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THE ASBESTOS WORKER

SEPTEMBER · 1926



LABOR DAY

September 6th 1926

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NEVER GIVE UP

Never give up!—it is wiser and better
Always to hope, than once to despair;
Fling off the load of doubt's cankering fetters
And break the dark spell of tyrannical care.
Never give up, or the burden may sink you—
Providence kindly has mingled the cup;
Amid all trials and troubles bethink you,
The watchword of life must be, "Never give up."

Never give up; there are chances and changes,
Helping the hopeful a hundred to one.
And through the chaos His wisdom arranges
Ever success, if you'll only hold on.
Never give up; for the wisest is boldest,
Knowing that Providence mingles the cup,
And of all maxims, the best as the oldest,
Is the stern watchword of "Never give up!"

Never give up, though the grapeshot may rattle,
Or the full thunder-cloud over you burst,
Stand like a rock, and the storm or the battle
Little shall harm you, though doing their worst,
Never give up; if adversity presses,
Providence wisely has mingled the cup;
And the best counsel in all your distresses
Is the brave watchword of "Never give up!"

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The Asbestos Worker

The Official Monthly Journal of and Published by the International Association of Heat and Frost Insulators and Asbestos Workers

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E. A. Johnson, Editor and Publisher, 66 Walker St., West Roxbury

Volume V SEPTEMBER, 1926 Number 5

THE STORY OF ASBESTOS*

Peculiarities of a Peculiar Product
Where Asbestos Comes from and Where it Goes

(*Continued from the August issue*)

THEY are encased in a cast-iron chamber, and all material reduced to about the size of a hazel nut or smaller, is taken off by air suction and falls upon a shaking screen, whence the liberated fibre is removed by a suction fan and the stony matter is shaken through the screen mesh; this is either further reduced in size and treated again in the same manner, or milled to an impalpable powder and used for plaster, cement and similar purposes. The fiberized asbestos taken up from the screens by air suction is blown into settling chambers and must now be "graded"; this being done in rotating or flat shaking screens. In most cases the fibre either passes over a series of rotating and shaking screens and endless conveyors—so-called "picking belts"—and from them the longer fibre, hidden in the rock and suitable for crude asbestos, can be taken up by hand; or barren rock can be picked out by hand to relieve the subsequent operations from grinding useless material. The residue from the screens is either reground and refiberized or finely powdered according to size and character, while the fibre is always removed by air suction.

In no other country has the mining of asbestos, and especially its preparation for the market, attained such proportions as in Canada, and the excellent quality of the Canadian asbestos, the careful and clean preparation of the fibre, and the comparative richness and accessibility of the deposits has enabled Canada to hold the lead in the production of asbestos for the past several years, but a giant asbestos warrior is arousing from his slumber in South Africa, and very high qualities of asbestos have lately come into the market from Rhodesia, Natal, the Transvaal and adjacent parts of the Dark Continent, where it is being

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found in many localities. While the total production of all grades of asbestos in Canada has probably exceeded 200,000 tons during the past year, with prices ranging from $400.00 per ton for the best grade of crude down to $5.00 per ton for the shortest fibre, the United States has produced but 3,000 tons (approximately), very little of which is chrysotile asbestos, and the amphibole, as pointed out before, is of a much cheaper grade, giving the American asbestos an average value of from $10.00 to $15.00 per ton.

Of other producing countries the most important is Russia, whose output during the last year has probably exceeded 5,000 tons of good grade material, all suitable for spinning purposes, but no statistical figures are available, showing the production of inferior grades. The Russian fibre is not nearly as silky as the Canadian; it is harsher and of a yellowish to brownish hue. The chief drawbacks in Russia are the remoteness of the deposits from the consuming centres in Europe, and the shortness of the season, lasting in the average scarcely three months. As no machinery or mechanical means are employed, the work must be rushed feverishly to attain this comparatively large output in so short a time, and the largest mine to do this is said to employ about 5,000 men, when in full operation.

The first country in which asbestos was produced was Italy, and while the chemical composition of the Italian asbestos is practically the same as that of the Canadian product; its physical properties are quite different, and the asbestos fibres from the three principal Italian localities differ one from another; their common characteristics, however, are, a grayish to brownish color, a touch somewhat similar to that of soapstone, and a comparatively rarity of good, long fibre, the occurrence of which is "pockety." The high altitudes at which workable asbestos deposits in Italy are found, the nature of the rock making mining by hand imperative, and the ever-existing danger from landslides, have greatly hampered the development of this industry and made it but little remunerative, though the extent of asbestos-bearing ground (which, however, is not commercially available), seems practically unlimited.

A very promising country for large supplies of Asbestos in the future, seems to be South Africa, this being developed during the World War, and great attention has been paid of late to the asbestos shipped from there to various European countries, as well as to the United States Much of the African fibre has most of the good qualities required; it is long, soft, pliable, but a larger percentage of it is harsher than the best Canadian; it can be separated more easily from the rock, however, and its specific gravity is lighter than that of any other asbestos. A prominent South African variety is called "crocidolite," and its most salient feature is its beautiful blue color, ranging from lavender to marine blue; even the finest fibre retains this color, while most of the other varieties of asbestos are greenish, gray, or yellow when in masses, but look white, when fiberized. This blue color is due to the large proportion of protoxide of iron present, which averages from 30 to 35 per cent. and makes the blue asbestos less desirable for electrical insulations, but its resilience makes its employment useful in the preparation of mattresses, and other bulky products.

The Transvaal, however, has recently produced some beautiful white asbestos of low iron content, and Newfoundland, New Zealand, Queensland, and South Australia seem to possess workable asbestos deposits, but so far they are undeveloped and no quantities of commercial importance have been shipped. The newest discovery is that of a pink-colored asbestos in India, which looks very beautiful, but, being of the amphibole variety, its low value forbids shipping to European or American markets and

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it is, therefore, of scarcely more than mineralogical interest.

As before mentioned, the uses of asbestos have increased enormously of late years, and it would require a special treatise to cover this mercantile phase of the subject. The application of asbestos in its various forms, varies greatly in different countries, but if one be called upon to make a general distinction between American and European practice, it can be said that America uses the shorter fibres in the manufacture of pipe and boiler coverings, as well as for plaster, cement, etc., in proportionately much larger quantities than European countries, while the latter use more crude asbestos and the longest fibres for spinning, weaving and braiding, and the long and medium fibres for the manufacture of insulating materials with admixtures of kieselguhr (infusorial earth), ground cork, felt or magnesia alba, or for stuffing and packing purposes as a rubber-asbestos combination.

The spinning and weaving of asbestos has offered many difficulties, as the asbestos fibres have no rough surface like wool or cotton, but are very smooth and thus have a tendency to slip by one another, when twisted and subjected to tension. An admixture of vegetable or animal fibre has been, therefore, often necessary, but while these facilitated the manufacturing operations, they impaired the fire-resisting qualities of the fabric, and special machinery and ingenious devices have had to be invented to accomplish the successful spinning of pure asbestos yarn; it is, however, now possible to make a single asbestos thread, which, though weighing no more than one ounce per hundred yards, has a fair strength, and braided material can be made much more resistant to torsion and tension, while asbestos ropes, chiefly used by the fire departments of our cities, can be strengthened either by interwoven wires or by having a wire-rope core. The use of asbestos for theatre curtains, fireman's and electrician's gloves and garments, partition walls, and for the isolation and insulation of certain parts of buildings or steamships, from other parts, are well-known, and large quantities of asbestos are annually used for these insulating purposes. The packing and insulation of steam pipes, boilers, refrigerators, etc., has assumed large proportions in America, especially in the form of magnesia sectional coverings, in which a proper proportion of long asbestos (10 to 15 per cent.) is used as a binder, while European practice tends to mix asbestos with a number of different ingredients, for non-heat-conducting purposes.

