International Trade Union Congress in London.

THE first Special International Trade Union Congress was held in London from November 22nd to November 27th, 1920.

The National Trade Union Federations of Europe, joined in 1909 by the American Federation of Labor, had held regular conferences since 1901 for the purpose of discussing questions relating to matters of organisation and of Trade Unionism only. Two representatives of each national federation were admitted to these congresses. The International Secretariat at Berlin was at the head of the entire organisation and was primarily an office for the interchange of information and for the compilation of reports and statistics. It was decided in 1913 to replace this somewhat loose organisation by an International Federation of Trade Unions with a constitution and a staff of its own. All further development, however, was arrested by the war. During the war, the Dutch national centre served as intermediary between the Trade Unions of the various countries.

A new International Trade Union Conference was held at Amsterdam in August, 1919, attended by practically all the representatives of the pre-war members of the organisation. The International Federation of Trade Unions was reconstructed on broader lines and the seat of the Federation moved to Amsterdam. The execution of more important tasks was rendered possible by a considerable increase in the affiliation fees and by the permanent appointment of several members of the Committee. Of recent years, Trade Unions of all countries have developed greatly and a very rapid increase in their numbers has taken place. Whereas in the past they had scrupulously, and especially on the occasion of International Congresses, excluded from their debates all subjects not directly connected with Trade Unionism, they now display an ever-increasing interest in all questions liable to affect the position of the Trade Unions and even in questions of a strictly political nature. This development has brought them face to face with new and overwhelming problems, the solution of which is far more dependent on co-operation with the organisations of other countries than was the realization of purely Trade Unionist ideals. For these reasons, a special conference was convened for the discussion of the more urgent questions of the day; it is

anticipated that the ordinary congress convened for the autumn of 1921 will devote itself almost exclusively to matters of organisation.

Constitution of the Congress: Agenda.

The special congress was attended by ninety-five delegates from seventeen countries, representing a total of 25,606,000 organised workers, divided as follows:—

Country	*No. of Members*	*Delegates.*
England		
Trades Union Congr. Parl. C'ee. .	6,500,000	7
General Fed. of Trade Unions. . .	1,500,000	3
Germany	8,500,000	12
France	1,500,000	13
Belgium	700,000	9
Denmark	300,000	5
Norway	150,000	5
Sweden	281,000	4
Holland	240,000	8
Italy	2,300,000	5
Austria	800,000	3
Czecho-Slovakia	750,000	4
Hungary	215,000	2
Switzerland	225,000	1
Luxembourg	27,000	2
Spain	250,000	2
Poland		
Komisja Centralna Zuraskow Zawodowych	334,000	3
Zjednoczenie Zawodowe Polskis . .	774,000	6

The representatives of the following eighteen international trade secretariats attended the congress. They represented the International Associations of Post and Telegraph Workers, Textile Workers, Miners, Transport Workers, Wood Workers, Commercial and Clerical Employees, Clothing Workers, Agricultural Workers, Bookbinders, Typographical Workers, Hotel Employees, Metal Workers, Diamond Workers, Lithographers, Painters, Leather Workers, Factory Workers, and Building Workers. Other guests of the congress were Mr. Albert Thomas, Director of the International Labour Office; two delegates from the German Trade Unions in Czecho-Slovakia; and one delegate of the German A. F. A., (Association of Salaried Employees federated with the Free Trade Unions).

The Agenda included the following subjects :—

(1) The International Situation and the Position of the International Trade Union Movement.
(2) Distribution of Raw Materials for Industrial Purposes.
(3) Rates of Exchange.
(4) Socialization of the Means of Production.
(5) Report of the Delegation of the International Federation of Trade Unions to the Ruhr Basin.

The Speech of the President.

The Congress was opened by the Vice-President, Mr. L. Jouhaux (France), who took the chair in the absence of Mr. W. A. Appleton, who had resigned from the Presidency of the Federation. His speech contained an appeal to the solidarity of workers in all countries, bidding them unite against the re-awakened forces of reaction. Only in this manner would it be possible to forget the past and to commence the reconstruction of the world, on the basis of universal labour.

"The International Federation of Trade Unions, which expresses the wishes and aspirations of the working classes of all countries, must oppose the serried ranks of labour, united in one sole hope of resistance to oppression and of freedom from servitude, to the arrogance and aggression of world-reaction.

"Here in Europe it is our duty to silence the clamour of militarism, to triumph over the desires of reaction, to defend and extend the liberty of the workman, acquired by so many bitter struggles, to preserve from every attempt to destroy them those rights of organisation and collaboration which are the principles essential to all social progress. It is our duty to the world to answer the cries of those of our brothers who are even more exploited than ourselves, and who demand an end to the slavery in which they have been maintained contrary to the most elementary principles of humanity and for the exclusive benefit of the individuals and capitalists who provoked the war.

"We must repeat that the world can only be reconstructed on an entirely new basis : the solidarity and co-operation of the nations cannot be effected except by the abolition of capitalistic privileges and the handing over to a collectivist State of all wealth and of the means for its production.

"The present universal need for intensified production should only be met in order to respond to general interest. The new economic system must be based on the suppression of armaments, on the international distribution of raw materials, on the socialization of the means of transport and of production."

In accordance with precedent, Mr J. H. Thomas, M. P., Parliamentary General Secretary of the British National

Union of Railwaymen, was nominated President by the British delegates (*i. e.* by the delegation of the country in which the conference was held).

Mr. J. H. Thomas extended a warm welcome not only to the representatives of former Allies and of neutrals, but also to the representatives of those with whom they were engaged in a life and death struggle only a short time ago. He expressed the hope that the events of the past six years might be forgotten as soon as possible, for the war had brought in its train misery and suffering to the victor as well as to the vanquished, and a lasting peace could only be achieved by an international organisation of the workers.

He then protested vigorously against the adjective "yellow" applied to the Trade Unions and their leaders. This accusation could only emanate from persons who believed that a bloody revolution alone would alter existing social conditions, whilst he and his friends were of opinion that the necessary reforms could be accomplished by other means.

The absence of the American Federation of Labor from the congress gave rise to much comment. The International Bureau had stated, in answer to enquiries, that relations with the American Federation had been very strained for over a year, and that it had been ascertained, through the medium of the Press, that the Americans had abstained from attending because they considered the tendency of the congress to be a revolutionary one. The hope was repeatedly expressed for the renewal of friendly and permanent relations with the American comrades.

The International Situation.

Mr. E. Fimmen, the International Secretary, gave a graphic description of the position of Trade Unions in various countries. He drew a vivid picture of the difficulties encountered by the workers' organisations in many countries, and dwelt upon the adverse conditions prevalent in Hungary and Finland, where the workers had overestimated their powers and met with reverses entailing the most disastrous consequences.

No real right of freedom of association exists in Spain, Greece, and Yugo-Slavia, and opposition to Trade Unions is being manifested even in France, England, and America.

Mr. Fimmen expressed his regret that the Governments which had raised so many hopes among the working classes by the famous Part XIII of the Peace Treaty have delayed so long in giving realization to these hopes.

The reforms outlined by the International Labour Organisation at its first conference at Washington (for instance with regard to the application of the eight hour day), had at present only been given effect to in those countries where the workers resorted to "direct action", whilst in other

countries opposition to any improvement in labour conditions was still strong. This explained the increasing distrust among the Trade Unions of the promises of Governments. A spirited international struggle was necessary against the powers of reaction. This struggle should be primarily directed against militarism and should be carried on by means of general strikes and international boycotts, whereby the war against war and the struggle for the reconstruction of social conditions would be brought to a triumphant finish.

