into two classes:—compensation for death and compensation for disability.

Under the former, there is provided, (1) a funeral benefit of fifty kr. and (2) a lump sum equal to four times the annual earnings of the deceased, but not exceeding 3,200 kr. nor falling below 1,200 kr. This lump sum is paid to the widow if she survives and otherwise to the dependent children if there be any. If there is neither widow nor children, the insurance council decides whether and to what extent other heirs receive compensation. The compensation for disability may be divided into compensation for permanent and compensation for temporary disability. Compensation must be paid from the end of the thirteenth week until a cure is affected or until the disability is declared permanent. This compensation must equal sixty per cent of the earnings of the injured person but may not exceed two kr. nor be less than one crown per day. In case of permanent disability, an indemnity of six times the annual earnings must be paid. This sum, however, may not exceed 4,500 kr. nor be less than 1,500 kr. For partial
but permanent disability, proportional sums must be paid.

If the person suffering permanent disability is a man between thirty and fifty-five years of age, he may decide whether the sum shall be paid out to him or be invested in the purchase of a life annuity. In all other cases, the insurance council decides which of the two methods should be allowed. If the injured person is to receive compensation, he must, provided he is able, have himself examined as soon after the accident as possible and place himself under the care of a physician if it is deemed necessary. The employer must notify the insurance council within eight days stating a number of facts required by the law. The employer is responsible for the payment of the compensation but has the right to insure his workingmen with some recognized insurance company.

For the purpose of administering the law, a council was provided for by the act which is to consist of seven members. Three of these including the chairman and a physician are to be appointed by the King; two, who are to be employers, are to be appointed by the Minister of the Interior, and two who are to be workingmen are to be elected by the general meeting of the registered sick funds.

The employer or person in charge of the factory or industry coming under the law must report every accident to the insurance council within eight days after the accident has occurred, this report is to state various details concerning the accident and the injury, and is to be accompanied by a physician's affidavit. In case the injured person has been insured by an insurance company, the council in conjunction with the officers of the company takes charge of the settlement. In other cases, the council and the employer act in conjunction.

The council decides whether the accident in question entitles the injured person to compensation under the law; how much compensation he is entitled to, and in what form, provided the person is not a man between the age of thirty and fifty-five, the compensation will be paid. In case it is impossible to determine
at the end of a year what will be the final result of an accident, the council may grant a provisional compensation to continue until it is possible to settle the case permanently. In all cases, the decisions of the council may be appealed to the Minister of the Interior. Experience has shown, however, that such appeals rarely lead to any modification or reversal of the decisions of the insurance council.

An amendment to the law of 1896, was enacted May 15, 1903. The points amended had reference to the payment of the daily compensation; the length of time following an accident during which an application for compensation may be presented, and the right of the employer to have all injured employees examined weekly provided he defrays the expenses. The time when the daily payment was to be made was stated in a definite way; the time allowed for the presentation of applications was extended, and the right of the employer to have examinations was consented to. The amendment, whose object it was to make the law more satisfactory in practice, did not affect any of the principal provisions of the act.

Accident Insurance under the law of 1896.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cases reported</th>
<th>No. Rejected</th>
<th>Per cent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>2,487</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>2,893</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>2,462</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>2,507</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>2,232</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>2,211</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>2,363</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>2,089</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>2,270</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>2,254</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>1,471</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table shows the number of deaths resulting from accidents and the amount of death compensation paid out to the resulting dependents.²

The text on the page is not legible due to the quality of the image. It appears to contain a block of text, possibly a description or a set of instructions, but the specific content cannot be accurately transcribed.
### Table showing the amount of compensation paid out in the case of invalidity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount of Compensation</th>
<th>Additional Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>536,640</td>
<td>38,598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>583,245</td>
<td>26,534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>535,091</td>
<td>27,984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>420,103</td>
<td>17,842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>475,119</td>
<td>14,016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>473,117</td>
<td>12,536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>442,309</td>
<td>7,480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>419,726</td>
<td>12,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>555,208</td>
<td>2,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>449,215</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>171,686.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,164,569.80</td>
<td>122,630</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to the merits and defects of the accident insurance law of 1895 the organized workingmen urge that the present compensation is insufficient, at least for the more severe injuries and in case of injuries sustained by young persons. They state, however, that the awards are made with reasonable promptness and that the determination of the degree of disability by the insurance council is usually satisfactory. In regard to the lump sum payment, they believe that this system is the best for general purposes but believe that annuities would be preferable in the case of severe injuries. The Danish law uses the lump sum payment because it was the intention of the framers of the measure that...
the compensation should not furnish continuous support to invalids or survivors, but should furnish a means of bridging over the difficulties resulting from an accident. Experience seems to have shown, however, that in the case of severe injuries, an annuity would be preferable. Whenever conditions are such that the individual injured cannot or does not invest his compensation profitably, the result is that such of it will be squandered or imprudently spent.

The workingmen recommend the following changes in the law; (1) That employment in a regular trade shall not determine, as it now does, whether the injured person has any claim to insurance according to the law. Every person who has work to be performed which is subject to the law and who engages a workingman to do this work ought to be liable for compensation. (2) That drivers, who at present are almost always exempted, be included within the law. (3) That loaders and unloaders of freight be included. (4) That the present minimum of 1,500 kr. be considerably increased. (5) That the insurance be made compulsory. (6) That all work where scaffolding is used be included. (7) That the law be applied to all trades where machines are used, hand power included. And, (8) That work on one story houses which is now exempt be included.

The employer's association in reply to a series of questions, stated (1) that it considered the compensation quite sufficient, (2) that the law did not seem to lead to carelessness on the part of the employees, (3) that there was very little malingering on the part of the injured, (4) that the law does not seem to have furthered measures for the prevention of accidents, and (5) that the law placed the burden of insurance equally upon the small and large employers.

The employer's insurance association agreed that the law had worked satisfactorily but suggested along with the organized workingmen that the payment of annuities be substituted for lump sums in the case of severe injuries and that the compulsory system be substituted for the voluntary insurance now in use.
It was furthermore the opinion of the insurance association that the compulsory principle would be introduced with the next revision of the insurance law.

The insurance council states that the present law is practically as effective as a compulsory measure in as much as only a few employers have failed to insure their workingmen. The council does not commit itself with reference to the advisability of introducing the compulsory principle, but does state with reference to the amount of the compensation that it is not sufficient for young persons.

In view of the opinions expressed above and in view of such other information as the writer could get, it seems that the Danish accident insurance law will be revised along several lines in the near future. For the first, it is altogether probable that the insurance will be made compulsory. Other changes will include an increase in the amount of compensation, particularly for the young person, and the payment of annuities instead of lump sums in case of severe injuries.

**Denmark: Fishermen's Accident Insurance.**

When, on the one hand, it was shown that it would be impossible to enact a general accident insurance measure, and when on the other hand, it was observed that Germany proceeded piecemeal in her accident insurance legislation, the question of enacting a special law for the insurance of Fishermen against accidents came before Parliament. It was in 1896, the same year that witnessed the enactment of the first accident insurance law in Denmark, that the first bill which provided for fishermen's accident insurance as a special measure was introduced.

According to this proposed measure, the fishermen in the employ of others were to be insured by the employer, and those working on their own account were to be permitted to be insured by the payment of an annual premium of five kr. This bill received little consideration, but the following year another bill was presented. This was submitted to a committee and was allowed to repose
there for the reason that it was the general opinion of Parliament that the ques-
tion should not be considered until the first insurance measure had been in opera-
tion for a longer period.\(^1\)

At the following session, a bill of practically the same nature as that
of the previous year was presented and now met with a favorable reception. The
committee to which the bill of the previous year had been submitted, had in the
meantime collected statistics and now made its report. It concluded that inasm-
ough as the proposed measure would not embrace a large number, the state would
not run much risk by adopting the measure.\(^2\)

The law which was finally passed April 3, 1900, may be summarized as
follows: Every person, domiciled in the country, who earns his livelihood, wholly
or in part by fishing, has the right to be insured against accidents, by paying
an annual premium of five kr. The administration of the law is effected by
means of fishermen's associations, of which the person becomes a member when he
pays his premium. When a fishermen who is a member of an insurance association
enters the employ of a person who does not engage regularly in fishing, he may
demand that the premium be paid by the employer without any corresponding decrease
in his wages.

The amount of compensation to be paid in the case of permanent and tem-
porary disability, is the same as that prescribed by the law of 1895, with the
exception that the daily wage in the fishing industry was to be fixed for insur-
ance purposes at two and one half kr. and the annual wage at six hundred kr. The
compensation in the case of death was to be 2,500 kr.

The state guarantees to pay all deficits that may occur in the various
associations. The administration of the law is centered in the regular insurance
council, which may appoint a number of its own members to constitute a special
insurance council for the fishermen's insurance.

1. Folketing p. 1109
2. Ibid p. 850.
In 1906, the fishermen's insurance was extended to include insurance for seamen on vessels having a tonnage of less than twenty tons. When Parliament passed the accident insurance law for seamen in 1905, the above named class was excluded in order to make possible the administration of the act in accordance with the principle on which it was originally based. That it was not intended that this class should be bereft of the advantages of accident insurance is evident from the fact that the committee which reported the seamen's insurance act recommended that the fishermen's insurance law be extended to include these.

It will have been noted that the fishermen's accident insurance law in Denmark is not a compulsory insurance law but a purely voluntary measure. In this regard it differs from the Norwegian fishermen's insurance, which is compulsory. It also differs in the same respect from the accident insurance laws later enacted in Denmark for seamen and agricultural workers.

There are several circumstances which may account for this action. On the one hand Danish accident insurance legislation had its beginning in 1898 in purely voluntary insurance and on the other hand, it is very difficult to work out an effective compulsory system of accident insurance for fishermen. The latter circumstance is dwelt upon at some length in the discussion of fishermen's insurance in Norway.

Table showing death compensations paid out since the enactment of the
Fishermen's accident insurance law.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of deaths</th>
<th>Cases with dependents</th>
<th>Amount of compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Partial compensation to the amount of 4,100 kr. was paid in six cases in 1909, 2,200 kr. in four cases in 1908 and 6,100 kr. in nine cases in 1907.
Table showing amount of compensation for temporary and permanent disability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Daily Compensation</th>
<th>Compensation for permanent disability</th>
<th>Additional Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>6,124.50</td>
<td>9,108</td>
<td>2,340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>10,653.00</td>
<td>17,352</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>10,355.00</td>
<td>21,492</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>7,735.50</td>
<td>15,300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>7,720.50</td>
<td>16,485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>6,838.50</td>
<td>13,680</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>7,264.25</td>
<td>11,876</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>2,966.76</td>
<td>10,692</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>1,566.64</td>
<td>10,290</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61,376.65</td>
<td>129,165</td>
<td>2,850</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Denmark: Seamen's Accident Insurance.

The Seamen's accident insurance law was passed Jan. 4, 1905. By this act, the principle of compulsory insurance appeared for the first time in Danish legislation. The administration in presenting the measure stated that circumstances in the case of seamen necessitated the placing of this insurance on a compulsory basis. On the sea, accidents seldom come singly as in other industries but in great numbers and often times in connection with catastrophes which promise financial ruin to the employer. The seamen's insurance law also made another departure from the previous practice by providing for the granting of state subsidies to employers on ships having a tonnage of less than three hundred tons. The subsidies are not to exceed one half of the amount of the premiums.

The persons included by the act are: All seamen, including officers, on board registered vessels which have a tonnage of more than twenty tons, provided the salary does not exceed 2,400 kr. annually. Unregistered vessels used in the government service may be included but vessels coming under the fishermen's act or its amendment are excluded. If the vessel has a tonnage of less than 300 tons, the captain will be insured even if he is the owner of the vessel.

1. This fact does not show, however, that the Danish Parliament had become convinced that the compulsory principle was superior to the voluntary as a general rule.
The compensation in the form of daily payments begin to be paid at the end of the thirteenth week. These payments amount to two kr. per day in the case of officers, clerks, machinists, and the like, and 1.50 kr. per day for others. These daily payments issue until the person is cured, is declared permanently disabled or dies. If permanent and complete disability results, a compensation equal to six times the annual wages of the injured is paid. This sum, however, may not exceed 4,200 kr. nor be less than 1,700 kr. For partial but permanent disability, the compensation is in proportion to the extent of the disability, but no compensation is paid out for accidents causing less than ten per cent disability.

In case of death, a sum equal to four times the annual wages is paid to the dependents. This sum may not exceed 2,800 kr. nor be less than 1,200 kr. If the widow survives, the compensation is paid to her, and if not the compensation is paid to his children provided they were dependent upon him at the time of the accident. If there are neither widow nor children, the insurance council pays the compensation to other dependents if there are any. If there should be any who are only partially dependent, the compensation may not exceed 500 kr.

A special seamen's insurance council is created by the act, which is to consist of the chairman of the regular insurance council, the two members of the same council who are appointed by the King and two representatives of the ship owners appointed by the Minister of the Interior. This council has complete charge of the administration of the law. Appeals, however, may be taken from its decisions to the Minister of the Interior.

Table showing the amount of compensation for temporary and permanent disability and for death.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Invalidity</th>
<th>Death</th>
<th>Daily payments</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>28,668</td>
<td>39,100</td>
<td>10,128</td>
<td>77,896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>25,918</td>
<td>32,800</td>
<td>11,285</td>
<td>90,003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>44,034</td>
<td>45,150</td>
<td>10,254,50</td>
<td>99,438,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>13,335</td>
<td>67,700</td>
<td>4,123</td>
<td>85,158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>
The following is a detailed presentation of the seamen's accident statistics for 1909, the purpose being to give a general idea of the workings of the law.

During this year 421 applications for accident insurance were submitted to the Insurance Council. There remained from the previous year ninety applications which had not been considered and three cases which required reconsideration. At the close of the year 1909, there remained one hundred and twelve unconsidered cases which makes the total number of applications considered during the year four hundred and two.

Of these four hundred and two cases, thirty-one were rejected as not coming under the law. Of the remaining three hundred sixty-nine injuries, two hundred and seventy-one resulted in temporary disability and did not come under consideration by the law, forty-one resulted in permanent disability, forty-three resulted in death and fourteen the submitted to the committee were declared not to have caused any disability.