Large surfaces, such as may be found on boilers, furnaces, or in ice plants, are often covered with asbestos cement, which in America is mostly but a mixture of short asbestos fibre and clay, and, therefore, cracks easily, especially if subject to vibration, while in Europe infusorial earth, in itself a good insulator, replaces the clay, and cow hair, or soft felt refuse is added to give the mass a better binding quality. Although the application of asbestos cement is most simple, a paste being made by the addition of water and the mixture smeared over the surface to be insulated, a number of rather thin layers are necessary, each subsequent one being added after the preceding one has dried sufficiently, as each layer covers up and fills the cracks in the preceding layer. Recently an asbestos cement called "Ambler Asbestos Cement" has been devised and sold by the Keasbey & Mattison Company, at Ambler, Penna., U. S. A., which does not "crack" even when applied to a hot steam pipe.

In its spun state, asbestos is also used for insulation, especially in the form of wick for packing and piston rods, valves, cocks, and glands. This application is bound to increase in America with the growing use of superheated steam, as asbestos packing can scarcely be excelled in economy and reliability by other packings, most of

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which owe the best of their properties to the asbestos contained in them; but the addition of vulcanized rubber, metallic wires, and even thin metal sheets has been found to be very desirable for a number of special purposes.

Although the fire-resisting qualities of asbestos are "suggestive" for making paper for deeds and important documents, no satisfactory results have been obtained in this direction on account of the difficulties experienced in making the surface of the asbestos paper glossy and smooth, thus preventing the ink from blurring; but the manufacture of asbestos cardboard, or as it is generally called "mill-board," is quite an important outlet for the fibres. This material adapting itself readily to uneven surfaces, is used extensively for insulating pipe joints, cylinder covers, etc.; it has a very wide range of usefulness in electrical machinery, in the construction of castings, in motors, switchboards, and a great variety of other electrical appliances. In its corrugated form, asbestos paper is used and called "air-cell" covering, and enjoys a lively demand on account of its cleanliness, the ease with which it can be handled, and its great economy in use, as it can be removed quickly and used over and over again if properly handled.

A few years ago patents of Austrian and German origin were taken out in every civilized country for new processes to make roofing slates out of asbestos, for which purposes the fibre is mixed with hydraulic cement, making an adhesive mass which is then subjected to a strong hydraulic pressure. These slates or shingles can be made to resemble the natural roofing slate closely, but they are of much lighter weight than these; or they can be colored, producing very artistic and pleasing effects on roofs as well as walls of buildings, making them at the same time fire-, water-, and vermin-proof, and lessening the variations of temperature within the building to a remarkable degree. This new manufacture has assumed such proportions that many thousand tons of asbestos fibre are now used annually in the manufacture of asbestos shingles.

Asbestos paint, plaster, flooring, ceiling, and wall decorations, asbestos bricks, tiles, slabs, and even asbestos lumber, are now used largely in making buildings fireproof. Whole blocks of buildings made entirely of these asbestos materials demonstrate that hundreds of conflagrations do not impair their solidity, as the fire demonstrations at Earles' Court, London, exhibitions, or in the Vogelwiese and elsewhere, have proved. Indeed, many conflagrations in private residences have proven the great resistance to fire havoc through the saving of much property and many lives in schools and elsewhere, through the use of these asbestos materials in general construction.

During the past few years hundreds of thousands of houses have been built, having their roofs covered with hundreds of millions of asbestos shingles, these consisting of a square or rectangular piece of concrete, in reality, having a base of hydraulic cement, which is known to be indestructible, with asbestos fibre, as the binder, to hold the colloided cement particles together. This roofing has in many instances proven to be so serviceable that while the contents of the residence has been consumed by a raging fire, the roof has passed through the conflagration practically unharmed, since the asbestos fireproof shingles being unburnable, have acted as a huge fireproof blanket, and kept the roof rafters underneath this blanket often intact.

A recent case has been cited where a man smelled smoke about his house for several days, to his great alarm, but this gradually died away. About six weeks afterward, upon going into the attic, to hunt up some fishing tackle for the oncoming sporting season, he found that he had had a fire in the attic from a defective flue, and that while it charred nine of the roof rafter

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supports, the fire had finally died out, owing to the fact that as it could not burn a hole through the asbestos shingle roof, the fire smoldered out, of its own accord, and was finally extinguished because it could not burn through the roof and could not get sufficient air to support combustion, so upon this account it finally "went out" of itself.

Asbestos shingles have many commendable qualities, and while somewhat more expensive than some other permanent roofing materials, they are well worthy of intensive study, upon the part of all persons contemplating house building in the near future.

Another large use of asbestos fibre in recent years has been found in the weaving of textile tapes for use in lining the brake bands of automobiles, as these asbestos brake-band linings cannot "burn out" as other linings do when the brakes become heated, owing to sudden stops or in descending long hills. The fact that the braking surfaces of the tape of asbestos brake linings are "always on the job" should lead every automobile owner, who values his own life, and believes in "Safety First," to insist that nothing else than asbestos brake linings should ever be used upon the automobile, in which he rides, as the value of asbestos brake band lining is so great that they should be given the generic term of "Life Savers," this appellation having been long applied to the well-known safety theatre curtains made of asbestos (both made from chrysotile asbestos).

GO TO YOUR UNION MEETING

"United We Stand, Divided We Fall"

Don't say you are too tired; the weather is bad, or there is too much quibbling and "hot air" to interest me.

Every time you miss a meeting and leave it to the other fellow to look out for your interest, you are doing an injustice both to yourself and your organization.

Your views on especially vital subjects should be represented in discussion and by vote and the only way for this to be done is for you to be at your union meeting.

You are responsible for the good and welfare of your organization and non-attendance of union meetings on your part is not excuse enough for you to voice your opinion after a measure has been passed. It is then time for you to concur in what has been done and work in harmony with the officers and other members of your union.

Go to your union meetings regularly and induce others to do the same, because one important thing to remember is the meaning of this slogan:

"United We Stand, Divided We Fall."—*The Garment Worker.*

I LOOK to the trade unions as the principal means for benefiting the condition of the working classes.—*Prof. Thorold Rogers, University of Oxford.*

CAPITAL is the fruit of labor, and could not exist if labor had not first existed. Labor, therefore, deserves much the higher consideration.—*Abraham Lincoln.*

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HENRY J. OLIVER
Vice-President
1922 - 1926
Business Representative Cleveland Local No. 3

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BUILDING TRADES CAN NOW BOAST A MILLION MEMBERS

FOR the first time in the history of the construction industry, the building trades unions in the United States have a membership of more than 1,000,000, according to statistics made public by the building construction research bureau of G. L. Miller & Co., investment bond house.

"Tremendous gains made by organized labor have placed it in a more favorable position than ever before to oppose any attempt at wage reductions. Any substantial lowering of general labor costs seems unlikely for many months unless there is a serious falling off in building activity which would materially reduce the demand for labor.

"A nation-wide survey of union membership in the building industry," said the research bureau's report, "revealed that at the present time 1,027,584 building trade mechanics were actually members of labor organizations.