At the same time, however, it was necessary to repudiate the attacks of the Bolshevist leaders; the International Federation of Trade Unions had proved their solidarity with the workers in Hungary and Russia, and it was to be hoped that the Russian Trade Unions would soon take their rightful place in the world federation of labour.

With the exception of the Canadian delegates, who made certain reservations, all the speakers expressed great satisfaction with the activity of the Trade Union International. The German speaker assured the congress that no return to the pre-war reign of militarism would be permitted in Germany.

A resolution on the international situation and the position of the international Trade Union movement in regard thereto was then put to the conference, where it was carried by 21,906,000 votes to 2,710,000 votes. The minority represented the views of the Canadian, Italian, and Norwegian opponents

The Eight Hour Day.

The following resolutions on the eight-hour day were accepted after a brief discussion and after the defeat of a proposal put forward by Norway, Italy, Luxembourg, Canada, and France, — a proposal which was inspired by very diverse views — to strike out of the Resolution the suggested challenge to the International Labour Office.

"That this Special International Trades Union Congress, assembled in London on 22nd November and following days, notes that at the International Labour Conference held at Washington a draft agreement was adopted in which the principles were outlined for the application of the 8-hours working day and 48-hours working week to industrial establishments.

"Furthermore, that the Labour Statutes of certain states already conform with the decisions of the Washington Commission. In most countries, however, the employers and governments not only attempt to obstruct ratification of the convention, but also endeavour to re-impose longer hours of labour where the 48-hours working week has been introduced.

"This International Trade Union Congress raises an emphatic protest against the hostile attitude to Labour on the part of both employers and their governments, and demands the full recognition and enforcement of the Washington decisions.

"This International Trade Union Congress imposes the obligation on all affiliated organisations to frustrate with all available means the attempts to shelve the convention of Washington; it therefore demands the constant support of all sections in the inevitable struggle for the eight-hours working day.

"This International Trade Union Congress refuses to lend further Trade Union support to the efforts of the International Labour Office if the ratification of the decisions made at Washington is not effected within the period already fixed."

Finally, a report was submitted to the conference from the Trade Unions of the Ural district. This report stated that no free Trade Unions existed in Russia at the present moment, as all the unions of that country had been transformed into Government organisations. The Russian Trade Unions would certainly join the International Federation as soon as they had regained their former freedom.

A resolution on pacifism proposed by the Bureau was unanimously adopted. This resolution repudiates the pacifism of the capitalist bourgeoisie and condemns "all belligerent measures taken with the object of imposing new political or economic conditions upon the nations against their will"

Distribution of Raw Materials.

The Secretary of the Belgian Federation of Trade Unions (Mr. Mertens) submitted a long report on this question, in which he stated that the solution of the problem depended on the economic solidarity of all nations. In view of the international situation, those nations which were rich in raw material should come to the immediate assistance of all the other countries, and it should be adopted as a basic principle that natural resources must not be considered as the possession of individual nations, but as the property of the community at large.

Even now the worst of the present economic evils could be obviated by forming an organisation within the League of Nations, entrusted with the equitable distribution of raw materials according to the needs of the various nations. The Bureau of the International Federation of Trade Unions should draft a plan for the formation of such an Office, and submit this plan to the International Labour Office at Geneva for immediate execution. At the same time, he urged that all nations should be eligible to adhere to the League of Nations.

Arising out of the reference to the International Labour Office and the League of Nations, the resolution was violently attacked by the Swiss, Norwegian, and Italian delegates. These delegates repudiated the League of Nations and all its de endent institutions, whilst the Canadian delegate considered th resolution in the light of an unjustifiable interference with th sovereign right of every nation to dispose of its own na ural resources.

The resolution was adopted in spite of this opposition, and it was thus declared, as the opinion of the overwhelming majority of the congress, that the necessary trust should be placed in the League of Nations and the International Labour Office, but that at the same time decisive steps towards the realization of their programme were expected.

Rates of Exchange

According to a detailed written and verbal report by Mr. L. Jouhaux (France), the present position of the rate of exchange was exercising a devastating influence on the countries with a high rate of exchange as well as on those countries where the rate of exchange was low. A marked improvement in this case would also depend on the practical solidarity of all nations. It was, therefore, resolved to demand the general annulment of all the international debts resulting from the war ; further, that a reduction be made in the abnormal circulation of currency by suppressing all superfluous expenditure, especially in connection with armaments. Special emphasis was laid on the resolution to float an international loan under the control of the League of Nations, and to place the revenue thus obtained at the disposal of the nations in need of money for purposes of reconstruction.

This resolution was also opposed by the principal opponents of the League, though its underlying principle was supported in this case by the Norwegian, Italian, and Canadian votes, whilst the clause respecting the abolition of war indemnities was opposed by the Belgian delegates. The English delegates abstained from voting on this matter.

Socialization.

The most important item on the agenda of the conference was the socialization of the means of production, a problem of ever-increasing importance for many European nations. On this subject Mr. Oudegeest (the International Secretary) supplemented his written report by a verbal statement. He drew attention to the fact that the resolution to place the more important means of production in the possession of the community was demanded by other groups as well. Even the Christian Unions insistently demanded the realization

of this aim. Even their members no longer consented to place enormous profits in the hands of private individuals, whilst the majority of the population, and even the Government itself, was in need of funds. The universal demand for greater intensity of production, and even for the greater output of each worker, could only be realized if the working classes were convinced that the fruits of their labour did not serve to swell the profits of private individuals. Private capitalist profits should be suppressed in order that production of useful products might be increased, and that unemployment and the ravages which it causes might vanish.

After a short debate the resolution proposed by the Reporter was unanimously adopted. This resolution demanded the socialization of land and mines, in order that all natural wealth should become the property of the community, as well as the socialization of all means of transport and all branches of industry "which the proletariat of each country considers possible of realization". The right of co-determination and of participation must be assured to Trade Unionists. The Bureau of the International Federation of Trade Unions was entrusted with the task of getting into touch with the secretariats of the unions of miners, seamen and other transport workers, as well as of non-manual employees, with the aim of realizing the purpose of this resolution.

The Attitude of the Congress to the Moscow International.

The frequent attacks made by the Third (Moscow) International upon the International Federation of Trade Unions forced the congress to state their attitude with regard to the Moscow leaders. The Reporter of the special Commission entrusted with the examination of this question, Mr. Dumoulin (France), presented a resolution opposing the attacks on the International Federation of Trade Unions, but stating particularly that these attacks did not emanate from the Russian proletariat, who must not be held responsible for them. On the contrary, the congress sent the expression of its solidarity and of its entire sympathy to the Russian people and invited them to join the International Federation of Trade Unions in the same way as the workers of all other countries.

In the course of the debates on this question the members of the Bureau emphasized the fact that the International Federation of Trade Unions had, on all occasions, shown in a practical manner its interest in the Russian proletariat and that the leaders of the so-called "Trade Union International" of Moscow, never having belonged to Trade Unions, had no right to speak in the name of Trade Unions of all countries. The leader of the Italian delegation, Mr. D'Aragona, who took part in the Moscow debate, and who

supported certain principles of the Third International, was asked to give an exact explanation of his attitude with regard to the Moscow International. He declared that the Italian Trade Unions were not affiliated to the Third International; on the contrary, they belonged to the International Federation of Amsterdam. However, they considered that their activities and their aims should be influenced by an entirely revolutionary spirit. The grievances of the Italian Trade Unions arose partly from the fact that they disapproved of the attitude, hostile to workers' interests during the war, of several Trade Union leaders in western countries. In agreement with the Italian delegates, the Norwegian delegation refused to assent to the resolution, which was, nevertheless, carried. The Italian delegation abstained from voting. An additional motion, refusing to groups of men representing the Government of a country the right to take part in the creation of the workers' International, was also voted, in spite of the Norwegian vote, the English and Czechs abstaining from voting.