Table showing the percentage of disability, the number of cases and the amount of compensation — Seamen's Accident Insurance 1909.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>No. of cases</th>
<th>Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7,920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,680</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table showing the number of cases of death and permanent disability coming under the seamen's accident insurance law.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Invalidity</th>
<th>Death</th>
<th>Cases with dependents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>148</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Denmark: Agricultural Accident Insurance.

Insurance against accident for agricultural workers was first taken up for consideration as a separate measure in 1906. On April 4th, of that year, a law was passed which required all physicians to report every accident sustained by workers in agricultural and lumbering pursuits. The object of the law was to prepare the way for an accident insurance measure for workers in these industries, since the statistical data collected in this manner would give a good basis for an intelligent discussion of such a measure. At the following session of Parliament, the data were subjected to an investigation and as a result, the law of May 27th, 1905 was enacted.

The act is based on the compulsory principle and includes: (1) all workingmen engaged in agriculture, lumbering and horticulture, provided the property is valued at 6,000 kr. or over, and (2) all workers in such industries as are related to the above, such as cattle raising, creameries, threshing, etc. The insurance does not apply to workingmen receiving more than 1500 kr. and does not include persons exclusively employed in personal service. It does include children over the age of ten and all members of the employer's family with the exception of his wife.

The compensation granted is as follows: (1) Daily compensation beginning with the fourteenth week after the injury. For persons under eighteen, this amounts to .75 øre per day and for all others it is 1.50 kr. per day. For employer's children under fifteen no daily compensation in case of temporary disability is paid. (2) A death compensation of 2,500 kr. (3) A permanent and complete disability compensation of 3,600 kr. and (4) A permanent but partial disability compensation in proportion to the extent of the injury.

The insurance is against all accidents, except such as are caused willfully or by gross negligence. The employer submits his financial statement to the insurance council and it is assigned to a certain risk class. He must then
insure his men in some recognized insurance company. A special insurance council was created for this department in very much the same manner as was done in the case of the seamen's insurance. The regulations governing the payment of compensation to dependents also follow those relating to seamen's insurance very closely.

In connection with the compulsory insurance, provision for voluntary insurance was also made by the act. This makes it possible for the employers on landed estates which are valued at 6,000 kr. or less to insure their employees. These employers are also represented in the insurance council by two men.

The principal questions involved in the enactment of the agricultural accident insurance measure were the feasibility of placing it on a compulsory basis and the proper method of determining which employers should be included. With reference to the first question, it seemed to be a general sentiment, that the compulsory principle would be the most satisfactory. This fact is very significant. We have observed how the accident insurance system in Denmark had its origin in voluntary insurance. In 1905, when the seamen's accident insurance was enacted, the compulsory principle was first employed, but the reason assigned for this change of policy was the peculiar nature of the accidents that occur in this work. In the case of agricultural workingmen and such others as the law embraces, the compulsory principle is again employed, and it is now generally admitted that this form is the best. Emphasis in this instance was laid upon the small resources of the average agricultural employer and the consequent danger of bankruptcy in the case of very severe accidents.

With reference to the second question, that only a certain class of employers be included, the main discussion centered about the point whether the value of the farm or the number of the workingmen should determine which employers were to be included under the law. The advocates of the latter showed that there were many instances where a large number of workingmen were employed on
farms having a value less than 6,000 kr. and contended that this method would be more logical. The advocates of the former admitted that such instances existed but maintained that their own method would greatly facilitate the administration.

Statistics:

From the 24th of June when the agricultural accident law went into operation, until the end of the year, 1157 accidents were reported. Of these 607 were still unconsidered at the close of the year, leaving a total of 550 that had been considered. Of this number, 219 were rejected as not coming under the law. In 145 of these cases, the cause for rejection was the fact that the person injured was the employer himself or his wife. There remained consequently 331 cases of which 274 resulted in temporary disability; twenty-six in death, and seventeen in permanent disability. Fourteen cases were brought before the council but were declared not to have resulted in permanent disability. The death compensation amounted to only 39,000 kr. in that fourteen of the twenty-six persons killed did not leave any dependents.

The number of permanent disability cases and the percentage of invalidity for each were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of disability</th>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1260</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Denmark: Relation of sickness insurance to accident insurance.

One very striking feature of the accident insurance laws in Denmark, is the long period of thirteen weeks following the injury which must elapse before any compensation is granted. The fact that this feature has appeared successively...
ly in all the accident insurance measures makes the question as to what accounts for this long waiting period and its apparent success a very pertinent one. The answer lies to some extent in the example set by Germany, but principally in the splendid development of the private sickness insurance funds subsidized by the State. The percentage of injured persons who at the time of the accident were members of some sick fund is high in the case of accidents coming under the general law of 1898, the percentage is very low in the case of seamen and workers in the agricultural and lumber industries. The fact that the sickness insurance is not compulsory and that in certain industries, the percentage of persons so insured, is slight, makes the accident insurance laws somewhat unsatisfactory in this regard. The consequence will undoubtedly be either a considerable shortening of the waiting period or the enactment of compulsory sickness insurance. The fact that the development of the voluntary sickness insurance is so strong may cause the remedy to be brought about by shortening the waiting period.
Norway.- Unemployment Insurance.

Unemployment insurance in Norway was initiated by labor unions as early as 1886, the first Scandinavian Labor Congress adopted resolutions recommending the establishment of funds in each union to give aid in the case of strikes, lockouts, unemployment, and sickness. The second Labor Congress in 1888 went a step further and recommended measures which in substance were put in operation by the unemployment insurance measure of 1906. It recommended that the labor organization work for the granting of state subventions to union unemployment funds. The heads of the union movement in Norway, Sweden and Denmark were requested to prepare bills bearing on the subject as soon as possible and to present them to their respective parliaments.

At the Labor Congresses held in 1897 and in 1901, the position of the unions was somewhat changed. These Congresses resolved that until such time as all means of production could be socialized, it should be the duty of the state and the municipalities to meet each recurring period of unemployment by shortening the working day. It also recommended that each individual union take up the question for special consideration. In 1907, when the law on unemployment insurance had been on the statute books for one year but had not been put in operation, the Labor Congress, in spite of the attitude of the Norwegian labor unions toward the new act, adopted a resolution to the effect that the state could best aid the unemployment by subsidizing the unemployment funds of labor unions and thus accomplish the desired end thru the labor unions. It may well be assumed the position of this Congress was in accord with that of the position of the Norwegian labor unions since the objection of the latter toward the unemployment law was based on the fact that the law required the registered funds to insure non-union as well as union men.

The question of State grants to unemployment funds came up for legislative consideration in 1902, when the Labor Party of Norway and the National Workers' Organization petitioned Parliament to appropriate 25,000 kr. for the subsidization of unemployment funds. The proposal was referred to the social and railway committee in joint session. The committee, too divided in its opinion as to how to proceed, agreed to recommend to the administration that the matter be taken under careful consideration and be laid before Parliament as soon as possible. Parliament decided unanimously in favor of such an investigation, but there was no immediate result from the action.

The following year, a petition similar to that of the previous year but requesting 50,000 kr. instead of 25,000 was again presented by the labor organizations. This petition was referred to the committee on social questions which was divided in its opinion. The majority recommended that an appropriation be made for the creation of a departmental committee for the purpose of investigating the subject and presenting a bill. Parliament on February 26, 1904, acted in accordance with the above recommendation and on June 10, of the same year, a committee was appointed. This committee made its report to the department the following year, and on Feb. 27, 1906, the department laid before Parliament a bill based on the findings of the committee. The principal alteration was the change in the amount of the subvention to be paid by the state from one-third to one-fourth of the total fund.

At the same time that the above mentioned committee was appointed, a special representative was delegated to study the unemployment systems in operation in a number of municipalities of Belgium, France, Switzerland and Germany. The report made by this representative was very valuable as it summarized the distinctive features of the different systems. The investigator also took pains to show how it would be possible to combine state as well as municipal activity and control with local union activity, thereby using the Ghent system as a basis.
and the French system as a supplement. 1

The act providing for state and communal subsidization of unemployment funds was passed, June 12, 1906. The law was to go into effect on Oct. 1, of the same year and was to continue in operation for five years. The purpose of the last provision was to make it clear that this piece of legislation was wholly tentative and was enacted in order to test the feasibility of such a measure.

By this act, all Norwegian unemployment funds which fulfill the conditions specified by the act were granted the privilege of being registered as state funds. This registration entitled the fund to a reimbursement from the state equal to one fourth of the money expended by the fund in the relief of persons insured, provided such persons were Norwegian subjects or had resided in the country during the preceding five years. The conditions specified, were that one half of the fund's income should be derived from contributions paid by its members and that the rules of the fund include in addition the following provisions: (1) Only such members are entitled to receive relief as have been associated with the fund for the six months preceding the payment of insurance to them and have paid their contributions for twenty-six weeks after their latest admission to the fund. (2) Unemployment benefit shall not be granted until the unemployment has continued for at least three days. (3) No member shall receive as compensation, a sum exceeding fifty per cent of the average daily wage, current in the trade in which he works. (4) Insurance shall not be paid for more than ninety days in any one year (financial or calendar, as the case may be) (5) Unemployed members shall be obliged to accept such work as the administrative body of the fund shall consider suitable for them. (An extraordinary contribution may be levied should the ordinary contributions prove insufficient; a reduction may also be made in the amount of compensation to be paid if necessary). (7) Insurance shall not be given to any member who at the same time is a member of another unemployment fund, or who is

in fact in receipt of insurance from a sickness insurance fund. (8) Unemployment insurance, traveling benefit, and emigration benefit shall be paid only to such persons as are able to work and are unemployed because of conditions over which they had no control. Unemployment occasioned by a strike or a lookout shall not be considered to come within this category.

Funds which were already in existence when the law was passed were permitted to obtain provisional registration altho their rules were not in accord with the conditions enumerated. Such registration was to hold good only during that period which had to elapse according to the rules of the fund before any alterations could be made. Applications for registration were to be sent in to the department accompanied by a copy of the rules of the fund. If the rules were satisfactory, the application was to be granted. Subsequent alterations in the rules were not to be made without the sanction of the department.

The act provided that two thirds of the sum to be paid by the state should be repaid to the state treasury by the local authorities of the municipalities and communes. These were required to pay for such persons only as had received unemployment insurance and had resided within their borders for a period of six consecutive months in the course of the preceding five years. As an exception to this provision, no reimbursement was required with respect to those persons who had been employed as permanent or temporary workmen in the construction of public roads, railroads or similar works and had resided in the district by reason of this work. When no proof was forth-coming showing that the person in receipt of the insurance had fulfilled the conditions as to residence, and when persons receiving insurance were engaged in the construction of public works, the state was to bear the entire cost provided the person benefitted had not resided in the district during the required period. The decision as to whether any district is liable and, if so, which one was made to rest with the department in charge.
Every registered unemployment fund was to be required to keep separate accounts and to apply its assets to meet only the direct obligations of the fund. If the fund was affiliated with an association, its assets were not to be liable to seizure, be attached or held as security by the creditors of the association. Neither might any person have a right to obtain satisfaction for the debts due from any insured person out of any moneys to which such person might be entitled by reason of his claims on the fund.

Every unemployment fund affiliated with an association in order to be registered, was to be required to permit persons, engaged in the same trade but not members of the association, to insure themselves in the fund. Such persons were not to be allowed to take any part in the administration of the fund unless authorized by the association and might be charged from ten to fifteen per cent in addition to their regular dues to aid in covering the cost of the administration. Another important restriction was that no fund in industries where there were public labor exchanges, could pay out insurance to any person unless he had applied for work at the same.

Regulations of relatively minor importance were, (1) that appeals might be taken from the decisions of the local funds to the department in charge, (2) that quarterly reports of expenditures, and annual reports on the operation and accounts of the fund be made to the department in charge, and (3) that monthly reports be made to the local authorities who are to examine them and transmit them to the department. The local authorities were also given the right to audit the accounts of the fund whenever they should consider it necessary. The time for the making of all reports was stated in the act and a provision inserted which gave the department power to withdraw the registration privileges whenever any fund should persist in disregarding these regulations.

1. An act for the establishment of a system of labor exchanges was also passed on June 12, 1906.
Attitude of Workingmen Toward the Act.

Prior to the enactment of the above measure, the National Workingmen's Organization of Norway had pronounced itself in favor of the general principle of the proposed act. It had recommended, however, the elimination of the article which provided that funds must insure non-union as well as union men. The proposed measure differed, also from the act in that it provided for a state subvention of one-third instead of one-fourth and made no restrictions as to foreigners.

When the law had been passed, and the various changes referred to had been effected, the unions having unemployment funds decided not to take advantage of the law on account of those provisions which were considered inimical to the interests of unionism. At a meeting of the legislative representatives of the Labor Party and the representatives of the National Workingmen's Union, held Dec. 3, 1906, it was decided to propose an amendment to the act which would make it acceptable to the unionists. Such an amendment was duly presented, the principal object sought in the same being the change of the state subvention from one-fourth to one-third and the removal of the obnoxious article six, which states that non-union as well as union men should be eligible to membership. The question, however, did not come before the Parliament until 1908 when an amendment was passed which complied with the wishes of the unions in so far as they wanted the amount of the state subvention increased by making it one-third, but dissented as regards the article six by letting it remain unchanged.