"This represents a gain of 69,594 new members during the last year, an increase of about 7 per cent. over their former membership—the largest gain ever recorded in any one year. The increase was made by unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, which have been making considerable progress toward organizing building mechanics.

"The building trades unions now actually control between 45 and 50 per cent. of the 2,250,000 wage earners in the construction industry, and the wages and working conditions that they have obtained are generally accepted as the basis of compensation for all building mechanics.

"Union organization of the skilled trades is most highly developed and it is estimated that approximately 70 per cent. of all the skilled craftsmen in the building industry are members of labor unions. Efforts to organize common labor, however, have not been so successful and it is estimated that less than 20 per cent. of the 625,000 unskilled workers in the industry are unionized.

"Official membership figures obtained from the various international unions showed that the 17 building trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor now have a combined membership of 997,684.

"There is in addition to these organizations, an independent union known as the United Building and Common Laborers' Union of America with a membership of 20,000, and several smaller independent unions with a combined membership estimated at not more than 10,000, making the actual total membership of organized labor in the building industry 1,027,584."

Referring to the strength of the various divisions, the report further said: "The Bricklayers' Union and plasterers organization were shown by membership figures to be the most highly organized of the building trades. These figures indicated that the bricklayers had a membership equal to about 85 per cent. of all the workers engaged in this trade, while the plasterers had succeeded in unionizing about 75 per cent. of this type of mechanics."

THE man who is quick to see through a thing isn't always as clever as the man who is quick to see a thing through.

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DR. CADMAN ON THE R. O. T. C

THE address by Dr. S. Parkes Cadman, president of the Federal Council of Churches, before the Bedford Branch of the Brooklyn Y. M. C. A., on April 18th, has occasioned some criticism because he was understood to have made a radical pacifist pronouncement. As a matter of fact, Dr. Cadman prefaced his discussion of military training in schools and colleges by saying: "Personally, I make a differentiation between wars of defense and those of aggression. Nor am I inclined to apologize for the policies followed by the fathers in 1776 and in the Civil War. We must not surrender our territory or our ideals as a nation to the brutalities of an insolent invader. But such dread contingencies are remote, and the plea that armaments are the best protection against them is quite illogical and sophisticated."

Dr. Cadman directed his criticism at the conduct of the Reserve Officers Training Camps in educational institutions on the ground that their primary purpose as defined in army regulations is "to provide systematic military training at civil educational institutions for the purpose of qualifying selected students for appointment as reserve officers in the military forces of the United States!"

On this point Dr. Cadman said: "Those who support this measure urge that past experience dictates its wisdom and necessity; that the reserve officers training corps is a substitute for a large standing army; that the training makes students better men and better citizens; that it creates in them an aversion for war; that it enables them to participate quickly in orderly mass movements. Those who oppose it, as I do, content that it ingrains in the mental and moral structure of our students the conviction that preparedness for war and war itself are normal relations of nations; encourages belief in violence as the final resort in international differences and discourages the efforts now in process to settle such differences by arbitration.

"It also unconsciously produces in schools and colleges a mental attitude inimical to the ideals of world justice and world peace for which we went into the World War. Nor does our country need such an extraordinary measure. It enjoys the enormous advantages I have mentioned of man power and economic power beyond calculation. If, nevertheless, it needs an expansion of its military forces let this be gained by other means than this act prescribes. In brief, take the War Department out of the public schools of the United States and keep it out. It is unwise and in the real sense unpatriotic to introduce in these schools the very things we denounced so bitterly in our adversaries of 1918. Making military training compulsory by college edicts, refusing academic degrees to students on any other ground than academic unfitness, creating the vicious atmosphere of vilification around those students who refuse military training as coward and poltroon is about as un-American a procedure as I know. It is entirely adverse to the spirit and the principle of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. Ex-President Eliot, Dr. John H. Finley, President Garfield, Dean Shailer Matthews, President Morgan, President Faunce and President King are typical educators who have registered their opposition to this measure. I stand with them and I believe I represent the majority of Protestant leaders on this issue. At the very least, I repeat the request, and ask you to consider it, that the War Department be taken out of the public schools of the United States of America. We have refused compulsory military training for ourselves. Why should it be forced on our sons as part of the price for their education?"

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FARMERS

WILLIAM GREEN
President of the American Federation of Labor

THE rural population of the United States constitutes approximately one-third of the entire population. The prices of commodities produced by this group have been so depressed that the owners of farm land in this country not only do not realize any returns on the value of their investments, which are considerable (whether the lands and necessary equipment are bought or inherited), but they are not even receiving a fair return for the actual labor accomplished.

The plight of the farmer is a menace to the prosperity of the entire country. Thirty-three millions of people in the United States are not able to purchase commodities produced by other workers of the country in quantities commensurate with our almost unlimited production power. As a consequence, mills, mines and factories are idle part of the time and our greatest and most remunerative market, the home market, is impaired.

During 1925 the farm population decreased by 500,000, while the population of the country as a whole had increased by some three million. That means that 500,000 more workers have been added to the industrial population.

Many farmers are still trying to manage their farms in the same way that their pioneer forefathers did. The pioneers with adventurous souls and crude tools conquered the resources of the land and worked their products under a simple market organization.

The machine has invaded the farm as well as the factory. The tractor has generally replaced the horse-plow, and when the farmer talks of horse power, he is thinking of power machinery and electricity which now does much of the farm drudgery. As rates for electric power have been lowered, the number of kilowats used in the farm house and in the field mounts proportionately.

Labor believes that ultimately the farmer must help himself through organization, through cooperation, despite the centuries of isolation that have made him an individualist. Moreover, the automobile, rural telephone and rural free delivery now bring him into touch with the rest of the world. It will take time to bring home the necessity of organization to these individualists, but this is an age of cooperative undertakings and the farmer must conform.

But there is immediate stress which affects the entire country. The lesson of the necessity of cooperation must be brought home by some visible, tangible benefit that may accrue immediately.

Realizing that the plight of the farmer is the problem of all the people of the country, a representative of the American Federation of Labor appeared before the Committee on Agriculture of the House and asked the enactment of legislation that would tend toward better remuneration for the farmers.

Labor recognizes that the potential production of this country, its almost unlimited resources, the wonderful machinizing genius of the American people which has increased tremendously the output of every man on farm or in mill or factory, requires a cultural standard of living for all.

If any one factor in our economic

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organization fails to keep its standards of living progressively advancing, the obstruction clogs the gears of the machinery which the remaining groups may have created for themselves. For these varied reasons Labor is anxious to see the farmers find aid in their problems and above all establish the agencies through which they direct their own destinies.

WHAT ORGANIZATION BRINGS

WHO are the king pins in the building labor field? An analysis made from facts shows that considering forty-nine cities, plasterers are the highest paid craft or one of the equally paid highest crafts in 40 cases. Bricklayers come a close second, being either the highest or one of the highest in 35 cases. Stone masons rank third, being one of the highest in 14 cases. Marble setters figure with the highest in seven cases; tile setters in six cases; lathers in four cases; cement finishers in three cases; plumbers in two cases; steam fitters and structural iron workers both in one case. The trowel trades have it, just as one might expect from conditions being as they are.

The highest scale wage paid is $1.75 an hour. This is the scale for plasterers in Baltimore and in Philadelphia; for bricklayers, plasterers and stone masons in New York City; and for bricklayers and plasterers in St. Louis.