The Situation in the Ruhr District.

The Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions had sent to the Ruhr district a delegation composed of Mr. Jouhaux (France), Mr. Mertens (Belgium), Mr. Merrheim (France) and Mr. Fimmen (Holland), members of the Bureau of the International Federation, to conduct an enquiry into the situation, and the possible aggravation of the situation by a possible military occupation of the country by the Entente. Mr. Jouhaux (France), the Reporter of the delegation, showed that the population of this coal-mining district was, indeed, in a very critical and very unhappy situation. As the workers there have fulfilled all their obligations, they are justified in opposing any military occupation. They may, moreover, count from this point of view on the most determined support of the French proletariat. He presented to the congress a resolution condemning any attempt at solving the coal question by means of military action; this question could be solved only by an international organisation for the production and distribution of all fuel, such as was demanded by the miners' congress. The resolution describes the hardships from which the population in the Ruhr is suffering, particularly the children, and demands that " steps shall be taken to put an end to this distress ". The German delegate, Mr. Legien, took part in the discussion, and declared that the German miners would endeavour, by working two half-days' overtime per week, to make possible the execution of their obligations in regard to the supply of coal imposed upon Germany by the Peace Treaty, and that, moreover, the German proletariat is animated by the firm determination

to contribute to the execution of the Peace Treaty if it is given the means. The voluntary offers of the German workers to participate in the restoration of the invaded districts are a proof of this desire. Mr. Legien declared, also, that militarism was definitely crushed in Germany.

This resolution was unanimously adopted. Mr. Jaszai (Hungary) and Mr. Hueber (Austria) then expressed their gratitude to the International for the support which it had offered to their respective countries.

The congress closed on the 27th November at mid-day, after two brief closing speeches by Messrs. Jouhaux and J. H. Thomas.

PRODUCTION, PRICES, AND COST OF LIVING.

The Coal Situation 1913 and 1919.

THE question of the distribution of raw materials has a special interest for the International Labour Office, as can be seen from the documents it has already issued on this question. The matter was first raised in November 1919 at the Washington Conference by Mr. Baldesi. A report of the discussion on this subject at Washington has already been published by the International Labour Office in its *Studies and Reports*, Series B. No: 2. ("Papers relating to Schemes of International Organisation for the Distribution of Raw Materials and Foodstuffs"). This publication also contains the report to the Supreme Council on Co-operation in France, recommending the establishment of an International Office of Prices and Stocks. At the International Miners' Congress held at Geneva in September 1920 a resolution was passed urging the International Labour Office to take into particular consideration the institution of an International Office for the distribution of fuel, ores, and other raw materials. An account of this meeting has been published by the International Labour Office in its *Studies and Reports*, Series A. N°: 7, and the subsequent history of the question has been published in the *Bulletin* of the International Labour Office, N°: 9 (3rd November 1920) under the title "International Coal Commission".

In view of these facts, a statement as to the principal statistics concerning the production, distribution, and consumption of coal before the war and at the present time will be of interest. As the matter of international distribution of coal is of a controversial nature, no theoretical questions are raised. This article deals solely with facts and figures.

The Situation in 1913 and 1919.

The actual production of coal (excluding lignite) in the different countries of the world in 1913, as far as statistics are available, is shown in the second column of the following table. The countries are arranged roughly in order of production. The figures are both fairly complete and reliable.

TABLE I. — PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF COAL IN THE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD, 1913-1919.

Country.	1913				1919			
	Production		Consumption		Production		Consumption	
	1000's of tons	% of total	1000's of tons	% of total	1000's of tons	% of total	1000's of tons	% of total
United States	508,920	42.4	485,529	40.5	490,309	49.0	468,478	46.8
United Kingdom	287,430	24.0	209,316	17.4	236,700	23.7	197,617	19.9
Germany	190,049	15.8	156,370	13.0	108,685 (a)	10.9	101,685 (a)	10.4
France	40,844	3.4	63,737	5.3	31,406 (b)	3.1	43,877 (b)	4.4
Belgium	22,842	1.9	26,773	2.2	18,493	1.8	14,574	1.4
China	17,000	1.4	17,000	1.4	20,000	2.0	20,000	2.0
Japan	31,316	1.8	18,022	1.5	18,898	1.9	15,578	1.8
British India	16,000	1.3	16,000	1.3	18,000	1.8	18,000	1.8
Australasia	14,000	1.2	9,000	0.7	14,000	1.4	9,000	0.9
Canada	13,000	1.1	26,000	2.2	15,000	1.5	34,000	3.4
Russia	33,000	2.7	41,000	3.4	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Poland	8,989	0.7	15,500	1.3	6,145	0.6	(1)	(1)
Czecho Slovakia	6,589	0.5	(1)	(1)	8,575	0.8	(1)	(1)
Teschen	10,000	0.8	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Serb-Croat-Slovene State	3,487	0.3	3,487	0.3	2,494	0.2	2,494	0.25
Denmark	(2)	(2)	3,147	0.3	(2)	(2)	1,961	0.2
Spain	4,293	0.4	7,377	0.6	5,700	0.6	(1)	(1)
Italy	701	—	11,308	0.9	(1)	(1)	6,142	0.6
Norway	(2)	(2)	2,680	0.2	(2)	(2)	1,548	0.15
Netherlands	1,873	0.2	9,990	0.8	3,417	0.3	6,741	0.7
Sweden	364	—	5,739	0.5	405	—	2,626	0.3
Switzerland	(2)	(2)	3,379	0.3	(2)	(2)	1,694	0.2
Austria	(1)	(1)	12,000	1.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
South American States	(2)	(2)	8,000	0.7	(2)	(2)	8,000	0.8
Estimated Total World's Production	1,200,000	100.0	1,200,000	100.0	1,000,000	100.0	1,000,000	100.0

(1) Figures not available.
(2) No production or very small production.

(a) Excluding the Saar and Alsace Lorraine.
(b) Including the Saar and Alsace Lorraine.

It will be seen that the total world's production in 1913 was approximately 1200 million tons. This figure is the highest ever recorded. The striking fact, however, is that no less than 86 % of this production comes from four countries, viz. U.S.A., United Kingdom, Germany and France. Of these four chief coal producers, only France had not sufficient for her needs and was obliged to import coal.

The third column of the above table shows the estimated consumption in 1913 of the different countries of the world. These figures are not so reliable as those of production; in some cases comprehensive import and export statistics do not exist, and in other cases the statistics of exports to certain countries do not agree with the statistics of imports by those countries. The four chief countries above mentioned consumed, it will be seen, about 76 % of the world's output, compared with a production of 86 %. The difference was exported to other countries which either possessed no coal at all or very small quantities (of which the chief were Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, Italy, Denmark, Egypt, Austria) or produced insufficient for their needs (such as Spain, Netherlands, Canada, Belgium). Moreover, these figures of consumption include the amounts shipped for the use of steamers engaged in foreign trade, which amounted to over 20 million tons for the United Kingdom, 7 millions for U. S. A., and 9 millions for Germany.