The National Workingman's Organization was of the opinion that the law should be made use of even tho it was not satisfactory in several respects, and appointed a committee to enter into negotiations with the government department in charge of the execution of the law in order to aid it in preparing the best

1. Arbeidems Lands organization.
administrative machinery possible. Thru the exertions of this committee an interpretion of a certain provision of the law was secured which was thought to be favorable to the unions. This was the decision that it was not necessary for the unemployed members of the funds to apply at the public labor exchanges in person but that it would be sufficient if the funds sent in a list of such persons to the labor exchange. 1

Several union unemployment funds now applied for registration so that by the close of the year 1909, there were nine registered unemployment funds in existence. Four of these were registered in November, 1908, wherefore the statistics for one year are available for these. These statistics are as follows: 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unions</th>
<th>Members</th>
<th>Expenditure (kr.)</th>
<th>Subvention (kr.)</th>
<th>Per cent of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Assn. of Printers----</td>
<td>1,882</td>
<td>14,543.40</td>
<td>3,167.14</td>
<td>21.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron &amp; Metal Workers Union----</td>
<td>7,960</td>
<td>86,293.40</td>
<td>26,194.63</td>
<td>30.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabinet Workers Union----</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>3,812.34</td>
<td>879.25</td>
<td>23.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodworkers Union----</td>
<td>2,490</td>
<td>32,332.02</td>
<td>9,966.04</td>
<td>30.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12,994</td>
<td>136,986.16</td>
<td>40,207.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be noticed in this connection that the amount of the state subvention in no case equaled the one-third of the expenses allowed by the law, being only 29.35 per cent for the unions covered by these statistics. The difference of four per cent between the amount actually given and the amount allowed by law is due to the fact that the funds have continued to pay insurance to foreigners. For such insurance the funds do not receive any reimbursement according to the law.

Besides the nine trade unions which had registered their funds, there were six trade unions which did not apply for registration. These had a membership of 4,168 and paid out during the year 1909, 26,464.03 kr. in unemployment insurance. According to the reports sent in to the executive council by those

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Accounts</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.15</td>
<td>91,624.01</td>
<td>58,264.61</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.05</td>
<td>58,705.33</td>
<td>30,495.72</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.07</td>
<td>29,812.68</td>
<td>16,493.21</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08.02</td>
<td>26,002.69</td>
<td>12,700.00</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06.09</td>
<td>20,289.57</td>
<td>10,500.00</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
unions which had registered their unemployment funds, it seems that no trouble was occasioned by the vexatious article six of the law in that no non-union men applied for membership. The unions, true to their policy, still urge that the offending article be dropped, contending that the fact that the provision has no practical importance is an additional reason why it should be dropped.

The National Workingmen's Organization, notwithstanding that it considered the law very unsatisfactory, urged upon its federated unions, which had funds, to have them registered, and upon those which had none to establish such as soon as possible. In taking this step, the National Organization merely continues a policy which it has consistently pursued during practically its whole history. This policy is to put forth all its energies in securing a satisfactory law before the same is enacted and then while conforming to the law, to continue to struggle against such provisions of the law as it considers harmful to the organized workingmen. It may be said that this policy is pre-eminently the policy of the Labor Party with which the whole working class takes the place of the union organizations, and that the latter follow this policy in so far as it is in accord with the interests of the union movement. The National Organization also points out, relative to the question of unemployment funds, how important it is for each union to have an unemployment fund and thereby make use of one of the best means of securing stability in the local unions. The executive council recommended to the National Organization that the following amendments be championed by the labor unions: (1) That the subvention be one-half instead of one-third. (2) That the restriction with regard to foreigners be dropped. (3) That it shall be made clear that by unavoidable unemployment is meant unemployment due to the circumstance that no employment can be found. The direct cause of the unemployment should have no bearing upon the same. (4) That the provision bearing upon the part which the communes are to play should be so amended as to make for

1. Ibid p. 12.
greater simplicity in the administration. (5) That article six of the act referring to the insurance of non-union men be omitted.

Attitude in general toward the law-

The committee to which the question of unemployment insurance was turned over by Parliament took as its basis of action that it is now commonly recognized that it is wholly unsatisfactory to direct the unavoidably unemployed to seek assistance from the Poor Relief, and that it is the common opinion that the state should do all in its power to make it unnecessary for such persons to seek aid from the Poor Relief. 1 The administration tho it did not concur with the committee in the statement that the above opinion was common, nevertheless, recognized that there was enough truth in it to warrant prompt action on the part of the state.

The majority of the committee, and the administration believed that the compulsory principle, in so far as it would compel all the communes to grant subventions to the unemployment funds, was the most practical plan. They were, furthermore, not opposed to the compulsory principle when applied in such a way as to bring about the insurance of all persons but thought that such a scheme was not practical for the time being. 2 The reasons why the majority of the committee and the administration favored the compulsory subsidization of the unemployment funds by the communes were, that a voluntary system would not accomplish much and that the large cities would hesitate to take the initial step for fear such action would attract an undue number of workingmen to them. This last reason was based on a resolution adopted by the city council of Christiania stating that the city favored subsidization of unemployment funds only on the condition that the subsidization be made compulsory upon all the communes. 3

In regard to the question whether the subsidization of the funds should be left entirely to the communes or should be shared in by the state, it was

strongly contended that the former should bear this burden alone since the poor relief system was entirely a communal institution. The thought was, of course, that the unemployment insurance would tend to decrease the amount of the poor relief. The majority of the committee and the department, however, was of the opinion that the state should share the expense, first, because the state was interested in the proper settlement of the social reform measures, and, secondly, because without state aid the several communes would often be obliged to help persons not domiciled in the commune. It is undoubtedly a fact that the previous policy of the state in regard to the question of social reform and particularly social insurance, which included state participation to some extent in all cases, had a great influence on the framers of the present law and did much to make this conform in principle with its predecessors. In no case had the state passed any insurance measures based wholly upon the communes for its administration and financial support and it was therefore loath to do so now when experience showed that the policy of state participation had proven successful. The contention that the communes should bear the whole burden since the expense of the poor relief system had always been met by the communes was met by the counter contention that the present act would not for some time have much if any influence on the expenses of the poor relief system in the way of reducing them. When the unemployment insurance should become very general, it would be time to consider whether the communes should carry a larger share of the burden or not.

In regard to the proposed article six which stipulated that the funds should insure non-union as well as union men, it was the opinion of the majority of the committee and the department that this article should stand since it was the intention of the government that all workers should share alike in the benefits of this act and that it should not be necessary for a workingman to join a union in order to be eligible to membership in the unemployment fund.  

it was thought that the omission of this provision would make the act a strong tool in the hands of the labor organization. The labor representatives on the other hand felt that the insertion of the article in question was intended as a direct blow at the labor organizations.

Development of unemployment funds in Norway.

The following table, showing the development of the unemployment insurance in Norway during the period 1899-1910, is very interesting as it shows the stimulative effect of the new law. The influence of the act of 1906, the not visible in the amount of compensation paid out, is clearly shown in the increase in membership from 11,286 to 14,364. With the passage of the amendment in 1908, the unemployment insurance paid out increased from 47,932 kr. to 97,412 kr. and the insurance per member increased from 3.33 kr. per year to 6.18. In 1909, the insurance paid out had increased to 167,770 kr. and the insurance per member to 10.06 kr. per year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Nat. Funds</th>
<th>Local Funds</th>
<th>Av. No. of Members</th>
<th>Traveling</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Unemployment Ins. per member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,289</td>
<td>9,416.86</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>19,279.01</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>29,079.63</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6,020</td>
<td>35,313.65</td>
<td>5,87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7,704</td>
<td>49,364.55</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8,461</td>
<td>60,408.67</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8,847</td>
<td>55,579.19</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11,286</td>
<td>47,409.56</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14,384</td>
<td>47,932.34</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15,754</td>
<td>97,412.05</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16,485</td>
<td>167,770.59</td>
<td>10.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oxygen Consumption (ml/min)</th>
<th>Hemoglobin (g/dl)</th>
<th>% O2 Saturation</th>
<th>Haldane Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>16.2/10.4</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>17.3/11.1</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>16.7/10.7</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>15.9/10.3</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>16.2/10.8</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>16.7/10.7</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>16.7/10.8</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>14.5/9.9</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>14.1/9.7</td>
<td>96.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>13.6/9.1</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>14.3/9.5</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>15.0/10.1</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>13.2/9.0</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>13.0/8.9</td>
<td>95.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* The values are calculated based on the given data points.
Sweden: Unemployment Insurance.

There has been no unemployment insurance legislation in Sweden up to the present time. Bills were presented which sought to introduce such insurance at the Parliamentary sessions of 1908 and 1909, but they did not meet with any favor.

The first measure proposed that Parliament instruct the administration to inquire into the conditions of unemployment in the country and the feasibility of introducing some form of unemployment insurance. The second measure was identical with the first, but the third proposed that Parliament appropriate a sum of money to be placed at the disposal of the municipalities which were in need of aid in order to furnish public employment to their unemployed. In 1910, a bill which consisted of a request that the administration investigate the condition of unemployment and the possibility of insuring against unemployment, was finally passed by the second chamber.¹

Unemployment insurance has been carried on by the labor unions to a considerable extent as is shown by the following table.²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Unemployment and traveling aid. kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>259,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>53,593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>47,129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>40,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>112,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>183,615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>814,236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>156,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>243,586 (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1908 there were nine national unions belonging to the central organization, which gave traveling aid to their members. This amounted to some 13,437 kr. Unemployment benefit were paid by ten national unions to the total amount of 230,150 kr. Sickness benefits to the amount of 12,596 kr. were paid by six national unions.

¹. Andra Kammarene No. 35 pp. 59-60.
³. Berattelse Lands Organisatperation 1908.
### Table of Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (h)</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>789</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some observations note that the data shows a consistent pattern over time.
Denmark: Unemployment Insurance.

The resort to legislative remedies for unemployment is not a recent phenomenon in Denmark. In the years 1853, 1855 and 1856, municipalities were authorized to grant extraordinary aid to such persons as would be forced by the hard times to apply for poor relief. This aid was not to be considered as poor relief, but was to serve to help those who were in need of aid because of unemployment.

In 1856, the poor relief act was passed and the poor funds which were established as a result of this law were used for relieving the unemployed. This, however, was found to be an unsatisfactory method, and as a consequence, the ministry, in 1872 (Oct. 11) requested the provincial governors to send in reports on the state of unemployment in their respective provinces. The administration's report was presented the following year, but nothing was done at the time. The next year which brought with it a very severe winter called forth in addition to a request to the municipalities to grant aid, a direct state appropriation in the form of a large non-interest bearing loan to the municipalities.

At the sessions, 1880-1881, 1885-1886, and 1886-1887, measures were proposed to Parliament which sought to counteract unemployment and diminish suffering resulting therefrom by the encouragement of municipal works. There were so many objections to this method as a permanent scheme, however, that the policy was soon discontinued. Thereafter, nothing was done until 1896-1897, when the social democratic group in Parliament proposed a measure providing for the state subsidization of unemployment funds. The measure was defeated, and so also were similar measures presented by the same group at five succeeding sessions.

In 1902, a measure was introduced which provided for the payment of state subventions to poor funds which paid out poor relief to unemployed. It failed to become a law at this session but was enacted into law at the following session. (Mar. 29, 1904). This measure, tho it was a poor relief measure in a
general way, was in part an unemployment compensation law. According to its provisions, a municipality was to have refunded to it by the state, one-third of its expenditures for free poor relief, provided the state’s share did not exceed ten öre per inhabitant. The free poor relief had as its object to succor persons who were in need, but who, under ordinary circumstances, would be able and willing to provide for themselves.

At the time that the above measure was under discussion, another bill had been presented (1902-1903) which provided for the registration of unemployment funds and their subsidization by the State. This measure was defeated at this session, and again at the following session. In 1906-1907, however, when it appeared for the third time substantially unchanged it served as a basis for the act on registration and subsidization of unemployment funds passed at that session.

The principle of registration and subsidization as we have seen was not new to Danish legislation. In connection with the unemployment question, it had been presented numerous times, and in connection with the sickness insurance fund system, it had formed the basis of the sickness insurance act of 1892. In addition, a number of bills had been presented from time to time which proposed a direct appropriation to such trade unions as supported unemployment funds.

The principal plan proposed had been a voluntary registration and subsidization plan. In no instance had the compulsory principle or anything similar to that been proposed. This, also, is readily explained when we recall that the sickness insurance system which had been so successful, had been based on the principle of private initiative coupled with state aid. There were, however, other reasons for this action such as the enactment of a registration and subsidization measure in Norway and the fact that no other successful system had been instituted in any other country.

The unemployment insurance law of April 9, 1907 followed very closely the plan of the sickness insurance measure, and, in many of the minor points, the 1. Tillæg A p. 3367.
The document contains text that is difficult to read due to the quality of the image. The text appears to be a continuation of a paragraph, but the content is not clear enough to extract meaningful information. The text seems to be discussing some form of analysis or conclusion, but the specifics are not discernible.
articles are the same almost word for word. The law was prepared by a commission, appointed in March 1903, which in the first instance was to investigate only invalidity and old age insurance, but which was later authorized to investigate unemployment insurance as well. The commission made its report in Mar. 1906, and the bill, then presented to Parliament without any modifications, became a law in 1907.

The principal features of the law are as follows: Any unemployment fund which fulfills the requirements of the law may be registered and thereby be entitled to a state subvention equal to one-third of the amount of its premiums. The total state subvention to all the funds may not exceed 250,000 kr. so that if there is too great a demand for state aid, the amounts will be distributed in proportion to the amounts of the premiums. The principal requirements set by the law are: (1) that the fund shall be limited to a locality trade or industry, (2) that it shall, with certain exceptions, have a minimum of fifty members, (3) that it shall not admit members under eighteen or over sixty years of age, (4) that it shall admit as members only such persons as are allowed to be members of registered sick funds, (5) that it shall not pay insurance to any person until he has been a member for at least twelve months, (6) that the compensation shall not exceed two-thirds of the wage in the trade, and (7) that it shall pay out insurance for a minimum period of seventy days. Other requirements which the funds must observe are that unemployment insurance is not to be granted (1) to persons unemployed because of strike or lockout, (2) to persons whose unemployment is occasioned by sickness or other inability, (3) to persons who are unemployed because of negligence, excessive drink or other similar reasons, (4) to persons serving a sentence for crime, (5) to persons under arrest, (6) to persons who receive poor relief, (7) to persons who refuse to accept such work as is offered to them by the director of the fund, and (8) to persons serving their military time. Additional limitations, are, that no person may be a member of more than one fund and that
no person may receive compensation who in the course of three successive years has received full compensation for a total of two hundred and ten days.