INDUSTRIES GENERAL

Industries in the United States are now operating at about 84 per cent of the maximum employment capacity in thirty basic groups, this according to a survey made by the National Association of Manufacturers. This basic group comprises automobiles, agricultural implements and supplies, automobile accessories, building materials and supplies, cement and clay industries, chemicals and drugs, clothing, electric, food and food products, furniture, glass, crockery and porcelain, iron, steel, jewelry, leather, lumber, machinery, metal, paints, oils, paper and pulp, plumbers and steamfitters' supplies, rubber, stationery, printing and books, textiles, tools and hardware, toys and novelties and there is no indication of a slump.

CROP OUTLOOK

Early crop reports are encouraging. They show nature is making up rapidly for the backward spring season. From Washington comes the statement from the Department of Agriculture that the eleven corn belt states will produce a larger crop this year than 1925. Of course, this will mean moderate prices but if the farmer can sell two bushels where he had only one available heretofore his cash and purchasing power will be better off. If there are no unfavorable seasonal turns we can reasonably anticipate that the country's agricultural condition will turn out helpful to general trade.

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THE EDITOR'S PAGE

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E. A. JOHNSON - - - - *Editor*

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Affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and Building Trades Department, American Federation of Labor

JOSEPH A. MULLANEY, President
HENRY H. HOLLAND, Vice-President
E. A. JOHNSON, Vice-President
HENRY J. OLIVER, Vice-President
THOMAS J. McNAMARA, Sec'y-Treas.

The Asbestos Worker is devoted to the interests of our craft, and we earnestly solicit correspondence, but disclaim responsibility for opinions or views expressed under that heading.

All articles for the correspondence columns of The Asbestos Worker must be in the hands of the Editor not later than **the 15th** of the month preceding publication.

Address all communications to
E. A. JOHNSON, *Editor*
66 Walker Street, West Roxbury, Mass.

LABOR DAY

THE first observance of Labor Day took place in 1882 and was inaugurated by a group of union workers, banded together in the New York Central Labor Union who contended that other holidays represented the religious, civil and military spirit of the nation and that no holiday existed to mark the industrial progress and achievement of our people and nation. In 1884 the American Federation of Labor declared the first Monday in September to be Labor Day, Congress made it a legal holiday for the District of Columbia and the territories in 1894 and while a number of states have no law relating to the observance of the day, the federal act has been generally accepted.

In the years that have followed we have witnessed the incalculable benefit and value of Labor Day to organized labor and the lesson it teaches to those that are unfamiliar or indifferent to the aims and objects of the Labor movement. Labor Day furnished the outlet for demonstrations of loyalty and devotion to a just cause and stimulated the spirit of brotherhood and unity in the common life.

In recent years some communities have permitted our holiday to decline in character and the day has been used for commercialized sports and meaningless purposes. Labor Day belongs to the working people of America, it is for them to determine its value and significance, those outside of the labor movement test its strength and virility by the way in which Labor Day is observed, the test is justified by the fact that the power and good will of the labor movement consists in its appeal to the hearts and minds of the workers.

Some labor organizations have abandoned regular Labor Day demonstrations, parades, meetings and addresses in the belief that no good can be accomplished in observing the day properly, which is a most serious mistake. Labor demonstrations do pay if only through publicity and for the cause of Labor, men and women marching shoulder to shoulder typify impressively the strength and unity of the workers, observance of the day is a means of educating the public and molding opinion regarding the principles and purposes of Labor. No human movement can r[illegible] at one level, it must either increase or de-

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crease in usefulness and objects. We have the opportunity of displaying our progress annually by massing our people into a unified demonstration on Labor Day. Let us not fail in the task that is ours and that has been made possible by the sacrifices and toil of those that have gone before us. Join hands and make Labor Day each year a stronger and better day; results will be gratifying.

THE EDITOR.

CORRESPONDENCE

This journal is the vehicle through which trade news, and general activities is conveyed to our membership. It is not complete until we build up personal contact in our columns through correspondence. It is suggested that each local union appoint their Corresponding Secretary the official Press Secretary and give to him all information of interest relating to our craft. We are desirous of securing news of the trade through our own local unions. Will you help us?

PITHY PARAGRAPHS

THERE is only one real failure in life possible; and that is not to be true to the best one knows.

OPPORTUNITIES are not rare. They are all about you. What is rare is the quick brain and strong will to make use of them.

THE worst feature about losing your temper is that it fails to stay lost.

IF you always tell the truth, you don't have to remember what you said.

IT is much easier to be critical than to be correct.—*Disraeli.*

BEING good, plus doing good, is making good.

IF somebody would only pull the sled up the hill for us, life would be one long delightful slide.

IF a merchant makes a fool of himself he is a failure—when an actor does it, he is a success.

THE banker wants you to have some interest in his business.

GLORY drags all men along, low as well as high, bound captive at the wheels of her glittering car.—*Horace.*

ENTHUSIASM is that temper of the mind in which the imagination has got the better of the judgment.

THE homes of the nation are the bulwarks of personal and national safety.—*Holland.*

THERE are no great gains without pains.

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INCREASED LABOR EFFICIENCY AND PRODUCTION

The following editorial appeared recently in the Boston Post of July 23, 1926, and preaches a sermon in itself, that proves, increased wages and the best working conditions, create prosperity, contentment and a will to give the best that is in one, which prompts us to recall the industrial conditions of 1921 when reactionary employers endeavored to take advantage of the industrial depression existing at that time and reduce wages.

INCREASED LABOR EFFICIENCY

A few years ago one of the favorite topics of discussion in what might be termed capitalistic circles was the inefficiency of labor. "The war and high wages," it was said, "had spoiled the workman."

Wages today are, however, about as high as they ever were even in the war period and yet what is the effect upon labor? According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, an unbiased observer at Washington, the output per man in this country has increased so much in the last 10 years as "to constitute an industrial revolution."

Taking 1914 as a base of 100, the report shows that by 1925 the output per man in the automobile industry had increased to 300. That is, production per man in 1925 was three times as great as in 1914 in an industry which even before the war was considered highly efficient. Even in such an old established line as iron and steel the gain was 50 per cent and in paper and pulp an increase of 34 per cent was shown.

It is, of course, probable that the application of more capital in the form of labor saving machinery is partly responsible for the increased productivity. But that labor is doing its share is indicated by the almost complete lack of criticism against inefficiency these days.

When W. G. Sibley wrote the following paragraph, it was the experience of life that was the dictator, we feel sure: "All the wild ideas of unbalanced agitators the world over in their ignorant and pitiable quest for happiness through revolution, confiscation of property, and crime, cannot overthrow the eternal truth that the one route to happiness through property or government is over the broad and open highway of service. And service always means industry, thrift, respect for authority, and recognition of the rights of others."

LABOR AND PRODUCTION

EDWARD BERMAN
University of Illinois

AT the 1925 convention of the American Federation of Labor, held in Atlantic City, a resolution was unanimously adopted which placed the organization on record in favor of increased production.*

Such a resolution is a sign of the times. It gives official expression to a tendency which is becoming increasingly important in American industry, and which promises to accomplish a great change in the policies of the American labor movement. It is of course true that there is a distinction between talking about Labor's desire to increase production and translating

*NOTE. The resolution, which was proposed by Matthew Woll, chairman of the resolutions committee of the convention, contain the following:

"We hold that the best interests of wage earners as well as the whole social group are served, increasing production in quality as well as quantity and by high wage standards which assure sustained purchasing power to the workers. . . .