The statistics of production and consumption for 1919 cannot be presented with the same degree of accuracy as those for 1913. This is especially true as regards figures of consumption, not only for the reasons stated above for 1913 as regards imports and exports, but also owing to wa conditions and the creation of new states. In this connection it should be borne in mind that the important district of Teschen, now partly Czecho-Slovak and partly Polish, has not been included under either of the two countries. It is estimated that this district produced about 10,000,000 tons per annum before the war, but as the political boundaries of Teschen are not yet settled, all output estimates are surrounded with uncertainty, and it is probable that such figures as do exist overlap. The figures for the Serbo-Croat-Slovene State must be taken with reserve. It has been assumed that production equalled consumption, with no imports or exports of importance. The figures are set out in the sixth and eighth columns of the above Table.

The estimate of the world's output for 1919 is thus about 1000 million tons, compared with 1200 million tons in 1913, a decline of 16.6 %.

In the following table the production of European countries and that of the United States of America are shown separately.

TABLE II.

	Production		1919 output as a percentage of 1913
	1913 million tons	1919 million tons	
Europe	610	423	69.2
U. S. A. . . .	509	490	96.3
Rest of World.	81	87	106.1
Total . . .	1200	1000	83 3

Production in Europe has fallen by about 30 %, in the United States of America by less than 4 %. As will be seen from the "Notes on the Different Countries" appended, the drop in the U. S. A. was due to a strike in November, 1919 — otherwise the production had steadily increased during the war from 458 million tons in 1914 to 621 millions in 1918.

This table also shows that the output of the U. S. A. was in 1919 not only much greater than that of the wohle of Europe but almost equal to the whole output of the rest of the world (viz. 490 million tons as against 510). Some of the causes of this fall in output are dealt with in the next section, and the pre-war and post-war situations in all the important countries are dealt with in a special section, "Notes on Different Countries."

The Decline in Output since 1913.

The causes of the decline in output are too well known to need emphasising here in detail. They are due chiefly to the effects of the war, when repairs were reduced to a minimum, and developments were not carried out. Many miners were serving in the army and their places taken by less efficient workers. Efficiency was further reduced by shortage of food supplies. Although several of these causes were removed after the close of hostilities. the continuance of the decline in output was maintained. This was due to the difficulty of restarting mines damaged during the war, transport difficulties, shortening of the hours of labour, strikes and labour unrest, effects of the blockade, and the loss or disablement of many skilled miners during the war.

It is interesting, however, to compare the amount of coal produced per miner in the different countries both before and since the war, and to see how and where the immediate need for coal throughout the world may best be supplied. The following table is reproduced from a report of the United States Bureau of Mines, and gives as far as available the annual production per underground worker for several countries

for a series of years. The figures throughout relate to short tons (i. e. 2000 lbs.)

The highest production is that of the United States, where in 1918, 1134 short tons were produced per underground worker. New South Wales comes next with 814 tons, British Columbia ranks third with 790, and Nova Scotia fourth with 718. At the bottom of the scale come Japan, India and Belgium, with less than 200 tons per miner. France has remained fairly constant at about 300 tons per miner, while Great Britain and Prussia fluctuate, the former somewhat below and the latter somewhat above 400 tons.

These differences in output per man per year are due in large part to the location and thickness of the coal seam, cleanness of the coal itself, working time, and the machinery and methods used in mining. Differences in the producing capacity of the miners in the several countries account for only a small part of the wide divergence in the output per worker. In the United States and New South Wales the thickest veins are still unexhausted and the coal lies near the surface, whereas in the older countries the top and thickest seams have given out, leaving the thinner and deeper seams, which are much more difficult to work. Coal cutting machines are used to a much greater extent in the United States, no less than 56% of the bituminous coal being obtained by this means in 1918, as compared with 11% in the United Kingdom, according to the report of the Mines Department of the British Home Office. In Belgium the seams are very thin, averaging only a little over 2 feet for the whole country; moreover the contorted and folded conditions of the seams and their great depth render mining operations very difficult and greatly reduce the productive capacity of the miner.

TABLE III. ANNUAL PRODUCTION PER UNDERGROUND WORKER (in short tons).

Year	U. S. A.	New South Wales	Novia Scotia	British Columbia	Great Britain	Prussia	France	Austria (old)	Belgium	Japan	India
1912	889	834	717	642	348	411	312	333	240	189	202
1913	916	820	729	582	371	422	307	320	238	182	204
1914	803	770	657	569	341	389	—	328	200	179	200
1915	867	775	680	506	393	447	—	350	182	156	192
1916	998	727	810	754	377	459	—	351	211	170	200
1917	1071	728	778	715	359	436	—	278	218	155	204
1918	1134	814	718	790	337	409	—	259	207	—	203

Notes on the Different Countries.

United States.

The United States is the greatest coal producer and consumer in the world. In 1913 the position in that country was as follows :

	Tons
Production	508,920,000
Imports	1,356,000
	510,276,000
Exports	24,747,000
Available for consumption	485,529,000

Of the exports, 18,000,000 tons were sent to Canada and the rest to other portions of the American Continent. In addition, about 7½ million tons were shipped for the use of steamers in foreign trade.

The production in subsequent years was as follows :

1914	458,500,000
1915	474,760,000
1916	527,800,000
1917	581,700,000
1918	621,340,000
1919	490,309,000

The position in 1919 was as follows :

Production	490,309,000
Imports	940,000
	491,249,000
Exports	22,771,000
Available for consumption	468,478,000

The great drop in 1919 was largely due to a strike of bituminous coal miners for 6 weeks from November 1st.

Before the war, the U. S. A. could hardly be considered an exporting country, as only about four million tons were exported by sea; (about 18 million tons went by land to Canada and Mexico). The sea-borne exports consist almost entirely of bituminous coal, and the following table shows how the war has increased the U. S. coal exports :

TABLE IV. — SEABORNE EXPORT OF BITUMINOUS COAL (SHORT TONS).

Country	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	8 months 1920
Belgium	—	—	—	—	—	—	198
France	53	216	100	51	8	586	1,551
Italy	870	3,283	1,943	628	11	1,829	1,921
Netherlands	—	43	—	—	18	809	1,407
Scandinavian Countries	—	325	166	24	—	562	2,245
Switzerland	—	—	—	4	—	592	584
Cuba	1,265	1,306	1,430	1,580	1,613	1,088	1,015
South American Republ.	588	1,865	2,375	1,545	1,419	1,575	2,095
Egypt	83	178	102	—	—	42	436
Other Countries	1,549	1,891	1,650	1,674	965	967	1,350
Totals.	4,408	9,107	7,774	5,506	4,034	8,050	12,892

These figures are short tons (of 2000 lbs). They show how the European countries have become increasingly dependent on the U. S. A. for their supplies. In 1919 the export of coal by sea had almost doubled the figure of 1914. In 1920 the figure is about thirteen millions for the first eight months. By the end of 1920 it will probably have reached nineteen or twenty millions, of which thirteen to fourteen millions will have been sent to Europe.

United Kingdom.

The United Kingdom is the second largest coal producer and employs over 1,000,000 men in the mines. In 1913 the position was :—

Total Production	287,500,000
Exports	78,000,000
Available for home consumption	209,500,000

In addition to the export of 78 million tons, nearly 21½ million tons were shipped for the use of steamers.

The exports were distributed as follows :—

France	13,000,000
Germany	9,000,000
Russia	6,000,000
Italy	9,600,000
Sweden	4,600,000
Spain	3,600,000
Argentine	3,700,000
Denmark	3,000,000
Egypt	3,200,000
Norway	2,300,000
Netherlands	2,000,000
Belgium	2,000,000
Brazil	2,000,000
Portugal	1,300,000
Austria-Hungary	1,000,000
Algeria	1,300,000
Other countries	10,400,000
	78,000,000

During the years 1914 to 1919 production steadily declined, owing to the shortage of labour and materials, as the following figures show :—

1913	287,500,000
1914	268,664,000
1915	253,206,000
1916	256,375,000
1917	248,473,000
1918	227,715,000
1919	236,700,000

During the war exports were restricted, and the Allies were peculiarly dependent on British coal, owing to the cutting off of German and Belgian supplies and the seizure by the Germans of practically 50% of the French mines. In 1918 exports had fallen to about 32 million tons, almost 3/4ths of which (23 million tons) went to France and Italy.