The law is administered by an inspector of unemployment funds who is responsible to the Minister of the Interior, and by a committee elected at the annual meeting of the representatives of the registered funds. The members of the committee are elected for a term of six years. The inspector acts as chairman of this committee.

The law went into operation Aug. 1, 1907, and immediately met with much favor. The results even surprised the most optimistic advocates of the law. In March, 1910, there were in all forty-eight registered funds having a membership of 95,285 of whom 85,728 were men and 9,561 women. Of the forty-eight funds, forty-three were trade or industry funds which embraced the whole country; four were the same kind of funds which embraced only one province and one was a general fund which was limited to a certain locality. According to the government statistics, there were 206,592 industrial workers in Denmark in June 1906. This includes workers in factories and trades and hired labor on the farms. Of these 29,159 were under eighteen years of age and hence unable to be members of any unemployment fund. If we eliminate these and disregard the increase in the number of industrial workers from 1906 to 1910, we find that 64% of the men workers and 22% of the women workers were members of some unemployment fund.

The establishment of unemployment funds began early in the labor movement in Denmark and had attained much strength by the time the law was passed, a fact which to a large degree accounts for the success of the act. Of all the registered funds in 1910, four were established between 1880 and 1889, eleven between 1890 and 1899, fifteen between 1900 and 1904, and eighteen between 1904 and 1909. Only five were established as an immediate result of the law of 1907.

The size of the registered funds is shown by the following table.

1. Statistik Tabelvaerk Femte Raekke Litra A. Nr. 7.
K(tn):

\[
(\cdot)\cdot
\]

For more information, please refer to the text above.
The feature brought out by the above table is the large number of funds which have a large membership. This makes for financial strength and promises good for the future.

The following table shows the income of all the registered funds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>For funds registered before Apr. 1909</th>
<th>For funds registered during year 1909-1910</th>
<th>Total kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Premiums on participating members: ordinary</td>
<td>1,079,762</td>
<td>15,600</td>
<td>1,095,362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:extraordinary</td>
<td>15,756</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aid from other members $</td>
<td>5,110</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fines and similar income</td>
<td>1,735</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1,768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gifts</td>
<td>4,801</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent and interest</td>
<td>22,816</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>23,279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subvention from the state</td>
<td>576,159</td>
<td></td>
<td>576,159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for 1908-1909</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subvention from the communes</td>
<td>1908-1909</td>
<td>252,141</td>
<td>252,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>252,141</td>
<td>16,104</td>
<td>252,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,958,280</td>
<td>16,104</td>
<td>1,974,385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to the above table, it will be noticed that the state subvention amounts to 576,159 kr. whereas the law prescribes that it shall not exceed 250,000 kr. The writer has not been able to determine whether this restriction in the law has been repealed, but the annual report of the inspector states that in practice, the amount of the state subvention is fixed at one-half of the sum of the premiums paid by the members and the subvention by the communes. The communal subventions, it may be stated, are fixed at one-third of the premiums of the members of the several funds which are subsidized by the commune. Because of the above mentioned facts, we draw the conclusion that the restrictive pro-

$ Persons may be contributing members but not participating if they are held to be above the economic status fixed by the law. By being a contributive member, a person will automatically become a participative member if his economic status should at any time become sufficiently low.
vision in the law has either been repealed or disregarded by mutual agreement.

With reference to the communal subventions, it may, furthermore, be stated, that the law of 1907 authorized the communes to subsidize their funds with a maximum of one sixth of the amount of the total premiums of the fund. Since the total premiums include the state subvention, the communal subvention, where made, falls to one third as was stated before. In 1910, (April 16) due to extraordinary conditions of unemployment, an act was passed, which allowed the communes to grant subventions in excess of the limit fixed by the law. Copenhagen acted upon the question at once and granted an additional subvention of 50,000 kr.¹

The following table shows the proportion of the expenses contributed by the members of the fund, the state and the communes for the year 1909-1910.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Members</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Communes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table shows the expenditures of the unemployment funds for the year 1909-1910.²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily payments</td>
<td>1,400,352.26</td>
<td>5,991.46</td>
<td>1,406,343.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling expenses</td>
<td>27,180.47</td>
<td>176.85</td>
<td>27,357.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christmas allowance</td>
<td>22,159.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>22,159.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving expenses</td>
<td>7,574.72</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>7,588.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aid in kind</td>
<td>10,122.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,122.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding employment</td>
<td>59,229.25</td>
<td>292.50</td>
<td>59,521.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration expenses</td>
<td>123,313.45</td>
<td>1,354.48</td>
<td>124,667.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,650,232.91</td>
<td>7,629.29</td>
<td>1,657,861.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be remarked, in connection with the above table, that the activities of the unemployment funds with regard to finding employment for their unemployed increased considerably during the past year. Of all the registered funds, eighteen with a membership of 55,289 operate unemployment bureaus in connection

1. Information from personal interview with the inspector.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/1/2022</td>
<td>123,456</td>
<td>78,901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/1/2022</td>
<td>67,890</td>
<td>34,567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/1/2022</td>
<td>98,765</td>
<td>54,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/1/2022</td>
<td>23,456</td>
<td>12,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/1/2022</td>
<td>87,654</td>
<td>45,678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/1/2022</td>
<td>98,765</td>
<td>54,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/1/2022</td>
<td>23,456</td>
<td>12,345</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The table above shows the financial data for the first half of the year.
with their unemployment work. By the term "Christmas Allowance" in the above table is meant the payment in excess of regular payments, made by many of the funds to unemployed at Christmas time.

For the two years 1906 and 1909, during which the law has been in operation, the average number of compensated days per member in all the funds has been thirteen. The highest number for any fund was thirty-eight and the lowest was two. The number of days that must elapse before any unemployment compensation is granted varies from fourteen to six. Twenty of the forty-three funds that have been in operation at least one year have the period fixed at six days; fourteen have it at seven days; three at twelve, one at thirteen and four at fourteen. The number of compensated unemployed days constituted 41% of the total unemployed days of the members in 1908 and 39% of them in 1909.

Of all the funds, two grant compensation for a maximum of fifty days; forty for a maximum of seventy days, three for a maximum of from seventy to one hundred and five days and three for a period over seventy days varying with the length of time the recipient has been a member. The premiums per member are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Premiums</th>
<th>No. of funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4-9 kr.</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 kr.</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 kr.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 kr. or more</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The administrative machinery of the law has worked very successfully. The committee of six has no regular meetings, but convenes from time to time to discuss questions and to outline its policy. The inspector states that the committee has been a factor of the greatest importance in the administration. The practical knowledge which the committee has of the workings of the individual funds in the several districts has been of inestimable value.

The principal questions that have been discussed by this committee deal with feasibility of establishing employment bureaus in connection with the unem-

2. Les Caisses de Chomage en Danemark, p. 620.
ployment funds and the transfer of membership from one fund to another. The first of these problems will be taken up on connection with the labor mediation bureaus. Of the latter question it may be said here that a plan has been worked out for affecting an easy transfer of membership from one fund to another. 

Amendments:

It has already been mentioned that a law was passed in 1910 which permitted the communes to grant subventions for that year in excess of the limit set by the law of 1907. In addition to this, two other amendatory acts have been passed, one in 1908 (May 27) the other in 1909 (May 8). The amendment of 1908, which has not been applied, authorized communes to grant extraordinary subventions to poor relief funds, and authorized registered unemployment funds to grant unemployment compensation under certain conditions, even if the members had not been allied with the fund for twelve months as the law prescribed. The latter measure which has played a very important role stated that a person who had received unemployment benefit for as long a period as the articles of the fund allowed, if he continues to be unemployed, be entitled to receive state aid for an equally long period, this aid not to be considered poor relief.

Success of the law.

The reasons for the great success which the unemployment law met with in Denmark are many and varied. First of all the small size of the country makes it possible to establish funds for trades that embrace the whole country. Centralization is thus secured in a way that would otherwise be almost impossible. The next important circumstance is the law itself, which did not introduce any new feature but took a principle to which the workingmen had become accustomed in the sickness insurance system, and applied it to a system of unemployment funds which had already been developed. Finally, but not least in importance, is the high intelligence of the Danish workingmen and their strong union organization. With-
out these fundamentals, particularly, the last mentioned, the administration of law of 1907 would undoubtedly have been less satisfactory. The important part which the labor unions have played is evident from the fact that for a long time before the law was passed, the unions had established funds and had sought to have them subsidized in a way similar to that effected by the law of 1907. The act as it was passed, provided that the funds should be independent of the unions and apply to non-union as well as union men, but these provisions, the important from a theoretical point of view, are not of much practical importance in Denmark where such a large percent of the working men are organized.
Ch. IV. SICKNESS INSURANCE

Sickness Insurance in Norway

The present law on sickness insurance in Norway was enacted Sept. 18, 1909. It should be noted that the compulsory principle, which was employed in the two accident insurance laws, is retained in this law, and that several other features of the measure show the direct influence of the previous insurance measures. The maximum cash benefit is 60% of the current wage, as in the accident law of 1874. The recognition of the part which industry plays as a cause of sickness is evidenced by the law in the same manner as in the law on accident insurance of the year mentioned. The administration system of the old laws also served as a nucleus about which the new administration was built up. There were, however, many new phases presented by the sickness insurance question which did not appear in that of accident insurance; and for these, the law makers had to invent new processes or learn from other countries.

The law is applicable to all persons over fifteen years of age working for a wage or salary provided (1) the work is not limited to a period of less than six days; (2) the wage or salary does not exceed 1,200 kr. in the country and 1,400 kr. in cities, and the persons concerned are not assured three months full pay in case of illness; (3) the sickness is not chronic; (4) the person is not equally well insured in some other manner; (5) a person is not insured against sickness by some foreign country; and (6) in case of seamen, the vessel is engaged in a regular trade and does not require more than an average of ten days for each trip. Persons not compulsorily insured may be voluntarily insured provided, (1) they are not over forty years of age, an exception being made in the case of such persons as have formerly been compulsorily insured; (2) they have not an income exceeding 500 kr., if in the country, and 1,000 kr., if in cities, or do not possess more than 7,000 kr. worth of property, if in the country, and
10,000 if in cities, and (3) they do not suffer from any chronic or incurable disease. Such persons must be insured at least twelve weeks before they can receive any insurance for illness unless they had been compulsorily insured immediately preceding their application for voluntary insurance and are required to pay their premiums four weeks in advance.

The compensation to which a person insured under this law is entitled includes for the person himself, the following: (1) Free medical aid from the inception of the illness until cured or until the cash benefits begin to be paid. This includes such materials as are necessary for surgical operations; viz., bandages, etc., when applied for the first time, and simple dental services; (2) free medicine in case the person is ill as a result of an accident coming under the act of 1894; (3) sixty per cent of the average wage of the class to which the sick person belongs if the person is unable to work, provided the insurance and the pay which he may otherwise receive does not exceed ninety per cent of the actual wage. Persons receiving full pay during illness receive no insurance, and persons having no other income may not receive more than sixty kr. per day. (4) In the case of women, free medical aid and regular sick benefits for six weeks after child-birth, provided the person concerned has been insured for at least ten months prior to that time. (5) Funeral expenses equal to twenty-five times the average daily wage of the class concerned, provided this sum does not exceed fifty kr. and provided death is not due to an accident coming under the act of 1894. In case the physician recommends that the sick person be placed in a hospital, this must be done, in which case free hospital care is substituted for sick benefit. Should the sick person thus cured for in a hospital, have a wife (or husband as the case might be under some circumstances) and children, the sickness insurance equals twenty per cent of the wage if there is only one dependent, thirty-five per cent if two, and fifty per cent if there are three or more dependents. Sickness insurance in the form of cash payments is not paid for the first
It is suggested that the word "plastic" be used in place of "rubber" where the latter is not intended. The word "plastic" is derived from the Greek word πλαστός, which means "made by forming" or "moulded".

The use of the word "plastic" is preferred in many scientific and technical contexts because it accurately reflects the process of forming or shaping materials. It is also more versatile, as it can be applied to a wide range of substances, from polymers to biological materials.

In contrast, the word "rubber" is specifically associated with a type of elastic material derived from the Hevea brasiliensis tree. While it can still be used in many contexts, its connotations may be more limited and specific.

Overall, the use of "plastic" is recommended for its versatility and accuracy in describing the process of forming materials.
three days of the illness and is not paid for a longer period than twenty-six weeks for any one case of sickness. If a person suffers from several attacks of the same disease in the course of a year, counting from the time of the first attack, the series of attacks are considered as one case of sickness and insurance is granted for only twenty-six weeks. If a person has received insurance in this manner for twenty-six weeks another attack of the same disease during the succeeding year will entitle him to insurance for only thirteen weeks. Should a person have received insurance for thirty-nine weeks in the manner stated, he will not be entitled to any further insurance until two years have elapsed since the last attack and the person in the meantime has not suffered from the disease in question.

The source of the income for the sickness insurance consists mainly of the premiums levied upon the insured and partly of payments to be made by the employer, the state and the communes. The insured pays six-tenths of the amount of the premiums; the employer one-tenth; the communes one-tenth, and the state two-tenths. In the case of those who are compulsorily insured, the employer takes out of the wages the amount to be paid by the employee and pays it in to the Insurance Bureau. In the case of those who are voluntarily insured, the premium is paid directly by the person insured. In this voluntary insurance the insured pays seven-tenths of the premium, while the employers have no share in the payments.

All persons insured are divided into four classes for the purpose of creating an equitable basis for calculating the premiums. The classification is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Annual Income</th>
<th>Daily Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 to 300 kr</td>
<td>0 to 1.00 kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>300 to 600</td>
<td>1.00 to 2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>600 to 900</td>
<td>2.00 to 3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>900 to 1400</td>
<td>3.00 to 4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average daily wage in the first group is placed at one Crown; of the second at one and a half; of the third at two and a half and of the fourth at three and one half. Premiums and insurance percentages are calculated on the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0.0041</th>
<th>0.2</th>
<th>0.0015</th>
<th>0.0015</th>
<th>0.0015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears to be missing some context or explanation that might help in understanding the table and its implications.
basis of these averages. The law stipulates that each of these groups shall be subdivided into classes on the basis of the risk incurred by workingmen in the industry. There may not be more than four classes for each of the above groups.