"We urge upon wage earners everywhere: that we oppose all wage reductions and that we urge upon management the elimination of wastes in production in order that selling prices may be lower and wages higher. To this end we recommend cooperation in the study of waste in production. . . .

"Social inequality, industrial instability and injustice must increase unless the workers' real wages, the purchasing power of their wages, . . . is advanced in proportion to man's increasing power of production." Report of the Proc. 45th Annual Convention. A. F. of L. 1925. p. 271.

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that talk into deeds. But this policy has in several important instances been put into successful operation; and the announcement of an official stand on the part of the A. F. of L. is of itself of great significance as an evidence of changing labor opinion.

The pioneers in this movement have been the powerful clothing workers' unions, which, by means of trade boards and boards of arbitration representing manufacturers and unions, have done much to maintain high standards of production in the clothing industry. These unions were followed by the railroad shopcrafts, which, after the shopmen's strike of 1922, entered into an agreement with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad which was epoch-making from the point of view of railroad labor relations. This agreement not only enlisted the sincere efforts of the shopcrafts in an endeavor to reduce costs of operation and increase efficiency, but provided that when improvements along these lines were made they should be of direct benefit to the men themselves. Still more recently similar agreements have been put into operation on the Canadian National, the Chicago and Northwestern, and the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroads.

Why is it that labor has but recently shown an active desire to increase production? Why, on the contrary, have certain sections of labor practised the policy of restricting output? What changes must occur before labor will discard its restrictive policies and generally adopt a policy of increasing production?

Mr. Horace M. Kallen, in his recent book, "Education, the Machine, and the Worker," has contributed an interpretation of trade union development which suggests some answers to these questions. Mr. Kallen believes that the functions of unionism in point of time are first combative, then police, and finally administrative. Unionism must at first be militant, since it must struggle for existence or for recognition. At this period its methods are principally fighting ones: the strike, the boycott, restriction of output, etc. After it has attained recognition and secured a trade agreement its principal task is to enforce the terms of the agreement. At this policing stage its activities are still of a combative nature, though somewhat modified. Finally, when the existence of unions has been taken for granted by employers, when there is no question about dealing with them, when trade agreements have become a commonplace, the unions are ready to take a hand in administering the industry. In the words of one labor man, they begin to realize that "the workers are the industry," and that they have as much at stake in the continued prosperity of the industry as the employers. They begin to be interested in production, in stabilizing the industry to prevent unemployment, and in similar problems.

In Mr. Kallen's view, no union can reach this last stage without leaders trained to the requirements of administrative unionism, as opposed to the more common type of union agent. One of the arguments of his book is that the proper function of the workers' education movement is to develop the necessary leadership for the new unionism. It may be that workers' education of the right kind is essential if labor as a whole is to adopt the increase of production as a working ideal. But there are evidences that American labor leadership is in some quarters quite ready at the present moment to put the newer policy into effect.

It will, however, take a great deal more than constructive leadership to arouse Labor's interest in efficiency. When it is considered that only a small proportion of American workers are organized, and that the unions to which this small proportion belong are with very few exceptions under the constant necessity of keeping up a constant struggle for recognition and the right of collective bargaining, it will be evident

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how far in the future administrative unionism lies. The greater part of union activity today is of necessity combative, a smaller part is of the policing variety, and a very minor proportion can be called administrative. When most unions find themselves constantly or intermittently compelled to fight drives for the so-called "open shop" which threaten their very existence, it is too much to expect that they will concern themselves seriously with increased production.

The answers to the questions which have been proposed will be suggested by a review of the reasons for the restrictive policies which labor has adopted. It is necessary to emphasize the fact that these policies are generally not the result of unionism. For the most part they were in existence before unions entered the field, and in many plants which have never been unionized restrictions have been common. These restrictions have usually taken one or several of the following forms: (1) refusal to work under the piece rate system of wages, (2) opposition to the introduction of labor-saving machinery, (3) restrictions as to the methods of operating machines, (4) actual limitation of effort by the setting of a "stint," or maximum output per unit of time, (5) restrictions as to the type of tools which may be used, and finally, (6) opposition to scientific management and the methods of time study and systems of wage payment which accompany it. Sometimes these restrictions are distinctly local in character, in that they may be applied only within a single locality. Sometimes they have crystallized into plant customs, as when there are definite shop stints which vary from shop to shop. Sometimes they are characteristic of a particular industry. Sometimes, as in the case of opposition to scientific management, and to a lesser degree in connection with piece rates, they become the policy of organized labor as a whole.

Probably the fear of unemployment is the principal cause of restrictions by labor. The workers are here in a position analogous to that of a combination of employers which attempts to control the output of the product in order to maintain or enhance prices. It is an analogy which appears to be obvious to the workman, though it may seem somewhat unsound to the economist. When workers are laid off in large numbers because, in the words of the employers, "There has been overproduction," the remedy which suggests itself to many laborers is restriction of output. Furthermore, every producer has learned the lesson that scarcity is a requisite of value. He knows that a decline in the supply of a commodity is likely to be followed by an increase in its price. It would be strange if workers were to base their efforts under present conditions on a principle which is the reverse of that of many of their employers. To put it tersely, many workers decline to "work themselves out of a job," and though their economics may be faulty, their models are all about them.

The second important reason for Labor's attitude is its feeling that any increased effort on its part may bring increased profit to the employer but no adequate recompense to the worker himself. Restriction of output in the form of limitation of effort and objection to piece rates has often appeared as a result of the combined practices of pace-setting and rate-cutting. In innumerable instances, after employers have set a definite rate per piece, workers have found that picked men, in return for extra compensation, have, by working fast, so increased the day's product that two results have followed. First, each workman has felt compelled to try to attain the output of the pace-setter in order to avoid discharge. Secondly, when the production of the shop as a whole has increased a... arnings of the employees at the original piece

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rate have become high, employers, on the ground that the rates had been too generous, have reduced them. The same round of pace-setting and rate-cutting has been recommenced, with consequences to health and earnings which have been obvious in certain sweated industries. Under such a system Labor's increased efforts are quite likely to be rewarded by a lower total wage. In industries in which piece rates can not be used pace-setting has been nearly as common and fully as effective in increasing the worker's effort to a degree undesirable from his point of view.

Unless the workers are members of a strongly organized union there is not the least certainty that increased effort will profit them. With all restrictions on mobility and competition removed increased product would probably mean higher wages. This ideal state, however, is a highly imaginary one. As a rule employers are the first beneficiaries of increased efficiency on the part of the workers, and unless there is a strong union or a condition of active competition in the industry the chances are that employers will be the only immediate gainers. If a single worker in a small shop, where individual supervision is possible, were to maintain increased productivity, he might be rewarded by promotion or by a higher wage. In the case of increased productivity of the working group as a whole the consequence is uncertain. Employers in modern industry do not, as a rule, pay workers what they can; they pay what they must. They are not likely to reward the working group for increased effort unless the forces of active competition or the bargaining power of a strong union compel them to do so. (There is no intention here to overlook the fact that, in the long run, under competition, increased efficiency is likely to reduce prices and therefore to increase real wages. Workers, however, are of all economic groups the ones who are least able to shape their actions according to long run considerations. Their need of getting more now seems of much greater consequence to them than the possibility of an increased income for society in the future.)