In 1919 production rose to 236,700,000 tons, of which 40,000,000 tons were exported and 12,000,000 tons shipped for foreign bunkers.

Germany.

Among the coal-producing nations of the world, Germany before the war (and also after the war) ranks third. In 1913 the position was as follows :—

Production	190,049,000
Imports	11,327,000
	201,376,000
Exports	45,006,000
	156,370,000

Her imports were derived mainly from the United Kingdom, while she also obtained supplies from Belgium. Before the war Germany was a great exporting country. Her exports went chiefly to contiguous countries by canal, river, and rail, the chief destinations being :—

Austria	12,153,000
Belgium	5,728,000
Holland	7,218,000
France	3,242,000
Russia	2,103,000
Switzerland	1,639,000
	32,083,000

A large part of the remainder was shipped for the use of ships in foreign trade.

Excluding the Saar and Alsace-Lorraine, the production in 1913 was 173 millions.

During the war the production was as follows :—

1914	147,962,000 tons	(excluding
1915	136,080,000 »	Saar and
1916	147,362,000 »	Lorraine)
1917	153,864,000 »	
1918	147,612,000 »	

In 1919 the total production, exclusive of Saar and Lorraine, fell to 108,685,000 tons: none was imported; 7,000,000 tons were exported (in the form of deliveries to the Allies, etc.). Production in 1920 increased to 131 million tons.

France.

In 1901 the coal mines of France produced 32½ million tons. The output increased year by year until 1913, when the production was almost 41 million tons. Her production, however, was insufficient to meet demand, and the difference was made up by importing from the United Kingdom, Germany and Belgium. In 1913 the position was as follows:—

Production (less exports)	41,000,000
Imports, from United Kingdom	13,000,000
Germany	4,000,000
Belgium	4,000,000
Home consumption	63,000,000

During the war production was as follows:—

1914	27,528,000
1915	19,536,000
1916	21,312,000
1917	28,924,000
1918	26,311,000

In 1919 production (exclusive of Lorraine) fell, owing largely to the destruction of the mines in Nord and Pas de Calais, to 19,966,000 tons. Including Lorraine, the production was 22,424,000 tons.

The position in 1919 was as follows:—

	Including Lorraine	*Excluding Lorraine*
Production	22,424	19,993
Imports	22,073	20,862
	44,497	40,855
Exports	620	71
Available for Consumption	43,877	40,784

It is estimated that for 1920 her total supplies, including Saar Valley production, German deliveries and imports from U. S. A., will amount to 57 million tons.

Belgium.

The position in Belgium was somewhat analogous to that of France, i. e. her home requirements necessitated her imports showing a margin over her exports. In 1913 the situation was:—

Production	22,842,000
Imports	8,874,000
	31,716,000
Exports	4,943,000
Available for consumption	26,773,000

Belgium was one of the few countries with both a considerable import and export trade, as she requires certain classes of coal more suited to her industries.

The imports were derived mainly from Germany (5,000,000 tons), United Kingdom (2,000,000 tons), and France (1,000,000 tons). The exports went mainly to France, approximately 5,000,000 tons.

With the beginning of hostilities, there was a sudden reduction in output — the figures being as follows:—

	Tons.
1914	16,716,000
1915	14,172,000
1916	16,860,000
1917	14,916,000
1918	13,824,000
1919	18,493,000

In 1919 the position was as follows:—

Production	18,493,000
Imports	131,000
	18,624,000
Exports	4,050,000
	14,574,000

The satisfactory increase in production was continued in 1920 and the total for the year will probably equal the pre-war output of 22,000,000 tons. Belgium requires, however, an extra quantity for reconstruction work.

Russia.

Before the war the production of coal in Russia was comparatively small, on the average about 30 million tons. The actual position in 1913 was as follows :

Production	33,206,000
Imports	7,612,000
	40,818,000
Exports	96,000
	40,722,000

The imports were chiefly from the United Kingdom, though from 1908-1913, the imports from Germany were rapidly increasing. Germany was making a determined effort to capture the Russian market for imported coal, and her success is shown by the following figures.

IMPORTS OF COAL INTO RUSSIA (THOUSAND TONS).

	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
From United Kingdom	2,593	2,398	2,495	2,863	4,075
» Germany	1,128	1,517	1,755	2,113	3,086
» other countries	152	250	259	235	451
Total	3,873	4,165	4,509	5,211	7,612

Italy.

Italy has pratically no coalfields of her own, and depends almost entirely upon imports. In 1913 she imported about 10,862,000 tons, the United Kingdom supplying over 80 per cent., as follows :

United Kingdon	9,386,000
Germany	919,000
France	165,000
U. S. A.	94,000
Other countries	298,000
Total	10,862,000

In 1919 her imports were 6,226,000, largely from the United Kingdom, but supplies are now being obtained from America, and nearly 2,000,000 tons had been received in the first eight months of 1920.

Netherlands.

Holland's output of coal is very small, being in the region of 2,000,000 tons before the war. Her consumption was about ten million tons — the balance of eight millions being derived chiefly from Germany (6 ½ millions). The war, however, had a stimulating effect on output, and in 1919 it reached nearly 3½ million tons. Imports in this year amounted to about the same figure, viz., 3½ millions.

The South American Republics.

The South American Republics have no coal of their own, and in 1913 derived their supplies almost entirely from the United Kingdom, as the following table shows :

IMPORTS OF COAL INTO ARGENTINE, BRAZIL AND URUGUAY.

	Imports from	
	U. K. Tons	U. S. A. Tons
Argentine	3,694,000	70,000
Brazil	1,887,000	280,000
Uruguay	724,000	17,000

Thus, with the exception of Brazil, the U. S. A. exports to South America were negligible. In the second half of 1914 and subsequent years, when tonnage was required for European and war purposes, supplies from the United Kingdom were considerably reduced and urgent demands were made upon the United States. The following table shows the figures :

EXPORTS OF COAL TO ARGENTINE, BRAZIL AND URUGUAY.

	From U. K.	From U. S. A.
1914	4,611,000	595,000
1915	2,450,000	1,593,000
1916	1,104,000	1,857,000
1917	747,000	1,064,000
1918	590,000	967,000
1919 (approx.)	970,000	1,340,000 (approx.)

It seems that the continued reduced output in the United Kingdom will force the South American Republics to rely more and more upon the U. S. A. During the first eight months of 1920 the U. S. A. exported over 2 million tons to South American States.

Changes in Retail Prices in Different Countries.

BEFORE the war, index numbers of retail prices of food and household necessaries were very few. The phenomenal increase of prices since 1914, however, led a large number of different countries to commence a series of index numbers showing the movements in retail prices. The various index numbers published by several foreign countries have been brought together in the subjoined table, after having been reduced to a common base, viz., prices for July 1914 equal 100. This base is used instead of 1913, which is used in the table of wholesale prices, because of the fact that in several cases information for 1913 was not available, many index numbers, as stated above, having been started in 1914. In a few cases, as shown by the footnote to the table, the base is some period in 1914 other than July.