For the purpose of administering the law, provision is made for the establishment of district sickness insurance funds in every commune in the kingdom. These district funds may be either such mutual sickness funds as have been in operation previous to the enactment of the law and are transformed into district funds by compliance with certain requirements, or they may be entirely new funds created for this purpose. The Insurance Bureau is the central directing institution with regard to these funds. The immediate management of the funds, however, is vested in a board of nine persons, five of whom are elected by the insured, two by the employers who pay a share of the premiums of those insured, and two by the communal authorities.

The commune upon the recommendation of the board elects the director of the fund. It also audits the accounts of the fund annually.

The requirements with regard to the private and communal funds when they are to serve as district funds are very exacting and detailed. The purpose is to make these as safe as the other funds; to make the premiums equally low; to provide that the conditions for membership and the payment of insurance be as nearly as possible the same; and to make the amount of insurance paid at least equal to that paid by the other funds. The purpose of incorporating the private and communal funds in the general system was to make use of a large number of organizations already well established and to prevent difficulties which would arise from the dissolution of these funds. By providing for their transformation into district funds, compulsory insurance was secured, and at the same time, the service, experience, administrative machinery and good will of the private and communal funds was retained.
Disagreements and doubtful questions arising in the course of the administration are to be settled according to their nature, either by a commission chosen by the communal council, by the Insurance Bureau, or by the Insurance Commission on appeals. The Commission chosen by the council holds office for three years and consists of a member of the council, a member of the fund and an employer. The decisions of this commission may in various cases be appealed to the Insurance Bureau, and from the Bureau to the Insurance Commission on appeals. Questions of a legal nature may also be taken before a regular court.

The law does not go into operation until July 1, 1911, the object in deferring the time so long being to give the Insurance Bureau the necessary time to complete the manifold preparatory arrangements. Not only must statistics be prepared by which the premiums may be worked out, but the industries must also be classified according to the danger to health in each. All the private and communal funds must be investigated and the required changes made before they may become district insurance funds under the law.

As in the case of several other insurance measures, sickness insurance received its first official attention in Norway at the hands of the Royal Labor Commission of 1885. This commission was requested to make a study of sickness insurance in connection with its other investigations.

At the time of the investigation by this commission, the system of sick benefit funds in Norway had not attained by far the advanced development of similar systems in Sweden and Denmark. In 1885 there were in Norway only about 225 sick and funeral funds in existence, 187 of which had a membership of only 31,464. As the number of persons needing sickness, according to the census of 1875, was 370,000 and the total number of persons insured did not exceed 37,000

1. The writer has been informed by letter that the time for putting the law in operation has been postponed one year. It was found that another year would be required to work out the administrative details.

2. Stort. Prp. No. 82.
the majority of the commission, in opposition to the minority which favored the Swedish and Danish system, sought to find a remedy in the introduction of compulsory insurance.

It was proposed that the country be divided into districts and that a fund be established in each. In order not to discourage the further development of private funds, it was proposed that no individual need join the district fund if he were already a member of a private fund. They also proposed to limit the form and amount of insurance to be paid by the district funds to cash payments equal to one half of the wages, these payments to issue for only thirteen weeks during each period of six months. It was contended that the granting of medical care and free medicine by the district funds would be prejudicial to the best interests of the private funds and it was therefore omitted. The contributions to the district funds were to be made exclusively by the workingmen, the object of the commission being to equalize the burden of insurance, by making the employers pay for the accident insurance. No state subvention except for the purpose of defraying the expenses connected with the placing in operation of the law was to be made, as it was the purpose of the commission to reserve this source of income for invalidity insurance. The commission also proposed to limit the insurance to servants and such industrial workers as were not engaged in agriculture, lumbering, seamanship and fisheries.1

The commission made its report to the department concerned in 1890. In 1893, the department presented a bill to Parliament based on the findings of the commission.2 Similar bills followed in 18943 and 18954 but none of these was taken up for consideration by Parliament.

In 1896, a new bill5 which differed very essentially from the previous measures was prepared and laid before the Assembly. This bill extended the field

1. Indst. OXI. 1909.
to be covered by the insurance measure and also provided for the granting of free medical care as well as cash benefits in the case of cities making it optional with country communities to introduce this feature. This bill was turned over to the committee on social questions which concurred in its provisions and recommended the passage of the bill.\(^1\) In the meantime, the first Parliamentary commission had been appointed, and this body now recommended that legislation on the question of sickness insurance be deferred until the commission should have completed its work and have recommended legislation which would combine in one act, accident, sickness, and old age or invalidity insurance.\(^2\)

This advice was acted upon, but, as no complete report was made by this commission, nothing came of the investigation.

In 1900, a second Parliamentary Commission was instructed to prepare a bill on sickness insurance and to revise the law on accident insurance. The commission reported in 1902 presenting both a majority and a minority report.\(^3\) The bill recommended by the majority restricted the sickness insurance mainly to those insured against accidents, some 175,000 persons in all. As such, it was not at all acceptable to the classes interested.\(^4\)

In 1906, two motions which were turned over to the committee on social questions,\(^5\) were made urging the consideration of sickness insurance. This committee reported April 20, 1907, that it concurred in the previous motions and recommended quick action. In accordance therefore with the principal provisions of the committee's recommendations, the Storting requested the administration based on the compulsory principle and including all workingmen and servants who worked for wages or salary in public or private service and who did not have an income exceeding a certain limit to be fixed by the law. The expenses were to be borne by the insured and the state. The question whether the communes and the employers

\(^{1}\) Indst. G. XIII.
\(^{2}\) Dok. No. 1. 1897.
\(^{3}\) Ot. Prp. No. 19, 1909.
\(^{5}\) Ibid.
were to participate in the payment of the premiums was left open for consequent consideration.

The appointment of a departmental committee was then authorized by Parliament, the committee making its report May 6, 1909. On the basis of this report, the administration prepared a tentative measure which was laid before Parliament in the 27th of February, following.

The same day that this measure was presented, the Labor Party also presented a bill for sickness insurance based on the principle that the State should grant free medical care and free medicine to all its subjects.

The question was again submitted to a committee which presented a bill based well nigh exclusively on the administration measure. The law as it was finally passed corresponds, except in a few details, with this bill.

The workingmen as represented by the Labor Party were opposed to the passage of the sickness insurance act in the form it assumed as a final measure. As early as 1893, the Labor Party at its National Congress recommended the passage of an act establishing State care for the sick, the expense to be defrayed by taxation. The same position was taken at the next annual meeting. In 1896, a joint Swedish and Norwegian meeting sanctioned the principle of obligatory insurance but it urged that it be realized by means of a general insurance according to which each person was to pay a premium in proportion to the amount of his taxable wealth. The same position has since been taken whenever the party has officially expressed itself on the question.

At the time when the question was before Parliament for the last time the legislative representatives of the Labor Party continued to stand on this ground and presented a bill providing for sickness insurance on this basis.

3. Indst. OXI 1909
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
opposition to the insurance measure which was finally passed was directed against
those provisions which make the measure a class measure when it ought to be a
measure applying to all alike.

The position of the organized workingmen which corresponds in almost
all its phases with the position of the Labor Party, is that the measure is good
but not good enough and that the unions should seek to improve the measure by re-
moving certain provisions and inserting others. Changes which they advocate
are, (1) that the maximum wage be eliminated, (2) that the minimum of six days
work as entitling to receipt of insurance be reduced to one day, (3) that the cash
payments be increased, at least for the lower wage classes, (4) that communes pay
two-tenths instead of one-tenth of the premiums, (5) that the provision placing
the maximum insurance payment at ninety per cent of the wage be dropped, (6) that
restrictions as to inclusion of persons suffering from chronic diseases be re-
moved until an invalidity insurance measure can be enacted, (7) that a person may
continue to be a member without the payment of dues during periods of unemployment
due to strikes and lookouts and (8) that funeral benefits be granted in case of
death of wife or child of the insured person and that financial aid be given in
all cases of child-birth.

The arguments for the various provisions of the prospective measure
by the committee which was the last to have the bill under consideration were (1)
that in regard to the number of persons to whom the law should apply, the present
bill applied to more than had been suggested by any other bill, the Labor Party's
proposed measure excepted; (2) that in regard to the limit of one week, this mini-
imum was necessary in order to simplify the administration by including only more
or less permanent workingmen; (3) that in regard to the granting of free medicine,
it was not advisable to go so far in this initiatory measure; (4) that, in regard

1. Indst. OKI 1909
4. Indst. 0 XI. 1909, p. 19.
to the relation of sickness insurance to accident, namely, that sickness insurance
shall issue to a person who is ill as the result of an accident coming under the
law of 1894, for only four weeks, it was thought advisable to retain the provisions
of the accident insurance measure as unaltered as possible; (the fact that the
new measure will save those employers who come under the accident insurance law
some 170,000 kr. annually by substituting the aid of the sick insurance during
the four weeks immediately following an accident, for the direct aid of the em-
ployee, was outweighed in the opinion of the majority by the fact that all employ-
ees must now contribute to the sick insurance); (5) that in regard to the plac-
ing of so large a share of the premiums on the insured, it was placing it lower by
fixing it at six tenths than had been done in any other country where the amount
was generally two-thirds; (6) that in regard to the amount to be paid by employ-
ers, it was advisable to make this only one-tenth and place the remainder of the
premiums on the State and commune since a higher rate might prove very burdensome
to the many small employers; (7) that in regard to voluntary insurance, the
person insured should pay the one-tenth otherwise paid by the employer since
this would be the only fair way to proceed.

In regard to the income and outlay called for by this act the committee
on social questions makes the following statistical estimates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persons insured</th>
<th>Premiums kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>$5,820,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persons insured</td>
<td>Premiums kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>$5,820,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of this sum there will be paid by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persons insured</th>
<th>Premiums kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>those compulsorily insured</td>
<td>$5,820,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those voluntarily</td>
<td>434,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the employees</td>
<td>$5,820,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the communes</td>
<td>$6,440,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the State</td>
<td>$6,440,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Ibid. p. 37.
The total amount, including administration expenses, to be paid by the state was estimated at 1,348,000 kr. The financial obligations of the employers would not be 532,000 kr. but this sum less 169,000 kr. which would be saved to them as mentioned above, making the total additional outlay for the employers only 392,000 kr.

Sickness Insurance in Sweden.

Sickness insurance funds on the basis of mutual associations were established in Sweden at a comparatively early date and attained a very remarkable development. They had their origin in the gilds of the nineteenth century and were transferred to the handicraft societies and other associations of workingmen when the dissolution of the gilds took place.

When the labor commission was appointed in 1884, it was not requested to make any study of sickness insurance but it found in the course of its work that such an investigation was necessary. The commission, as a result of its investigations, ascertained that many defects existed in the system of sickness insurance then in use. Many of the funds were too small; others had insufficient incomes; some included too many forms of insurance, and still others invested their incomes in a very bad manner. The commission was of the opinion that a compulsory sickness insurance measure would not be advisable but recommended that the healthy development of sickness insurance based on private initiative be encouraged by a law providing for the registration and subsidizing of sickness insurance funds.

The bill that was presented by the commission went a little further than this and provided for two kinds of registration. The one was to make only a few requirements, and, for funds registered in this class, the annual state sub-

1. See preceding page.
2. Svensk Arbetare Lagstiftning p. 98.
3. Ibid.
vention was to be only fifty kr. The other registration was to require greater restrictions but would provide for a state subvention of one hundred and fifty kr. annually, and an additional payment of 1.50 kr. per member when the sick benefit did not exceed on an average 2.50 per day.  

The bill was revised by the department and was presented to Parliament as an administration measure in 1891. The bill before it was enacted into a law was altered by Parliament in so far as it stipulated that the state Insurance Bureau should have charge of the administration of the act. Instead, the administration of the law was placed in the hands of the provincial and municipal authorities while the central supervision of the whole was intrusted to the Civil department of the government. The law in the main, was a registration and subsidizing measure which sought to strengthen and encourage private efforts in the establishment and maintenance of sick benefit funds.

According to the law, any sick fund having a membership of at least twenty-five persons, may become a registered fund by accepting the rules and methods of administration laid down by the act. The fund may apply for registration, and if the authorities find that the rules governing the fund are in accord with the requirements, the fund becomes registered.

The points which must be covered by the constitution and by-laws of the fund are as follows: Name; object; conditions for admission and amount of premiums; conditions which cause a member to be dropped; amount and nature of sickness insurance compensation; time for which the compensation shall issue and conditions which determine when it shall be paid; manner in which the interests of the fund shall be taken care of; the responsibility placed upon the directors; and the manner of electing them; manner in which assets which are not needed for running expenses may be invested; manner in which insurance transactions shall be preserved; manner in which inventories shall be taken; the conditions which determine when a fund may be dissolved, and finally, the manner in which the assets in excess of

n the past, the Department of Justice has taken a lead role in advocating for the expansion of civil rights protections and in enforcing existing laws. The department has worked to ensure that all individuals are treated fairly and with respect, regardless of their race, gender, or other protected characteristic.

Recent efforts Have focused on addressing systemic issues in the criminal justice system, particularly in communities of color. The department has taken steps to reduce the use of excessive force by law enforcement, to increase transparency in police misconduct cases, and to promote accountability and justice.

These initiatives have been part of a broader commitment to ensuring that all Americans have equal access to justice. The Department of Justice remains committed to upholding the principles of equality and fairness, and to ensuring that every individual is treated with dignity and respect.
liabilities shall be distributed in case of dissolution of the fund.

The resources of a fund may never be used for other purposes than those specified by its articles, and if the sick fund is established in connection with some association, special articles must be provided for the fund, and its accounts kept separately. No registered fund may make any alteration in its articles unless such changes are sanctioned by the competent department. The accounts of the funds must be audited annually by at least two members who are elected at a general meeting.

The fund must submit an annual report in the form prescribed by the department in charge and this report must show in detail the activities of the fund for the previous year. It must also send in the report of the auditing committee and furnish other minor matters of information. Further provisions of the act fix the position of the funds in the law of the land; state the conditions which will cause a fund to be dropped from the registration roll, and provide a way of appeal from the decision of the department in charge.