Payment by the piece has usually been considered by employers to be identical with payment by reward. If John Smith, who turns out 100 pieces a day, is paid four dollars, while Tom Jones, who produces 75 pieces, gets three dollars, employers seem to think justice is done. It does not follow, however, that the two men are paid in accordance with their merit. Smith may, in this case, deserve one-third more than Jones, but it may be that both Smith and Jones are paid too little or too much. Exactly what the piece rate should be if payment is to accord with justice is an insoluble problem. The same thing may be said of scientific management, with its claim to have removed the subject of wage rates from the sphere of uncertainty and bargaining into that of scientific exactness. Because piece wage systems and scientific management have in the past been favorite devices of anti-union employers, and because they have this deceptive appearance of justice, labor opposition to them is easily understood.

Underlying the causes of restriction already discussed, namely, the fear of unemployment, and the belief that there is no certainty of recompense for increased productivity, is the traditional antagonism between workers and employers. Workers have felt that the employer is concerned with them only as means to an end. Their function is to help him make profits. Since profits may be high if costs are low, the employer desires to procure his labor at the lowest possible wage. At the same time he wants to get as much work out of them as he can. From unpleasant experience they know that as soon as their employment ceases to bring profits they are likely to be discharged. Since the employer does not worry about their well-being why

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should they worry about his profits? If he follows the practise of buying cheap and selling dear why should they reverse the policy and give him a valuable product for a low wage? Such an attitude is natural for a class conscious worker.

The problem is aggravated by the fact that in many lines the rate of work can not be defined with accuracy. It may be that the employer pays for a "fair day's work." Who, however, shall be the judge of a "fair day's work"? In machine industry the pace is set by the ones who gear the machines, that is, by the management, which thus enforces its own conception of a "fair day's work." But in the case of manual labor of all sorts, in the building trades, and in many other lines of skilled work the case is quite different. A "fair day's work" here is such an indefinite quantity that it would be very difficult to reconcile the ideas of employer and men with regard to it. If the employer gets along amicably with his workers and treats them civilly their notion of a "fair day's work" may be nearly the same as his. If he is difficult to get along with, if they feel he is unfair, if he is in constant trouble with the union, or if his foremen are "slave-drivers," complaint about restriction of output will be ever present.

This brief survey suggests the changes which must be made if American labor is to discard the policy of restriction of output and concern itself on an extensive scale with efforts to increase production. The first requisite is a combined assault on the problem of unemployment. This problem is being attacked from all sides, and though particular industries and plants are making some progress there is not likely to be any complete solution as long as we have business cycles. This limited progress of particular industries is nevertheless important. If the unions can influence the employers in an industry to guarantee that the workers will either get work for forty weeks or more in each year, or will receive an unemployment benefit that will compensate them for that portion of the period during which work can not be provided, one of the principal reasons for the restriction of output will be removed. Such a solution has proved feasible in various centers of the clothing industry.

The restriction which is due to pace-setting and rate-cutting may be avoided when the industry is so organized that piece wages are set through collective bargaining and the union is strong enough to prevent the unjustifiable lowering of rates. To induce workers to interest themselves in increased production something further is necessary. They must feel that the union can obtain for them the reward which their increased effort deserves. This can not be accomplished satisfactorily if the subject is left to the adjudication of ordinary bargaining. Though the exactly just wage can never be determined some scientific approach to it is possible. For this purpose industrial engineers representing the management and the union respectively should have charge of determining the following factors: (1) the amount of work which may reasonably be expected from a worker within a given period, (2) the rate per hour, per day, or per week, if the work requires time payment, (3) the rate per piece where that method is the best, (4) the increase in remuneration which is due to the workers for improvements in methods and productivity for which they are responsible. Each of these factors must inevitably be the subject of bargaining, but bargaining under such conditions is put upon a basis that approaches justice. To a limited extent this policy has been put into effect in the clothing industry. The underlying principles of union-management cooperation on the railways are of a similar nature. Operating in conjunction with the adjustment machinery of boards and committees similar to those existing in these industries, this

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policy would have every likelihood of stimulating the workers' desire to increase production.

If labor, by the widespread application of the foregoing methods, can be brought to feel that it has a personal interest in the continued welfare of the industry, the class antagonisms which have in the past proved such a fertile field for the development of restriction of output may give way to a desire for constructive cooperation which will promote production. Even though workers' education should develop unionists ready to carry on administrative functions, the application of a policy of increased production on a large scale can not be expected until unions meet with sufficient recognition from employers to enable unionists to submerge their militant habits and to develop the constructive arts of industrial cooperation.

OFFICIAL MATTERS

REGARDING THE MAILING LIST

Every member of our International Association in good standing, is entitled to and should receive a monthly copy of "The Asbestos Worker". The Editor mails copies to all names and addresses of members furnished him by Local Union Secretaries. The following Local Union Secretaries have not as yet furnished us with a list of their membership: Locals No. 5, 21, 22, 25, 30, 31, 34, 36, 42, 45, 50, 52, 64, 70, 71.

SEMI-ANNUAL MEETING OF THE GENERAL EXECUTIVE BOARD

The General Executive Board will hold its Semi-Annual Meeting at the Benjamin Franklin Hotel, Ninth and Chestnut Streets, Philadelphia, Pa. It will open its Sessions on Monday, September 13th, at 9:00 A. M. Morning and Afternoon Sessions will be held thereafter until all business is transacted. All notices of appearance, communications, appeals, documents, etc., should be in the hands of the Secretary at the General Office, St. Louis, Mo., no later than September 10th in order that the Board's Schedule may be arranged before the opening Session.

JOSEPH A. MULLANEY,
General President.

THOMAS J. McNAMARA,
Secretary.

RESULT OF THE DRAWING

August 2, 1926.

Dear Members:

We beg to report that outcome of drawing held by Local 18 in behalf of Brother Frank Mundell, who was injured some time ago, resulted in Joseph Cummins of Boston Local No. 6 being declared the winner; number 964 was the lucky number.

Yours fraternally,

JOHN GROB, Jr., *Secy.* Local No. 18

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EVERY BIT A MAN

HARRY LANG.

MONDAY, June 7, multitudes of homes of the immigrant laboring masses of the metropolitan city of New York were shocked by streaming headlines of newspapers telling of the sudden death of a man. He was struck by an automobile on one of the crowded streets of the Ghetto. He died. Wednesday, June 9, thousands upon thousands of men, women and children, almost a million, built the funeral procession of that man. Practically every street of the great quarter of immigrant life in New York was in heartfelt mourning. New York's East Side wept.

It was a Jewish laborite who met the tragical death, a Jewish socialist; yet all classes of Jews, as well as of sons and daughters of other nationalities jammed the sidewalks, in like manner packed the windows of the tenement houses, their fire escapes, doorways, and stairways, paying tribute, in a solid mass, to the man who has calamitously gone.

A striking pageant of sorrow it was; a variety of ages, nationalities, religions and social position. Wage earners on strike left their picket lines. Merchants shut down their business establishments. In the doorways of synagogues bearded rabbis stood amid mourners chanting the funeral dirge. Headed by mounted policemen, with several hundreds of police officers maintaining order and halting traffic, a moving and sobbing humanity, heads bowed down and hearts laden with grief, escorted the bier.

It incased a remarkable man, an unusual personality.

He was Meyer London, who for almost four decades has been preaching to the masses of immigrant workers the gospel of freedom, as well as of organization and constructive action; and who for three terms served the masses in the House of Representatives, personifying the best and the soundest, as well as the most idealistic that New York's party politics could produce.