The method of obtaining price quotations, the system of weighting, and, as shown in the table, the number of items included in the index number differ widely from country to country, and the results should not, therefore, be considered as closely comparable with one another; in one or two instances, the figures are not absolutely comparable from month to month, owing to slight changes in the list of commodities included.

In some countries, index numbers are published showing the change in the cost of a standard family budget at different periods, in which not only food, but clothing, lighting, heating, rent, etc., are included. These figures are generally known as cost of living index numbers, although, as no allowance is made for alterations in the budget during the period, they are not an accurate measure of changes in the cost of living. This is especially true of the war period, when considerable changes took place in family expenditure, not only in food-items, but in the other items making up the family budget.

The subsequent paragraphs deal with the retail food prices index numbers and "cost of living" index numbers published by various countries.

AUSTRALIA.

The index number of retail food prices published by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics rose from 169 in January, 1920, to 197 in September (prices in July 1914 being taken as 100). During October and November the index number decreased, and at the end of November prices were about 10 % higher than at the beginning of the year.

The following table shows the purchasing power of money, as applied to food, rent, and the two combined, based on the purchasing power of £1. in 1911, in the capital cities of

OFFICIAL INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD

Date	United Kingdom (1)	France		Italy		U. S. A.	Canada	Australia	New Zealand	South Africa (3)	Norway	Sweden	Denmark	Spain	Netherlands (Amsterdam) (3)	Belgium (4)	Switzerland		India (Calcutta)
		Paris	Other towns	Rome (2)	Milan (2)												(all areas)	23 towns	
	21 items	13 items	13 items	38 items	25 items	22 items	29 items	41 items	55 items	—	—	44 items	—	12 items	27 items	22 items	35 items	35 items	46 items
1914 July	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100 (5)	100 (5)	100
1915 »	132	122	123	95	—	98	105	131	112	106	—	124	128	106	114	—	119 (5)	—	108
1916 »	161	132	142	111	—	109	114	130	119	114	160	142	146	113	117	—	141 (5)	—	110
1917 »	204	183	184	137	—	143	157	126	127	127	214	181	166	127	146	—	178 (5)	—	116
1918 »	210	206	244	203	325	165	175	132	139	129	279	268	187	151	176	—	222 (5)	—	121
1919 »	217	261	293	206	310	186	186	147	144	139	289	310	212	130	204	—	250 (5)	242 (5)	155
1920 Jan.	235	290	—	275	412	197	206	160	158	177	295	298	251	—	197	396	—	231	153
» Feb.	233	297	—	299	418	196	212	162	160	187	294	290	—	—	199	420	—	238	154
» Mar.	235	339	320	300	406	196	215	163	162	183	298	291	—	—	199	445	237	231	151
» Apr.	246	358	—	310	423	207	215	173	163	183	305	297	—	—	200	461	—	234	151
» May	255	378	—	325	445	212	224	177	163	188	311	294	—	—	202	471	—	231	159
» June	258	369	380	325	458	215	228	187	167	194	311	294	—	—	204	462	232	228	164
» July	262	373	—	318	445	215	227	194	171	197	319	297	253	—	210	453	—	235	170
» Aug.	267	373	—	322	454	203	221	194	173	196	333	308	—	—	212	463	—	239	167
» Sept.	270	407	390	324	468	199	215	197	177	195	336	307	—	—	217	471	244	238	166
» Oct.	291	420	—	341	480	194	214	192	176	197	339	306	—	—	218	477	—	247	161
» Nov.	282	426	—	361	515	189	206	186	176	196	342	303	—	—	220	476	—	246	161
» Dec.	278	424	450	375	535	175	200	—	—	—	342	294	—	—	—	468	—	235	—

(1) Figures relate to 1st of following month. — (2) Base : January-June. — (3) Base : Average for 1914. — (4) Figures relate to 15th of each month. Base : April 1914.
(5) Figures relate to June of each year.

Australia for the 2nd quarter of 1919 and the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 1920, as published by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics.

AMOUNT REQUIRED TO PURCHASE WHAT £1 WOULD PURCHASE IN 1911

Items	Second Quarter 1919	Second Quarter 1920	Third Quarter 1920
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Food	33 10	41 7	45 5
Rent	24 1	26 5	26 11
Food and Rent	29 10	35 4	37 10

BELGIUM.

The Belgian Ministry of Labour has recently commenced the publication in the *Revue du Travail* of a new index number of retail prices of food. Since the beginning of 1920 an index number has been published which was unweighted, i. e., it consisted of the simple average of the price changes of 56 commodities.

The new figures are based on 22 food items, and the index number is formed by weighting each commodity-price according to the average amount consumed by a working-class family. The budgets used for this purpose were collected by the Solvay Institute in 1910.

The following table summarises the results. The first column gives the original simple index number published since January, 1920, and based on 56 commodities. The second column gives the new weighted index number based on 22 items.

It will be seen that there is a remarkable agreement between the series, the new index number being, however, slightly higher than the simple index number:

(Base : April 1914 = 100)

Month	Index No. (unweighted) of 56 commodities 1.	Index No. (weighted) of 22 food items 2.	Index No. (unweighted) of 22 food items 3.
Jan. 1920.	396	381	376
Feb. . . .	420	400	389
March . .	445	450	422
April . . .	461	458	437
May . . .	471	444	442
June . . .	462	451	430
July . . .	453	454	424
August . .	463	492	447
September .	471	500	455
October . .	477	517	462
November .	476	505	458
December .	468	506	456

The level of prices has risen considerably since the beginning of the year and is now estimated to be 5 times the level of April 1914.

CANADA.

The monthly index number of retail prices published by the Canadian Government in the *Labour Gazette* shows a tendency to decline in recent months. The figures are based on the cost of maintaining a family budget costing 12.79 dollars in 1910. The rises in the different items of expenditure are shown in the following table :—

	Cost in			Index numbers for Dec. 1920 July 1914=100
	1910 dollars	July 1914 dollars	Nov 1920 dollars	
Food	6.95	7.42	14.89	200
Rent	4.05	4.90	6.62	137
Lighting and Heating	1.76	1.38	4.16	220
Laundry	.03	.03	.05	166
Total. .	12.79	14.16	25.67	181

DENMARK.

The Danish Government publishes every six months in *Statistiske Efterretninger* the results of an investigation into the cost of an average workman's family budget of five persons with an income in July, 1914, of 2,000 kronen. The table opposite shows the changes in July of each year.

FINLAND.

No official investigations concerning the increase in retail prices were made in Finland during the war. The only official figures available were the current statistics on the prices of certain of the more important necessaries in various districts, published in the journal of the Finnish Ministry of Labour, *Social Tidskrift*. At the request of the employees in public service, however, such an investigation has now been undertaken by the Department for Social Affairs (Socialstyrelsen i Finland). The results of the investigations, published in *Social Tidskrift*, 1920, Nos. 4 and 5, are as follows :

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING OF A LABOURER'S FAMILY OF FIVE PERSONS IN DENMARK, IN 1914-1920.