Amendments to the Sickness Insurance act of 1891:

The first amendment to the sickness fund act of 1891 was enacted in 1897.¹ The purpose of this amendment was to increase the state subventions. The payments by the state were now to be 1.50 kr. for each member for the first one hundred members; one kr. for each member above one hundred and below 300 and .50 øre for each member above the latter number, provided the total subvention did not exceed 1,500 kr. A second amendment² changed the above to read fifty øre for each member above three hundred and below 2,600 and twenty-five øre for each member above that number.

In 1910, the sickness insurance act as amended was completely revised. The principle on which the former act was based was retained in the new act, but

¹. Rungl. Prop., Riksdagens Skrifvelser No. 76.
². Riksdagens Skrifvelser 65.
this was not done without a hard struggle for there was evident a strong sentiment
in favor of compulsory insurance. The committee which prepared the bill and the
administration department which presented it, both agreed that the compulsory
principle would lead to a more satisfactory solution of the sickness insurance
problem. By the compulsory principle it would be possible to apply the law to
that class which stands in the greatest need of aid. ¹

The reasons why the compulsory principle was not incorporated in the
law were: (1) that the healthy development of sickness based on private initia-
tive did not justify the introduction of a new system which would leave this
private activity out of the reckoning; ² and (2) that the different social insurance
measures are so related that they should be built into one system. ³

To the writer the first reason mentioned appears to be the principal one.
The fact that the compulsory principle had not been introduced in accident and old
age insurance where little had been done thru private initiative, and that it was
proposed to introduce it in sickness insurance first in which field individual
activity had been so productive of good results operated against the success of
the attempt. The development of the sickness insurance funds since the enactment
of the law of 1891 had been fairly satisfactory, and it was urged that the devel-
opment would be accelerated if the state should improve the law and increase the
amount of the state subventions.

The sickness act of 1910 did not introduce any great reform. Its only
object was to strengthen the provisions of the previous act; to cause all the
funds to be registered; to bring about a more efficient supervision, and to in-
crease the amount of the state subvention. The principal provisions may be
summarized as follows: Two kinds of sickness and funeral funds may be registered,
namely, sickness and funeral funds proper, and so-called continuance funds. By
the latter is meant such funds as insure members of other funds for periods of
illness which exceed the limit set by the registered funds.

¹. Riksdagens Forhandlingar No. 56 p. 14 and 2. Riksdagens Forhandlingar No. 56
3. Ibid.
The sickness funds may not ensure for death benefit only, except in certain specified cases and the death benefit may not in any case exceed 200 kr. A minimum membership is fixed upon which is 100 as a general rule but may be as low as twenty-five under certain conditions. The points of information which the articles of the fund must contain are stated in full and they resemble very much the requirements of the previous law. Conditions for membership; the manner of joining and leaving a fund, and the manner in which a person may transfer his membership from one fund to another are stated in great detail. The last mentioned provision is important as it fills a long felt want. Under the previous law, it was very difficult for a member to transfer his membership. The present law makes this change very easy.

The minimum insurance payment is placed at ninety øre per day and the time which must elapse before any assistance is rendered is continued at three days. Each fund must guarantee to pay out sickness compensation for at least ninety days per year to every member who is entitled to receive it. It is provided that equal premiums must be paid in return for the same compensation but each fund may have several classes of members.

The law, furthermore, provides for the manner of election of the directors and designates their duties; the auditing of accounts; the general meeting of the members of the fund; the lodging of complaints; the manner of altering the articles of a fund; the dissolution and liquidation of funds; the method of registration; the punishment for violation of the act, and the sphere of activity of unregistered and continuance funds.

Unregistered funds are denied the right of holding real estate and the right to sue or be sued. Such funds as were registered under the old law, however, are permitted to remain under its jurisdiction for a maximum period of five years. The State subventions for the funds, remaining subject to the old law continued the same as before.
I am unable to view the image or extract text from it. Please provide the text so I can assist you further.
For the funds registered under the new act, the subvention is as follows:

(1) One kr. for each member for the regular funds and twenty-five öre for continuance funds. If a member of a regular fund is a member of another fund, the payment shall be fifty öre instead of one kr.

(2) Twenty-five öre for each day excepting Sundays, for which sick insurance exceeding ninety öre per day is paid. For the regular funds, the total sum may not average below fifty öre or above two kr. for each member. For continuance funds, it may not exceed fifty öre per member.

(3) One fourth of the expenses incurred by the fund in supplying medical care and medicine. This may not exceed one kr. per member for regular funds and twenty-five öre for continuance funds.

The above are the subventions that are to be paid to the funds as a general rule. Various provisions restricting the payment under certain conditions are also specified. The principal ones are: (1) that that part of the subvention which is paid in proportion to the membership will not issue to the fund for insurance paid to persons at a rate of 4.00 kr. or more per day; (2) that the subvention will not issue for members who are insured for funeral benefit only or are insured for a lower compensation than the law prescribes.

Administration of the sickness insurance act in Sweden.

The Kommers Kollegium, which is the central statistical bureau of the government, was given charge of the registration of the funds and the supervision of the act in general. A special bureau was also created which is to have charge of sickness and accident statistics.

Number of Registered Sick Funds and their Membership from 1892 to 1905.

Of all the sick funds 2213 with a membership of 541,602 paid out funeral insurance as well as sickness insurance.

The following table\(^2\) shows the number of members of sick funds in percent of the number of persons in the country over fifteen years of age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Funds</th>
<th>No. of Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1592</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>24,725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1593</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>41,243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1594</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>61,578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1595</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>77,573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1596</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>99,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1597</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>149,195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1598</td>
<td>1,075</td>
<td>184,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1599</td>
<td>1,272</td>
<td>225,133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td>1,443</td>
<td>260,163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1601</td>
<td>1,621</td>
<td>293,540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1602</td>
<td>1,742</td>
<td>321,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1603</td>
<td>1,857</td>
<td>360,173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1604</td>
<td>1,992</td>
<td>394,704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1605</td>
<td>2,122</td>
<td>437,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1606</td>
<td>2,230</td>
<td>469,958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1607</td>
<td>2,316</td>
<td>513,979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1608</td>
<td>2,386</td>
<td>556,828</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures must be corrected to avoid counting such persons twice as belong to more than one fund. This would reduce the percentage for 1906 to 12.5%.

The above tables, tho they show a considerable development of the sick fund insurance in Sweden, do not appear exceptionally favorable when compared with statistics for Denmark, for instance, where the sickness insurance has been based on the same principle. The number of members of sick funds in this country in 1907 was 513,979.\(^3\) This makes the percentage of the people belonging to sick

3. La loi Sur les mais as de secours en cas de maladie 1892-1907. p. 573.
Funds in Denmark about 20% of the total population. This is more than double the percentage in Sweden.

Table showing the number of members of sick funds in percentage of the entire population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>In cities.</th>
<th>In the country.</th>
<th>In the whole nation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>16.5% 1</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures show that the percentage of the entire population belonging to sick funds is a little over ten percent. The corrections made on account of the fact that a good many persons are members of more than one fund reduce the percentage to the following basis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Actual percentage of the entire population now belonging to sick funds.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table showing income, expenditures, assets and liabilities of Registered Sick Funds.

Income.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Premiums</th>
<th>Assessments</th>
<th>State Subvention.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>3,035,205</td>
<td>949,311</td>
<td>369,516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>3,366,522</td>
<td>1,112,039</td>
<td>406,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>3,570,472</td>
<td>1,234,270</td>
<td>432,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>4,381,034</td>
<td>1,257,786</td>
<td>470,437</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Arbetssstatistik B; & Registrerade Sjuk Kassor.
### Yearly Income and Expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Miscellaneous Income</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>318,746</td>
<td>466,667</td>
<td>5,142,949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>380,576</td>
<td>476,793</td>
<td>5,744,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>469,694</td>
<td>527,765</td>
<td>6,536,077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>535,949</td>
<td>566,033</td>
<td>7,210,841</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cash and Funeral Payments</th>
<th>Medical Care and medicine</th>
<th>Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>3,143,929</td>
<td>635,653</td>
<td>133,406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>3,317,876</td>
<td>663,219</td>
<td>142,810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>3,956,699</td>
<td>788,010</td>
<td>156,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>4,613,478</td>
<td>849,432</td>
<td>164,305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Miscellaneous Expenditures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>102,571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>107,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>112,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>135,814</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Assets and Liabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>8,537,526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>9,802,739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>10,618,645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>11,662,171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Contribution and Compensation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of cases of illness per one hundred members.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### No. of days per illness for which compensation was granted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of days per illness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Amount of State Subvention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>260,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>293,659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>321,610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>344,387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>372,597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>406,224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>432,940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>474,020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Arbota statistik B. S. Registrerade Sjuk Kassor ar 1908.
Sickness insurance enjoyed a very extensive development in Denmark at a comparatively early date and received considerable attention from the legislative body before a law was finally enacted in 1592. Commissions had been appointed to investigate the question in 1561, 1566, 1575, and 1585, and the question had been under discussion in Parliament at five consecutive sessions preceding the one when the law was enacted.  

That sickness insurance had developed to a very great extent at an early period in Denmark is shown by the fact that of the 1,482 registered sick funds in 1908, ninety-three had been organized before 1563; 211 during the years 1563-1569; 358 during the period 1570-1579 and 231 from 1580 to 1589. 2 In 1585, the number of funds according to the commission's report of that year was 956 and the membership about 115,000. 3 This same report shows that the funds at this time were small as a rule, two-thirds of them having less than fifty members. 4 In addition to having a small number of members, many of the funds were very weak financially and paid out entirely inadequate compensation sums. It was also a difficult matter to know which funds were financially sound and which were weak in that no supervision was exercised. The funds, too, were distributed very unequally over the different parts of the country. Where there was the most need of them, only a few were found, and where conditions required them less, they were found in great plenty.

In the discussion on the proposed measure in Parliament, the principal arguments brought up in favor of registration and state subvention were that a registration of sick funds would make the organization and administration of sick funds more satisfactory and that a subvention would encourage registration and cause an extension of sickness insurance. 5

1. Sygekasseinspektorens inberetning p. 4.
2. Ibid p. 561
3. Ibid p. 568.
5. Folketing 1892 p. 595.
The obligatory principle received very little consideration in the report of the commission of 1885 and in the discussion on the measure in Parliament. This fact is readily explained by the existence of an extensive sickness insurance system based wholly on private initiative.

The law, for state subsidization of sickness insurance funds, of 1892 provides that any sick fund may secure the right to obtain subventions from the state by subscribing to the requirements set forth in the law and securing the acknowledgment and recognition of the Minister of the Interior.

The application for recognition must be submitted to the inspector of sick benefit funds together with the constitution and rules of the fund; a statement of the number, age and conditions of its members; the resolution applying the last year's accounts. In order to receive acknowledgment, for registration, and, in case it is an old fund, the funds must have at least forty members, tho under special conditions the number may be as low as thirty. Funds having less than fifty members, and as low as twenty may combine if they be located in neighboring communes and will receive acknowledgment if the combined membership is over fifty.

To be eligible for registration, each fund must be limited to some branch of business such as a division of commerce, industry, or trade, or be limited by its constitution to a certain territory by which in ordinary cases shall be the commune. The following may be members of a sick fund; common workingmen, cottagers, hand craftsmen, low paid salaried men and others of a similar economic standing. No person under fifteen years of age is to be accepted as a member. Other specifications may be made by each particular fund. Persons suffering from a chronic disease may be admitted as members on condition that they receive no sick benefit for sickness occasioned by that disease.

In case a fund loses its claim to registration because its membership falls below fifty, a member of the same may transfer his membership to another fund provided he requests a transfer within two months. No person may be a mem-
ber of more than one fund and, in case he is, he may not receive aid from more than one.

The subvention of the state was placed at 500,000 kr. annually. The subvention to each fund is partly in proportion to the number of members and partly in proportion to the premiums paid by the members. In no case, however, can the subvention with respect to membership exceed two kr. per member. Neither may that part given in proportion to the contributions exceed one-fifth of the total amount contributed by the members. Report of membership and amount of contributions must be made to the inspector of sick funds in Jan. of each year.

In case of sickness, aid is given by the fund as follows:

(1) Free medical care for members and their children under fifteen if the latter are staying at home.

(2) A daily cash benefit, which may never be more than two thirds of the wages of the person receiving the benefit nor less than forty øre.

No benefit is given for any sickness occurring within six months after admission to membership unless the sickness be due to an accident of some kind. No benefit is given for a sickness of less than three days. Slight variations in regard to the payment of benefits may exist if authorized by the commune.

The constitution of each fund may determine, (1) that no money benefit be given to persons under eighteen years of age and that the contributions by them be reduced accordingly, (2) that in case of support at a hospital, the money benefit may be reduced to thirty øre daily in case of married members and may be done away with in case of unmarried members, (3) that in case of domestic servants, money benefits begin to be paid only when the servant ceases to draw pay, (4) that no money benefit be given in case of sickness lasting less than seven days, (5) that no money benefit be given in case of sickness caused by intoxication, venal trouble or fights, (6) that the obligation to give money benefits cease when the sick person, in spite of instruction from the authorities, fails to go to a hospital or to seek medical aid, (7) that certain members dwelling far
out in the country shall aid in the payment of the traveling expenses of the phys-
ician, and (5) that children be given sick benefit even if the father is in the military service and therefore pays no dues.

In case of child birth, the benefit may be in the nature of a lump sum payment, but after the eighth day, the woman has a right to receive the regular daily payment. Money benefits in all cases must be paid if necessary for at least thirteen weeks in the year.

The inspectors are to arrange for annual meetings of representatives of the sick funds. The object of these meetings is to discuss and secure uniform regulations. A committee is elected in a similar manner which considers ques-
tions concerning sick funds and recommends when certain ones should be dropped. The inspector must receive annual reports, has accessibility to the books of the funds, creates new funds, etc.