However, that alone may not tell of what Meyer London really was and did. Neither may he be characterized by terms befitting politicians. He was high above party politics, especially with a suggestion of intrigue. He was one of the galaxy of brilliant leaders, orators, and writers who modernized the Ghetto; among them he occupied a place of his own, unique by his untamed readiness totally to sacrifice himself for the cause of Labor.

Meyer London was certainly known far beyond the gates of the Ghetto. While in Congress he was a passionately devoted student of America's industry; he was a most loyal comrade of the legislative committees of the American labor movement; he was a true pal of the late Samuel Gompers; he derived popularity in many a circle of Labor's thought and Labor's battlefield across the States. For the East Side, however, he was one of its foremost champions. He was a pioneer. He was a pathfinder. He led the East Side to the great spirits of America —to its romantic history, as well as to its manifold beauteousness of today. As to the needle trades' workers, the bulk of the citizenry of the Jewish and Italian immigrant quarters of New York, he was their liberator in the truest sense of the word. He was their Lincoln.

Professionally an attorney, intellectually of high esteem, [illegible] ver made use of his abilities, neither of his

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qualities, for personal comfort. He typified the idealistic physician who hastens to the rescue of the sick of the poor first, in addition, leaving under the pillow of patient a handful of silver for the prescribed medicine. The fee for legal services Meyer London received from the unions of cloak makers he, quite often, gave for the movements to build organizations of furriers, and vice versa. Often, after he successfully carried through a big labor case in court, and the labor organization involved had sent him a resolution of appreciation together with a check for his services, he returned the greater part of the amount reprimanding the organization for paying out high counsel fee. He was one of the first organizers of the needle trade unions; an indefatigable worker in their offices, as well as on their picket lines; at their meetings, the speaker of utter frankness radiating sincerity; at their consultations, the hammerer of iron-clad, shock-proof faith. A crusader for their right to be organized, he was; as well as their executive in connection with the functioning of the first collective agreements achieved.

And he was more than that.

He was the charming soul of a generation of intellectuals born in the shadows of the terrorized ghetto of old Russia and raised under the free skies of America. In him there was the combination of characteristics of the tireless studying philosopher, of the unceasingly dreaming poet, as well as of the man of constantly practical deeds.

In the year of 1891, he came to the United States. He was a youth of twenty years of age. The history of immigrant life in the United States specifies that period as the epoch of "The new immigration." The Jewish immigrants of that time were a part of the "surplus population which Europe poured into the vast spaces of America, and whose function it became to accelerate the industrial revolution which had been let loose during the Civil War." Nevertheless, it was also an epoch of "new immigration" because of the new type of the immigrants. The coming of these immigrants from Russia, Poland, Rumania and Austria, was in a measure related to special political and social conditions in those countries — religious persecution, educational restriction, political discrimination, pograms and massacres. Those immigrants, composed of three economic and social groups: workers and artisans, dealers and commission merchants, and persons interested in intellectual pursuits, despite their differences, had much in common. They came from small towns where the Jews had lived isolated, and in their isolation had created a community life, as well as a culture of their own; they arrived at the shores of this land looking forward to emancipation. While the bulk of those immigrant masses was animated in the main by economic motives, the intellectuals came largely for idealistic considerations, the winds of the seas carried the hopes and the dreams of all of those wanderers. The fascination of America lay in the belief that it was a "land of gold," as well as a land of equality. However, all stepped on a foreign soil; an alien sky looking down. Most of them came withal penniless, falling into a condition of misery and submissiveness. The sweat shop became the source of their economic life; their living place, the dismal tenement house.

At that time many a drama moved and reeled upon the scene of the East Side. Two East Sides began battling for supremacy — the East Side that was rich in splendid groups of idealists and aglow with enthusiasm, for a higher life, and the East Side of the sweat contractors aided by vice, political corruption, and powers of darkness in many a form. It was when the youth Meyer London had arisen to a matured man, passed the bar after studying law while struggling for a living in cigar factories

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and printing shops, and without intermediary came to the front as a leader of the idealists.

When the historian tells the story of Russian-Jewish immigration in the United States and composes the epic of the East Side, it will be an inspiring tale. It will be a dramatic narrative of numerous forces that eloquently Americanized the Yiddish-speaking people with its roots in many a land. To singularize those forces, as an illustrative case, it will be the romantic plot of the Jewish *Daily Forward,* the cooperatively owned organ of the idealistic forces among the Jewish workingmen that arouses wonderment in American journalism, and which is headed by the celebrated Abraham Cahan, novelist, critic and leader of thought. It will be the tale of the gigantic rise of the Jewish people in America. The name of the lamented Meyer London will certainly loom high on the pages when this epic is written. Every turn of the Jewish masses of America towards an ideal life aspired by the high aims of the labor movement, the world over, had London's heartbeats.

He has gone now; tragically, by a brutal, senseless accident his life was snuffed out; he will not be forgotten.

He came; he toiled; he succeeded; he died — almost penniless. But the heritage he left is rich. It is the great cultural life of the Jews in America, of which he was a tireless builder. It is the attitude of sacredness that immigrant Jewish workers have towards the labor movement for which his poetical orations are greatly responsible. His is an indelible memory. He was every bit a man.

The American Federationist

Official Magazine of the American Federation of Labor

WILLIAM GREEN, Editor

$2.00 a year **20 cents a copy**

¶ Every worker should be a constant reader of the AMERICAN FEDERATIONIST. The AMERICAN FEDERATIONIST is one of the educational agencies through which the Federation presents discussions of its fundamental principles, its policies and the application of these to the varied problems of the life of the worker.

¶ The magazine is necessary also to those who wish to understand labor which is an important force in the development of public policy.

¶ If you can not obtain it through your news stand, send subscription price to Secretary Frank Morrison, A. F. of L. Building, Washington, D. C.

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No. 1—ST. LOUIS, MO.—Meets First and Third Tuesday at 3969 Maffitt Avenue. Gus Schmitters, 4150 West Penrose St., Office, 803 Holland Building.

No. 2—PITTSBURG, PA.—Meets First and Third Thursdays, at McGeagh Bldg., 607 Webster Avenue. H. L. Klinger, 5624 Broad St., E. E.

No. 3—CLEVELAND, OHIO—Meets First and Third Tuesdays at 1355 Central Avenue. General Office, 1355 Central Avenue. Henry Oliver, 1371 West 89th Street.

No. 4—BUFFALO, N. Y.—Meets Second and Fourth Wednesdays at 48 West Eagle Street. L. Lines, 12 Olcott Place, Pine Hill, Buffalo, N. Y.

No. 5—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at Labor Temple, 540 Maple Avenue. C. F. Bird, 1435 West 50th Street.

No. 6—BOSTON, MASS.—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at 3 Boylston Place. Oscar W. Palm, 386 Harrison Avenue. Office, 386 Harrison Avenue.

No. 7—SEATTLE, WASH.—Meets Second and Fourth Tuesdays at Labor Temple, 6th Avenue and University Street. T. E. Roe, 3815 West Myrtle Street. Send all mail to Labor Temple.

No. 8—CINCINNATI, OHIO—Meets First and Third Tuesdays at 1313 Vine Street. Charles Thomas, 633 Park Avenue, Newport, Ky.

No. 9—NORFOLK and PORTSMOUTH, VA.—Meets First and Third Tuesdays at Eagles Home, 703 Const Street, Portsmouth, Va. L. C. Green, 2212 High Street, Portsmouth, Va.