Item	Cost in July							Index Number in July						
	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1819	1920
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.							
Pork, beef, etc	234	328	420	370	483	569	684	100	140	179	158	206	243	292
Milk, cheese, eggs	290	377	424	496	499	612	358	100	130	146	171	172	211	—
Butter, margarine, fats, etc							349							
Fish (fresh and salt)	30	30	38	42	42	60	50	100	100	126	140	140	200	167
Bread	153	199	194	284	264	269	317	100	130	127	186	173	176	207
Flour, meal, etc	33	56	59	80	82	85	116	100	170	179	242	248	257	352
Potatoes, vegetables, and fruits.	54	65	65	82	120	143	183	100	120	120	152	222	265	339
Sugar, spices, beer	156	164	186	226	287	277	351	100	105	119	145	184	178	225
Total foodstuffs	950	1219	1386	1580	1777	2015	2408	100	128	146	166	187	212	253
Clothes, shoes, laundry	270	297	432	513	702	837	959	100	110	160	190	260	310	355
Rent, house and upkeep	330	330	342	375	426	457	506	100	100	104	114	129	138	153
Fuel and light	100	130	175	220	275	292	563	100	130	175	220	275	292	563
Taxes, subscriptions, etc	210	210	210	210	210	340	476	100	100	100	100	100	162	227
Other expenses	140	140	173	196	245	280	322	100	100	124	140	175	200	230
Total	1050	1107	1332	1514	1858	2206	2826	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grand total	2000	2326	2718	3094	3635	4221	5234	100	116	136	155	182	211	262

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES

Articles	1914 July	1920								
		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.
Food . . .	100	898	909	915	920	914	926	982	1089	1134
Clothing . .	100	924	944	958	979	1004	1022	1049	1074	1100
Rent . . .	100	307	308	308	309	313	325	335	389	383
Fuel	100	949	1000	1014	1085	1169	1188	1332	1395	1374
Tobacco . .	100	1175	1202	1278	1320	1333	1344	562	1367	1370
Newspapers.	100	401	401	401	401	401	401	401	401	401
All items.	100	819	832	840	856	854	868	911	991	1032

The index numbers are based on returns from 20 places, and refer to the cost of maintaining the standard pre-war budget of a typical Finnish worker's household, the " typical family " being one consisting of a man and wife and three children, whose expenditure in 1914 was 1600-2000 Finnish marks.

FRANCE.

Two index numbers of retail prices are published by the French Government in the *Bulletin de la Statistique Générale de la France* — a monthly figure for Paris and a quarterly figure for the towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. Both figures cover 13 items, 11 being articles of food, the remaining two being petroleum and methylated spirits. Throughout 1920 prices have continued to rise, and no sign of any fall, such as has been experienced in U. S. A. and Great Britain, is yet noticeable. The level of prices in Paris in December, 1920, was 324 % higher than in July 1914, as compared with 190 % at the beginning of the year.

GERMANY.

The *Reichsarbeitsblatt* publishes in its December issue a table of index figures for German towns. The figures are based on the monthly needs of a family of 2 adults and 3 children, and include the price of common foodstuffs, fuel and light, and the rent of two rooms and a kitchen. The following are the figures for the chief towns, taking 100 as the index for February :

	Mar.	Apl.	May.	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
Berlin . . .	124	141	136	130	143	127	127	139	139
Hamburg .	112	113	116	103	108	105	105	118	139
Munich . .	111	125	133	149	154	118	117	135	131
Breslau . .	109	133	143	129	138	126	132	129	138
Dresden . .	125	141	153	153	140	134	130	138	142
Frankfurt .	116	127	142	142	144	124	124	132	134
Essen . . .	112	134	138	133	134	125	105	105	113
Nürnberg .	109	114	124	137	118	130	117	137	151
Stuttgart .	114	120	132	148	123	123	132	139	151

The following table prepared by Dr. Kuczynski, Director of the Statistical Office of Berlin (Schöneberg), and published in the *Finanzpolitische Korrespondenz*, is his estimate of "the minimum of existence" in December 1920 in Berlin:—

	Weekly Cost in Marks (December 1920)		
	Single Man	Man and Wife	Man, wife and two children
Food	57	97	143
Rent	9	9	9
Lighting and Heating	23	23	23
Clothing	30	50	70
Miscellaneous	39	59	82
Total	158	238	330
Cost in June 1914	17	22	29

For a single man, the cost is about 9 times, for a married couple about 11 times, and for a family of four about 11 ½ times the cost in 1913

INDIA (BRITISH).

The index number of retail food prices published monthly for Calcutta shows that prices have risen less in that country than in any other country for which reliable statistics are published. The index number for November 1920 stood at 161, compared with 100 in July 1914, having fallen from 170 in July 1920 and 167 in August 1920.

ITALY.

The Municipal Bulletin of Milan gives the following average weekly budget for a workman's family of five persons (man, wife, one child over 10 and two under 10) for the first six months of 1914 as compared with the average weekly expenditure in November 1920, (*a*) based on the same quantities as in 1914, (*b*) based on actual reduced consumption:

Items	1914 Jan.-July	December 1920	
	Lire	Normal consumption Lire	Actual consumption Lire
Food	25.58	136.93	106.73
Clothing	4.94	35.10	35.10
Rent	4.70	6.55	6.55
Fuel and Light	1.86	16.48	16.48
Miscellaneous	4.12	24.90	24.90
Total	41.20	219.96	189.76
Index	100.00	511.07	440.56

These figures show an increase of 355 % in the actual cost of living, but, had the pre-war standard been maintained, the increase would have been more, viz., 428 %.

The average weekly budget of a workman's family in Rome in August 1920 as compared with that of Jan.-July 1914 is reproduced below from the Bulletin of the Rome Labour Office :

Items	Jan.-July 1914 Lire	August 1920 Lire
Food	33.25	10[illegible].13
Clothing . . .	5.43	25.35
Rent	7.—	7.0
Heat	2.55	6.0
Light	1.30	1.44
Miscellaneous	3.55	21.0
Total. . .	53.08	167.92
Index No.	100.00	316.35

NETHERLANDS.

The monthly index number of retail prices of food published by the town of Amsterdam shows a steady increase in the general level of food prices in 1920, the latest figure (that for November) being 220, compared with 97 at the beginning of the year (prices in 1913 equalling 100).

NEW ZEALAND.

According to the *Monthly Abstract of Statistics* published by the New Zealand Government, the level of retail food prices, though standing at a much lower level than in European countries, continued to increase in 1920, the latest figure (for November) showing a rise from 158 at the beginning of the year to 176, compared with 100 in July 1914.

NORWAY.

The increase in cost of a pre-war budget, amounting to about 1,500 Kr. in July 1914 for a family of 4 persons, is estimated as follows by the Norwegian Government in *Sociale Meddelelser :*

Items	Cost in		Percentage increase July 1914-Sept. 1920
	July 1914	Sept. 1920	
	Kr.	Kr.	
Food	732.86	2459.59	336
Light and Heat. . .	79.28	476.33	595
Clothing	193.40	668.07	345
Rent.	239.24	370.82	155
Taxes	20.22	344.00	—
Other.	263.20	806.30	306
Total. . .	1528.20	5125.11	331

This number is only published at 3-monthly intervals. For food only, monthly statistics are published, the percentage increase at December 1920 being 242, compared with 236 in November.

POLAND

The new monthly Statistical Review *(Revue Mensuelle de Statistique)*, the first number of which has recently been published by the Central Statistical Office of the Polish Republic, publishes an index number of retail prices of 13 food necessaries. The average for January 1920 is taken as 100. The figures for November 1919 to March 1920 are shown below:

Month.	Index No.
November 1919	69.0
December 1919	80.1
January 1920	100.0
February 1920	124.1
March 1920	149.6

It will be seen that, according to this index number, prices have more than doubled during the five months.

SOUTH AFRICA.

Retail prices of food now stand at about double the level of July 1914, the index number having increased from 177 in January 1920 to 197 in October and 196 in November (July 1914 = 100).

SWEDEN.

The official index number for the month of December, 1920, published in *Sociale Meddelanden*, representing the cost of maintaining the standard pre-war budget of a typical Swedish town-worker's household in the matter of *food*, *fuel* and *light*, shows an increase of 194 per cent as compared with July 1914, as against 207 per cent the preceding month.