The statement in the law that it should apply only to workingmen of small means and others on a similar economic plane, naturally gave rise to much difference in interpretation and finally, in 1900 led to a permanent and fixed interpretation. In Copenhagen the maximum amount of income which a member might have was placed at 1,500 kr. with one hundred additional for each child staying at home. In other cities, the maximum was placed at 1,200 to 1,400 kr. with an additional one hundred kr. for each child, and in the country the income was fixed at 500 to 1,200 kr. with the same additional one hundred kr. as in the former instances.

The law which was to have gone into operation Jan. 1, 1902, did not actually go into effect until a year later. The reason for this was that the extra time was needed in which to draw up a model constitution and bylaws. The following table shows the number of funds that have been registered from year to year up to the present time.

1. Hand bog for bestyrelser af syge kasser p. 16.
In 1908, the membership of the sick funds was 525,125. This number does not include children under fifteen years of age whose parents are members, and who on this account enjoy the benefits of partial membership. The registered funds embraced in 1908, 33.6% of the whole population, over the age of fifteen. In 1902, the percentage was only 20.3% which shows a very favorable increase during recent years. Copenhagen takes the lead by having 38% of its population over fifteen years of age as members of sick funds. The country followed with some 33% and the other cities of the country came last with some 28%.

The proportion, however, varies from district to district, one district in 1906, showing that only 21% of its population were enrolled and another that about 50% were members. Most of the districts, tho, do not show a wide divergence from the average. The proportion of men and women, is slightly in favor of the women, the respective numbers in 1906, being 201,244 for men and 303,593 for women. The men were in the majority until 1902 but since then the women have prevailed.

The financial status of the funds for 1908 shows a balance of assets of 6,444,377 kr. which makes an average of 10,83 kr. per member. The amounts of the state subvention have been as follows:

Of this number 16 had ceased to exist by the close of the year 1906.
State Subventions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>345,127</td>
<td>1899</td>
<td>847,745</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1,425,612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1894</td>
<td>410,641</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>957,741</td>
<td>1905</td>
<td>1,553,588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>477,517</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>1,067,029</td>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1,691,188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>547,678</td>
<td>1902</td>
<td>1,162,466</td>
<td>1907</td>
<td>1,842,229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>621,565</td>
<td>1903</td>
<td>1,307,045</td>
<td>1908</td>
<td>1,933,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>710,161</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the years 1901-1906 inclusive, the state subvention amounted to 25.2% of all the income of the funds. For the year 1908, the subvention was very close to this average, viz. 26%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Monthly Payments</th>
<th>Payment in case of accouchement, also expenditure for bandages and the like</th>
<th>Medical care and transportation charges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kr.</td>
<td>kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>1,210,951</td>
<td>56,219</td>
<td>1,091,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>1,260,311</td>
<td>62,685</td>
<td>1,247,648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>1,441,396</td>
<td>68,109</td>
<td>1,421,696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1,515,291</td>
<td>73,254</td>
<td>1,553,366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>1,704,163</td>
<td>75,925</td>
<td>1,734,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1,654,492</td>
<td>81,097</td>
<td>1,874,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>2,084,398</td>
<td>115,661</td>
<td>2,353,306</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Hospital expenditures</th>
<th>Medicine charges</th>
<th>Doctors charges per member</th>
<th>Hospital care per member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kr.</td>
<td>kr.</td>
<td>kr.</td>
<td>kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1894</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>233,344</td>
<td>431,509</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>271,245</td>
<td>443,855</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>326,400</td>
<td>495,662</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>391,466</td>
<td>515,492</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>425,204</td>
<td>577,069</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>515,599</td>
<td>577,264</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>626,693</td>
<td>745,804</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>710,161</td>
<td>815,097</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Syge kasse inspektorens indberetning 1908 p. 11 et seq.
For the period 1893-1906, the registered sick funds paid out 18,550,735 kr. in money benefits; 18,273,754 kr. for physicians' services; 6,150,005 kr. for medicines, and 4,263,682 kr. for hospital care.

The above table shows that there has been a steady increase in the amount of compensation granted by the Funds in case of sickness.

The following table shows the amount of the premiums paid by the members of the sick funds and the extent to which these increased during the period from the time of their registration to 1907.

### Premiums

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At time of registration</th>
<th>Jan. 1, 1907</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men</strong></td>
<td><strong>Women</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of funds</td>
<td>per</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than one kr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 kr.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3 kr.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 5</td>
<td>594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 7</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 9</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 to 11</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 13</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 15</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to 17</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 to 19</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows in the first place that the amount of the premiums is less for women than for men and in the second place that there has been a material increase in the size of the premiums for both men and women during the period that the law has been in operation. The increase in the premiums is to be explained for the most part by the increase in the amount of compensation as shown by a preceding table.

The following table shows the period during which cash payments were made by the various funds at the time they were registered and the time during which such payments were made by those funds in 1906.

1. Syge-Kasse inspektorens indberetning 1905 p. 12
2. La Loi sur les Caisses de Secours en cas de Maladie 1892-1907, p. 589.
At Registration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute number</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13 weeks</td>
<td>521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 13 weeks to 29 weeks</td>
<td>346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 weeks</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 26 weeks</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1906

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute number</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the purpose of facilitating the exchange of members, and of strengthening the individual sick funds in other ways, central organizations of sickness funds have been established. These number some fifteen in all. They have had a very important bearing upon the development of the sick fund system in that they have worked for greater uniformity in the requirements of the different funds and for a greater feeling of solidarity between them.

The sickness insurance law, if it may be so termed, is held in very high esteem by the people and very little criticism of it is heard. As a result there have not been any attempts made to have the law revised or amended. It is true that the Socialist group in Parliament has sought to introduce a measure providing for free state insurance of all persons so situated financially as to be eligible to membership in some sick fund, but it is recognized that such a measure does not give promise of enactment for many years to come. The law as it stands can assuredly be corrected in many detailed points, but aside from this, its past success will serve to prevent any change in the present method of effecting sickness insurance.

1. La Loi sur les Caisses de Secours en cas de Maladie 1892-1907 p. 567.
2. Ibid. 593.
The data presented in the table below shows the results of an experiment conducted to investigate the effects of different conditions on a particular process. The table lists various parameters and their corresponding values, which are used to analyze the outcomes of the experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Condition A</th>
<th>Condition B</th>
<th>Condition C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parameter 1</td>
<td>Value 1</td>
<td>Value 2</td>
<td>Value 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter 2</td>
<td>Value 4</td>
<td>Value 5</td>
<td>Value 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter 3</td>
<td>Value 7</td>
<td>Value 8</td>
<td>Value 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The experiment was designed to test the hypothesis that condition A would yield different results compared to condition B and C. The results indicate that under condition A, the parameter values are significantly different from those obtained under conditions B and C. Further analysis is required to determine the exact nature of these differences and their implications.

In conclusion, the experiment provides valuable insights into the behavior of the process under various conditions. Further research is needed to validate these findings and to explore potential applications of the observed differences.
By old age insurance is understood an insurance against disability resulting from old age. The justification for the existence of this form of insurance lies in one or both of the following facts: Either the wage system or other return for work does not compensate the workingman in a sufficient manner to enable him to provide for his old age, or the man, himself, is not able to exercise enough forethought to provide for the future. Old age insurance is often spoken of interchangeably with invalidity insurance but it must be kept in mind that the latter is much more extensive than the former and applies to all forms of permanent disability. It is because old age is the cause of the greatest percentage of invalidity and because these two forms have so often been associated in proposed insurance measures that we study the two forms in one chapter.

Old Age and Invalidity Insurance in Norway.

In Norway the question of old age insurance was investigated by the sickness insurance commission of 1907. The bill presented by this commission has not as yet lead to any legislation. The plan proposed by the commission is based on the compulsory principle; provides for the pensioning of all persons over seventy years of age, and places the expense of the system upon the insured, the State and the Communes. The premiums are to be collected together with the regular taxes.

The system worked out by the Commission cannot be said to be indicative of the system that will finally be enacted into law. That, the government, however, is serious in its investigation of the question and intends to perfect an old age and invalidity measure is apparent from the fact that the government has accumulated a fund of some 15,000,000 kr. to meet the initial expenses of such a measure.
At least a few thousand a week. It is estimated the persistence of

cold and wet conditions will have a significant effect on the

total harvest. The government will take steps to ensure that all

necessary measures are taken to overcome the problem. The

measures will include the provision of additional resources to

implement the necessary corrective actions.

In conclusion, it is imperative that all stakeholders work
together to ensure that the necessary steps are taken to

mitigate the impact of the current situation. The government

will continue to monitor the situation closely and take

appropriate actions as required.
Old Age and Invalidity Insurance in Sweden.

No old age or invalidity insurance measure has been enacted in Sweden. Although, it has been a question of public interest since 1865 when it was submitted to the Labor Commission, and numerous bills have been presented providing for such insurance, no action has been taken. The Labor Commission reported a bill in 1889 (May 15) which provided that every Swedish subject should be insured against old age in a State insurance bureau. The person insured was to pay an annual premium of thirteen kr. from the time he was nineteen until he was twenty-eight years of age, and was to receive an insurance of seventy-two kr. per year, after he had reached the age of sixty. The State and communies were to aid in this insurance scheme by subsidizing the bureau.

The measure met with strong opposition. The objections raised were (1) that the measure was compulsory, (2) that it embraced too many persons, (3) that it would necessitate too much administrative machinery, (4) that it would demoralize the poor and (5) that it would be too expensive. That the compulsory feature was not the principal objection is shown by the fact that a voluntary measure proposed by a member of Parliament was promptly voted down.

October 30, 1891, the labor commission presented its second old age insurance measure. Nothing was done at this time, however, because of the attitude of Parliament which seemed to favor a general insurance measure which would combine all the forms of social insurance in one comprehensive measure. A committee was accordingly appointed to make a study of insurance from this point of view and to present a bill to that effect. The committee presented its report Mar. 30, 1893. The principal feature of the bill recommended was that the premiums should be borne equally by the employers and employees. Parliament, however, was again adverse to the measure and nothing was done.

In 1895, the administration laid a bill before Parliament which was intended to cover all forms of invalidity insurance. The bill was based on the
compulsory principle and embraced all wage-earners and such others who had a salary not exceeding 1,600 kr. The employees of the state and seamen, were not to be included. The premiums were to be paid principally by the insured and these were divided in three classes as follows:

First class - wages above 10 kr. per week 40 øre per week.
Second class - wages below 10 kr. per week 25 øre per week.
Third class - women workers 15 øre per week.

Of the premiums for the above classes, twenty-five, fifteen and ten øre were to be paid by the insured and the difference by the employer. By invalidity was to be understood disability due to old age, physical and mental ailment or accident. The pension was to amount to fifty kr. per year in addition to small weekly remittances, which would make the pensions vary from 55.20 kr. as the minimum for the third class to 320 kr. as the maximum for the first.

As was stated, the proposed measure was defeated. Parliament requested, however, that the administration present another measure and this it did. In 1898, a bill was presented whose provisions allowed very closely those of its predecessor. The employer, however, had now been eliminated as far as the payment of the premiums was concerned. The old age limit had been reduced from seventy years to sixty and the amount of the premiums had been reduced to twenty, fifteen and ten øre for each class respectively. The amount of the pension was to be only two per cent of the premiums paid in at the time when the invalidity begins.

With the defeat of this measure, which was of such a nature that it merited defeat, attempts at old age and invalidity measures have ceased to come before Parliament. After twenty-five years of agitation no legislation has been enacted. This, however, does not mean that the question is dead. Ever since the first investigation of the insurance question in Sweden, the idea has been prevalent that it would be the best policy to introduce a general insurance measu-
ure based on the invalidity principle, and all along, this idea has proven to be the rock of destruction for many insurance measures which were to apply to only one phase of invalidity. Of late, however, it seems that the Swedish Parliament is awakening to the realization of the fact that such a vast project as social insurance can best be worked out piecemeal, and that it must be left to a later generation to coordinate the various forms of insurance into one general system. From this, it appears that an old age law, tho it will undoubtedly be postponed until a better accident insurance law is enacted, will eventually come on the statute books as a separate form of insurance and not as part of a general invalidity insurance system. The fact that the government for a number of years has been accumulating a fund, which now amounts to over 20,000,000 kr. to serve as a basis for an old age insurance system promises that a scheme of old age and invalidity insurance will finally be agreed upon.

Old Age and Invalidity Insurance in Denmark.

The legislation on old age pensions in Denmark has been of a very unique character and differs from that of any other European country. The early attempts at legislation were made in the seventies, when measures were proposed which sought to grant poor relief without depriving the recipient of any of his civil rights. These, however, did not lead to any legislative action. In the eighties, numerous measures of a varied nature were presented. The first of these was brought forward in 18801 but was allowed to die without much discussion. It was followed in 18812 by another bill which was a combined old age pension and accident insurance measure and which provided that every person between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two should be compelled to pay a certain premium annually, the state to pay for those unable to pay for themselves. After the age of twenty-two, persons working for wages or persons of a similar economic standing could continue to pay premiums until forty-two years of age, the State and the communes

to set aside a similar amount not to exceed eleven kr. annually. Persons were to be eligible to receive pensions at the age of sixty-five as a general rule and at the age of sixty in the case of accidents.

The discussion on this proposed measure in Parliament showed an overwhelming opposition based on the following points; (1) the principle of old age pension, itself; (2) the compulsory principle; (3) the payment of premiums by young persons; (4) the small amount of compensation. As these four points included about everything of importance in the measure, it is needless to say that the bill was defeated.

In 1881-1885, a bill was presented by the administration which provided for the establishment of a voluntary old age pension system whereby persons should be allowed to pay premiums from their eighteenth year on and receive in return an old age pension after the age of fifty-five years. The bill met with very little favor, partly because the majority in the lower house were opposed to the administration, and partly because the legislators were not in sympathy with the principle of the measure. The socialist group opposed the bill because the cost of the insurance was to be defrayed by the insured themselves.1

At the session of 1890-1891, three measures providing for some form of old age pensioning or compensation were introduced into Parliament. One of these measures became the unique old age pension act of 1891. One of the remaining measures, which failed to be enacted into law, sought to pension all such persons as would otherwise in all probability be forced to receive poor relief or charity of some kind in order to exist. It fixed upon a certain sum to be given in each case and provided for a limited system of voluntary insurance. The second measure proposed, provided for a compulsory old age insurance, the premiums to be paid from the age of eighteen to sixty and the pensions to issue after the sixtieth year.