No. 10—NEW ORLEANS, LA.—Meets Second and Fourth Mondays at Benevolent Knights of America Building, 827 North Street. E. B. McGinnis, 3121 Chippewa Street.

No. 11—BALTIMORE, MD.—Meets Second and Fourth Tuesdays, Third Floor Gaiety Theatre, 419 E. Baltimore Street. S. Mohsberg, 225 North Monroe Street.

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No. 12—NEW YORK CITY, N. Y.—Meets every Thursday at 230 East 58th Street. John F. Lalor, 230 East 58th Street. Office, 230 East 58th Street.

No. 14—PHILADELPHIA, PA.—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at Electricians' Hall, 1807 Spring Garden Street. James R. Mellon, 217 Hampshire Avenue, Audubon, N. J. Office, 1807 Spring Garden Street, Philadelphia.

No. 16—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at Building Trades Temple, 14 Guerrero Street. Edward A. Dwyer, 526 Ashbury Street.

No. 17—CHICAGO, ILL.—Meets First and Third Tuesdays, at Fraternity Hall, 19 West Adams St. Arthur G. Anderson, 2744 North Albany Avenue. Office, Roosevelt Building, 179 West Washington Street, Room 506.

No. 18—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.—Meets Second and Fourth Thursdays at Plumbers' Hall, 312 East Washington Street. John Grob, Jr., 817 N. Hamilton Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.

No. 19—MILWAUKEE, WIS.—Meets First and Third Fridays at 808 Walnut Street. William Sellman, 1268 30th Street, Milwaukee, Wis.

No. 20—TORONTO, CANADA—Meets Second and Fourth Fridays at Labor Temple. J. Cullen, 16 Otter Avenue, Toronto, 2, Ont.

No 21—DALLAS, TEXAS—Meets Second and Fourth Tuesdays at Labor Temple. I. L. Coates, Route 2, Box 1055. Office 213 West 8th Dalbs.

No. 22—HOUSTON, TEXAS—Meets Second Wednesdays, Houston Labor Temple. A. C. Pasche, 707 Teetshorn Street.

No. 23—MONTREAL, CANADA—Meets First and Third Mondays at 417 Ontario Street, East. A. Padghan, 792 Evelyn Street, Verdun, Quebec.

No. 24—WASHINGTON, D. C.—Meets Second and Fourth Mondays at Trades Unionist Building, 720 5th Street, N. W. W. E. Grant, 1222 New Jersey Avenue, N. W.

No. 25—DETROIT, MICH.—Meets First and Third Mondays at Labor Temple, 274 High Street, East. Frank McElroy, 1032 1st Street.

No. 26—ROCHESTER, N. Y.—Meets Second and Fourth Wednesdays at Carpenter's Hall, 113 W. Fitzhugh Street. Elmer J. Schleifer, 85 Turpin Street.

No. 27—KANSAS CITY, MO.—Meets Second and Fourth Wednesdays at Labor Temple. J. H. Thompson, 7036 Montgall Avenue.

No. 28—DENVER, COL.—Meets First and Third Mondays at Room 301, American Bank Building. J. A. Ahlstrom, 3625 Stuart Street.

No. 30—SYRACUSE, N. Y.—Meets First Sunday at Labor Temple. Charles Van Camp, 517 Carkon Street.

No. 31—PROVIDENCE, R. I.—Meets Third Wednesdays at 71 Richmond Street. Leroy Beales, 121 Cedar Avenue, Riverside, R. I.

No. 32—NEWARK, N. J.—Meets First and Third Mondays at Union Labor Hall, 81 Academy Street, Newark, N. J. Edwin J. Dougherty, 245 N. 4th Street, Newark, N. J.

No. 33—CONNECTICUT—Meets First Saturday at Trades Council Hall, Meriden, Conn. Charles R. Soelch, 30 Baldwi[illegible]eet, New Haven, Conn. C. W. Sickels, 16 Notkin Street, New Haven, Conn., Business Representative.

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No. 34—MINNEAPOLIS and ST. PAUL, MINN.—Meets Second and Fourth Wednesdays at 601 4th Avenue, South. Fred H. Berkhahn, 3301 Cedar Avenue.

No. 35—YOUNGSTOWN, OHIO—Meets First and Third Thursdays at Labor Hall, S. Hazel Street. E. D. Swan, Box 83, W. S. S.

No. 36—PORTLAND, ORE.—Meets First and Third Thursdays at Labor Temple. C. H. Roland, 1424 Macadam Street, Portland, Ore.

No. 38—WILKESBARRE, PA.—Meets Second and Fourth Mondays at Labor Temple, 41 East Market Street. S. G. Zeigler, 48 South Main Street.

No. 39—OMAHA, NEB.—Meets Second and Fourth Wednesdays at Labor Temple, 19th and Davenport Streets. J. H. Portwangler, 3670 Paxton Blvd.

No. 40—ALBANY and TROY, N. Y.—Meets First and Third Saturdays at 96 Grand Street, Albany, N. Y. J. Wickersheim, 96 Grand Street.

No. 42—WILMINGTON, DEL.—Meets Second and Fourth Mondays at Labor Temple. Harry E. Mahan, 9th West Avenue, Holloway Terrace, New Castle, Del. William B. Davis, R. D. No. 1, Box 104, New Castle, Del.

No. 43—SPRINGFIELD, MASS.—Meets Second Tuesday at Labor Hall, 21 Sanford Street. C. R. Johnson, 141 Lincoln Road, Longmeadow, Mass.

No. 44—COLUMBUS OHIO.—Meets First and Third Fridays at 50½ West Gay Street. George E. Neil, 73 Guilford Avenue.

No. 45—TOLEDO, OHIO—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at Labor Temple. Al. Baumgartner, 2328 Avondale Avenue.

No. 50—TACOMA, WASH.—Meets First and Third Thursdays at Eagle Hall, 13th and East Street. Z. L. Wade, P. O. Box 1361.

No. 51—LOUISVILLE, KY.—Meets First and Third Fridays at Union Labor Temple, 2nd and Market Streets. George H. Dreher, 646 North 23rd Street.

No. 52—DULUTH, MINN.—Meets First and Third Wednesdays at 22 East 1st Street. Joseph Jentoft, 2332 West 3rd Street.

No. 64—TULSA, OKLA.—Meets First and Third Sundays at Carpenters' Hall 5th and Cincinnati Streets. George E. Kopp, General Delivery.

No. 70—MARE ISLAND SHIP YARD, VALLEJO, CALIF.—Meets Fourth Tuesday, Labor Temple. Frank Carver, 123 Florida Street.

No. 71—SACRAMENTO, CALIF.—Meets First and Third Tuesdays at Labor Temple, 8th Eye Street. M. H. McDonnell, Box 1056.

No. 72—BREMERTON, WASH., NAVY YARD—Meets Third Wednesday at Labor Temple, 440 Burwell Street. L. W. Brewster, P. O. Box 566, Bremerton, Wash.

No. 73—PORTLAND, ME.—Meets Fourth Wednesday at 9 C Street South, Portland, Me. Paul G. Honstvet, 850½ Middle Street, Bath, Me.

No. 74—DES MOINES, IA.—Meets Second and Fourth Tuesdays at Labor Temple, 106 6th Avenue. William Wood 1605 Walnut Street.

No. 75—SOUTH BEND, IND.—Meets First and Third Mondays at 124 North Main Street. John Hermeling, 503 West La Salle Street.

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