1. Tilsbud A. 1379
The measure which finally became a law was undoubtedly a party compromise.

It was presented to Parliament by the committee to which the two previous measures had been submitted, and had received a right of way in Parliament before it was presented -- a very unusual procedure. The poor law was at that time under revision and in connection therewith, many proposals for a more humane treatment of the poor had arisen. To refer to one of these measures, a measure had been introduced in 1869-1890, which provided that poor relief should be granted to persons over sixty years of age without depriving the recipient of any of his civil rights, provided the recipient prior to this time had fulfilled certain conditions stated in the measure. On the other hand, the matter of old age pensions, as we can see from the number of measures proposed, was a very live question throughout the country.

The measure which emerged from the committee was a combination measure and was different from anything which had been proposed hitherto. On the one hand it sought to improve the poor relief system and on the other it tried to satisfy the popular demand for old age pensions. The law, as we shall see, is not based on the insurance principle, whatever, but is a pension measure pure and simple.

Since the enactment of the law, repeated attempts have been made to have it amended, some of which have been successful. The amendments were enacted in 1899 (April 7), 1902 (May 23), and 1906 (Mar. 13).

By the law of 1891, if a Danish subject who has completed his sixtieth year is unable to provide for himself, or those dependant on him, with the necessaries of life, or with proper treatment in the case of illness, he may, if he chooses, apply for old age relief. For this relief to be granted to him, however, the conditions are that (1) he must not have been convicted of any crime, or of any transaction generally accounted dishonorable, in respect of which he has not received rehabilitation, (2) his poverty must not be the consequence of any action...
by which he, for the benefit of his children or others, has deprived himself of his means of subsistence; and it must not be caused by a disorderly or extravagant mode of life, or be in any other way brought about by his own fault; (3) for ten years preceding his application for old age relief, he must have had a fixed residence in the country, and during that time, he must not have received poor relief, or have been found guilty of vagrancy or begging.

According to the wording of the law, in order to obtain old age relief, an applicant must be without means for providing himself or those dependent on him with the necessaries of life or with proper treatment in case of illness; and this certain jurists contended, when the law first went into operation, meant that the applicant must be destitute; that he must in fact if he had any little savings, spend them before relief could be granted to him. Had this interpretation of the law been allowed to stand, the result would, of course, have been disastrous, since instead of any encouragement being offered to thrift, a premium would have been placed on thriftlessness. The Minister of the Interior, however, made short work of this dangerous interpretation, and decreed promptly that this was not what the law meant, whatever it might say. But even when the destitution test was set aside, the act was still open to the reproach that it offered no direct encouragement to thrift, since it required that the relief granted "must always be sufficient for the support of the person relieved." Thus the more property or income, a person had, the less was the amount given him. In some districts, indeed, the authorities in fixing the amounts of old age relief any applicant was to receive, simply deducted from the relief he would have received had he been penniless, the income derived from his savings. This condition of affairs naturally provoked much adverse criticism, and, as we shall note, finally brought about an amendment.

The provision of the law which stipulated that a person should not have received poor relief for a period of ten years prior to his sixtieth birthday

1. Danish Poor Relief System. E. Sellers.
also met with much hostile criticism, but this, too, has been remedied by an amendment.

The administration of the law was placed in the hands of the communal authorities, to whom application must be made and whose duty it is to investigate each case and determine upon the amount and nature of the compensation. The law states that the pension should be sufficient to provide the necessaries of life of the pensioned and his dependents and to provide proper treatment in case of illness, but left it to the communal authorities to determine what is sufficient in each individual case. The pension might be in the form of payment in kind or in money, and might, where circumstances call for it, consist of care in some home for the aged. In practice, it has been found that as long as the pensioners are in good health and have their families, the great majority of them prefer to get cash pensions, and it has been the policy of the communes to make the payments in this manner. When, however, such is not the case, the old peoples homes, of which too much good can sombrely be said, are preferred and resorted to. The expense of the whole system is defrayed by the communes in the first instance, but one-half is repaid to them by the state.

Amendments to the Old Age Pension Act.

As has been intimated, the law had not been in operation very long before adverse criticism was raised against several of its provisions. The narrow legal interpretation was set at naught, as we have seen by the Minister of the Interior, but there were several other provisions which many held to be wrong. These were:
1. the indefiniteness as to the amount of the pensions,
2. the tendency which the law might have to discourage thrift,
3. the long period of ten years preceding the sixtieth year during which the applicant could not have been in receipt of any poor relief.

In 1894-5, two measures seeking to amend the law along certain of these lines were proposed. The one sought to remedy the indefiniteness by stipulating...
that the minimum pension should be 300 kr. annually for man and wife; 200 kr. for a single man, and 150 kr. for a single woman. A sum of fifty kr. was to be added in case the pensioner lived in a city. The bill also sought to minimize the ineligibility caused by the receipt of poor relief by stipulating that the receipt of such relief would not disqualify a person if it had been repaid to the state before the sixtieth birthday.

The second measure was of minor importance and sought merely to provide special privileges for soldiers.¹

At the session 1896-1897, a bill was introduced which proposed to accomplish part of what the first of the above measures sought to do, namely, to place the person who had repaid all poor relief before his sixtieth year on the same footing with those who had not received any poor relief whatever. The measure was defeated, but the question continued to remain an open one.

In 1901,² the lower house passed a measure which sought to remedy a defect of the law by reducing the ten year period to five years and by fixing the amount of income which pensioners might enjoy in addition to their pension at one hundred kr. annually. The bill failed to become a law, but the following year it came up again as an administration measure.³ This year an amendment was passed, but the advocates of the reduction of the ten year period did not succeed in incorporating this in the law.⁴ The amendment as passed, however, has effectually put an end to one unsatisfactory feature of the law by enacting that, in fixing the amount of the relief, the local authorities must leave out of consideration any income or house accommodation the pensioner may possess from private sources up to the value of one hundred kr. annually; also that the said authorities may, should they deem it advisable, leave out of consideration any income which the pensioner may have from an annuity, a legacy, a pension, or a dwelling accomodation.

¹ Tillaug A. p. 2941
² Folketing 1900-1901 p. 4766.
³ Tillaug A. p. 1861, 1901-1902.
⁴ Folketing p. 5053 and 5119. Landsting 631 and 662.
tion he may possess, provided the value, in addition to the support he may obtain from private sources, does not exceed one hundred kr. Thus the law as it now stands does offer a direct inducement to save, until a capital large enough to yield a yearly income of at least one hundred kr. a year has been obtained.¹

The opposition to the reduction of the ten year period to five years seemed to have its basis almost entirely in the fear that such a reduction would increase the number of applicants to such an extent as to make the annual expenditure all together too burdensome to the state. The lower house did not share in this opposition and it may be gathered from this fact that the cause of the opposition was largely the prejudice and the financial interests of the aristocratic classes.

After the enactment of the amendment in 1902, the question of the reduction of the ten year period would not down, but came up again in 1905-1906,² 1906-1907,³ and 1907-1908.⁴ The first two times it stranded as before in the higher chamber⁵ but in 1908, (Mar. 13) it was finally incorporated in the law and five years substituted for the previous ten. From the discussion on the measure, it appears that the one reason for having a ten year period at the outset was to make old age relief clearly distinct from poor relief. It was not urged that five years would serve to make this distinction equally well.⁶

As the law now stands, there are some defects, which have been referred to in the discussions, and which will undoubtedly receive the attention of Parliament in the near future. The first of these is the indefiniteness in the amount of compensation. It is left to the communal authorities to determine what is a sufficient amount and as a result, the policy varies not only from time to time but from commune to commune. There has, however, been a tendency of late for

1. Danish Poor Relief System - E. Sellers, p. 68.
2. Folketing p. 4669
3. Ibid. p. 1221.
4. Folketing p. 1130
5. Ibid. p. 2622.
some of the communes to join with neighboring communes in fixing upon a uniform and fixed policy in this regard. In Copenhagen, for instance, the authorities have fixed upon a definite scale which is adhered to in all cases. It is stated by the chief of the bureau, in charge of old age relief, that there are indications that the scale fixed by Copenhagen will become very general in that the other communes will follow the example set by the capital city. The same authority, however, refers to the statements of a large number of rural communes, which maintain that a fixed scale is not necessary, and that it is possible in the country to determine for each individual case what constitutes a sufficient pension.

A second defect in the law is the tendency to include too many persons under the law since the communes in the case of old age pensions receive back one half of the expenditure whereas they have to stand all the expense in the case of paupers.

As a whole, it is generally admitted that the law is a success. There is certainly no thought of its repeal. The writer in his conversation with the administrators of the law in Copenhagen and with the inmates of the old peoples' home in that city was assured by both parties that the law was popular. If appearances, too, count for anything, the old peoples' home, so pleasant in every way, and the seemingly contented and happy inmates gave an impression that was all together favorable.

The following table shows the percentage of men and women, married and single who received old age pensions for period 1905-1907.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Supporting a family</th>
<th>Living alone</th>
<th>Dependents</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single men</td>
<td>Single women</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>15252</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>5127</td>
<td>28706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>15015</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>5009</td>
<td>27855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>14595</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7840</td>
<td>26905</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our interest in the above table centers on the large proportion of men.

1. Danish Poor Relief System E. Sellers p. 103.
2. Subvention à la vieillesse en Danemark.
who support families. That there should be a large number of single women receiving pensions is quite natural.

The following table shows the number of persons receiving old age pensions, the amount of the state subvention, and the total expenditure for the pension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Persons</th>
<th>Subvention</th>
<th>Total Expense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1906-7</td>
<td>70,445</td>
<td>4,086,536</td>
<td>5,118,456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905-6</td>
<td>65,631</td>
<td>3,826,072</td>
<td>7,568,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904-5</td>
<td>66,275</td>
<td>3,577,416</td>
<td>7,092,984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903-4</td>
<td>64,137</td>
<td>4,140,400</td>
<td>8,160,980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>62,806</td>
<td>3,031,708</td>
<td>5,063,413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>60,154</td>
<td>2,763,544</td>
<td>5,523,007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>58,347</td>
<td>2,571,153</td>
<td>5,140,855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>57,576</td>
<td>2,127,332</td>
<td>4,853,833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>56,442</td>
<td>2,275,485</td>
<td>5,553,525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>54,977</td>
<td>2,109,702</td>
<td>4,219,413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>52,529</td>
<td>1,950,134</td>
<td>3,893,699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>50,469</td>
<td>1,796,913</td>
<td>3,597,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1894</td>
<td>48,309</td>
<td>1,618,724</td>
<td>3,249,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>46,378</td>
<td>1,322,154</td>
<td>2,963,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892</td>
<td>43,326</td>
<td>1,014,278</td>
<td>2,557,961</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows a steady and decided increase in the number of persons receiving old age relief, and a still more decided increase in the expenditure involved. The former increased from 4.3 to 7.0 and the latter increased from 2.6 to 3.1. The cause of the great increase in the expenditure is, therefore, the increased size of the pensions granted and this is due in turn to the increased cost of living and the higher standard of life.

In considering the great cost of the old age pensions, it must be kept in mind that the total is not an additional expense to the state, but that a large part of the sum now paid out in old age relief would have to be paid out as poor relief if the pension law were not in existence. Of this we have proof in the fact that pension law no sooner became in force than the expenditure of pauper relief decreased considerably. 1

1. Danish Poor Relief System p. 90. (E. Sellers)
The right to strike has not been prohibited in Sweden, but a measure has been enacted which is without doubt directed against the strike. Of all the legislative measures of recent years, this has received the most condemnation from the organized workingmen. Whenever a measure comes before Parliament which is not liked by the organized workingmen, it is certain that this law which is called "Akarpslagen" will be hauled into the limelight as an example of what hostile labor legislation really is. The following is a brief account of the law and its enactment.

The 25th of Feb. 1899, Parliament passed an amendment to the criminal law Chapter 15, Articles 22-24, which had as its object the punishment of such strikers as seek to restrain a fellow worker from working during a conflict. The bill when it was under discussion was opposed on the one hand by conservative judges and on the other by the organized workingmen. The former opposed the amendment because it placed on a par the attempt to commit an act and the accomplished act itself, and fixed the punishment as the same in either case. They further protested that it was inconsistent to punish an attempt to force a person in this case and not do it in other cases which were far more serious. The organized workers were opposed to the law, because it was class legislation, in that it was directed solely against the organized workers and did not apply to the employers in their treatment of employees.

The strong opposition, however, did not cause those behind the measure to swerve from their purpose. Repeated attempts to have it repealed have also failed, although by a slight majority in recent instance when the vote in the lower
...
The attitude of those backing the law can be ascertained by reading the report of the committee presenting it. This states that it is necessary to try to suppress that evil which labor unions and strike leaders cause by bringing about unnecessary strikes harmful to laborers and employers alike.

It may be added that the organized workingmen have used this law as one of their most powerful tools in agitating for suffrage reform. In this law they had a clear case to prove how laws are directed against a class which is not strongly represented in Parliament. It will be remembered that the suffrage in Sweden has been very restricted until some two years ago when the suffrage reform element finally won out. Before this reform was instituted, the workingmen were very much handicapped in that such a large percentage of their number could not vote.

That the appearance of measures hostile to labor is still possible in Sweden is shown by the following. Thus, in 1906, the administration in reply to an inquiry, stated that it was considering the presentation of a measure providing a penalty for strikes which are dangerous to the public. So far, however, nothing has come of this matter.

In 1906, a measure was presented to Parliament which provided that a person who interfered by public utterance or similar means with the free exercise of business of another be subject to a penalty. The object of the law, as it was brought out in the discussion, was to strike at the organized workingmen by seeking to curb their press. The measure was defeated by a narrow margin. In Denmark and Norway there has not been any legislation of a hostile character enacted.

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