Besides this index series of food prices the Royal Department for Social Affairs (K. Socialstyrelsen) every three months publishes figures relating to the *total family expenditure*, including the estimated expenditure on rent, clothing, taxes and other items. The latest investigation, based on prices current on January lst 1921, shows an increase of 171 per cent as compared with July 1914, which, however, means a decrease of 10 points or 3.6 per cent during the last quarter.

SWITZERLAND.

The monthly index number of retail prices, consisting of food and lighting and heating materials, published by the Union of Swiss Co-operative Societies and based on returns from the 23 largest towns, stood at 2651.7 on the lst December, the basis being the average cost of the same articles on lst June 1914, viz., 1066.7 francs — an increase of 251 per cent.

TURKEY.

According to a table published by the Dette Publique Ottomane, retail prices in Turkey are still 15 times what they were before the war. Taking the quantities of articles of prime necessity for a person of ordinary means and using the prices of July 1914 as a standard, the percentage increase for July 1920 compared with July 1914 amounts to 1,567 % for food only and 1,418 % for food and other necessities.

The following table shows the price of the chief foods in piasters per "oke":

Commodity	July 1914	July 1920	% increase
Bread	1.875	20.25	980
Sugar	3.00	65.00	2,733
Rice	3.00	54.00	1,700
Potatoes . .	1.00	18.25	1,725
Milk	2.00	45.00	2,150
Cheese . . .	12.00	300.00	2,400

UNITED KINGDOM.

The monthly index number published by the Ministry of Labour in the *Labour Gazette* covers not only retail prices of food, but also rent, clothing, fuel and light, and miscellaneous items. The index numbers are designed to indicate the average increase in the cost of maintaining unchanged the average pre-war standard of living of the working classes. On the lst January, the food index number showed a rise of 178 % above the level of July 1914, while the general index number of all items showed a rise of 165 %. The percentage rise in rent was estimated at 42 %, in clothing 300 %, and in fuel and light at 140 %.

The level of food prices slowly rose in 1920 till the end of September. In October the highest monthly increase recorded took place, the index number rising from 270 to 291, largely due to the rise in price of bread and flour due to reduction of the bread subsidy. In November a substantial fall was experienced due to the drop in the price of sugar.

The movement of the general index number of prices since June 1914 is summarised in the following table —

End of	All items included
June 1914	100
June 1915	125
June 1916	145-150
June 1917	180
June 1918	200-205
June 1919	205-210
June 1920	252
July 1920	255
Aug. 1920	261
Sept. 1920	264
Oct. 1920	276
Nov. 1920	269
Dec. 1920	265

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Retail prices of food are now secured by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers in 51 cities through monthly reports of actual selling prices on the 15th of each month. Prices of 43 food articles are now reported monthly. Quotations are secured on similar grades of commodities in all cities. To form the index number of retail prices only 22 commodities are used, for which quantities consumed by the average family of 5 have been ascertained. These prices are weighted according to the importance of each article in the consumption of the average family, i. e. the average price per unit of each commodity is multiplied by the number of units of that commodity consumed. The products are the cost to the average family of each of the 22 food articles. The products for each month and year are added. The aggregates thus obtained give the cost to the average family for each month and year of the 22 food articles — the actual cost of the family market basket. As it would be difficult to see at a glance the percentage changes in the cost of the family market basket from these aggregate money costs, they are therefore changed to percentages of the aggregate cost for the year 1913 by dividing each aggregate by the 1913 aggregate. The percentages or index numbers thus obtained show what the cost of the family market basket is in each month and year in percentage of the cost of the same market basket in 1913. The 22 articles used comprise about two-thirds of the entire food budget and reflect with great accuracy changes in the cost of living.

The following table shows the index numbers for each year from 1913 to 1919 and in each month of 1920 for each of the 22 items and for all commodities.

TABLE A.— RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, 1913 TO DECEMBER 1920. (Average for year 1913 = 100).

Year and month.	Sirloin steak	Round steak	Rib roast	Chuck roast	Plate beef	Pork chops	Bacon	Ham	Lard	Hens	Eggs	Butter	Cheese	Milk	Bread	Flour	Corn meal	Rice	Potatoes	Sugar	Coffee	Tea	22 Weighted articles
1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1914	102	106	103	104	104	105	102	102	99	102	102	94	104	100	112	104	105	101	108	108	100	100	102
1915	101	103	101	101	100	96	100	97	93	97	99	93	105	99	124	126	108	104	89	120	101	100	101
1916	108	110	107	107	106	108	106	109	111	111	109	103	117	102	130	135	113	105	159	146	100	100	114
1917	124	130	126	131	130	152	152	142	175	134	139	127	150	125	164	211	192	119	253	169	101	107	146
1918	153	165	155	166	170	186	196	178	211	177	165	151	162	156	175	203	227	148	188	176	102	110	167
1919	164	174	164	169	167	201	205	209	134	193	182	177	193	174	179	218	213	174	224	205	145	129	186
1920	172	177	165	164	151	201	194	206	187	210	197	183	188	188	205	245	217	200	371	353	158	135	203
Jan. 1920	159	166	159	158	152	178	186	187	215	197	240	194	196	187	195	245	220	208	318	324	165	132	201
Feb.	160	167	159	157	152	180	186	188	204	210	199	190	196	188	198	245	217	210	353	342	165	131	200
Mar.	161	168	161	157	150	186	186	190	192	215	161	196	194	187	200	242	217	211	400	340	165	135	200
Apr.	170	179	169	166	157	206	191	199	191	224	153	199	194	183	200	245	217	214	535	367	165	135	211
May	171	179	169	166	155	202	195	206	189	221	153	187	194	182	205	264	223	215	565	462	165	136	215
June	182	191	176	174	157	194	200	215	185	216	155	175	189	182	211	267	230	215	606	485	165	136	219
July	192	202	181	179	158	208	203	222	184	211	166	177	186	188	216	264	233	214	524	482	165	137	219
Aug.	186	196	176	172	154	219	203	223	177	212	184	175	183	191	213	255	230	210	294	416	162	137	207
Sep.	185	193	175	170	152	238	204	224	177	214	206	179	184	193	213	252	227	202	229	333	153	137	203
Oct.	177	188	168	162	147	238	202	222	185	207	234	180	184	194	211	236	213	185	200	253	146	133	198
Nov.	171	178	165	158	146	210	196	212	183	201	250	181	180	194	207	221	197	163	194	235	139	135	193
Dec.	177	160	152	145	136	157	176	186	162	189	268	162	176	189	193	200	183	152	169	189	133	133	178

In addition to the retail food prices, comprehensive studies of the cost of living were made in representative industrial centres, including both large and small towns, during 1917 and 1918. Detailed expenditures were obtained from nearly 13,000 families in 92 localities, and from these were determined the quantities of each article of consumption included in the family budgets. Retail prices of representative articles of family consumption were obtained, going back to December 1914 in 18 shipbuilding centres, and to December 1917 in other towns. Beginning with 1919, the retail prices of these representative articles have been regularly obtained in June and December of each year in the 18 centres in which shipbuilding is carried on and in a varying number of the other industrial centres. The results of the latest of these retail price surveys, for December 1920, are given below.

The first column of the table shows the average per cent. of total family expenditures that is devoted to each of the different groups of items — food, clothing, etc., in the average family budget, as found in the cost of living study made in 1917-1918.

The succeeding columns show the per cent. of increase in the prices of the several groups of items in each of the years named over the prices of December, 1914.

TABLE B. — CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN CERTAIN AMERICAN CITIES, DECEMBER 1914 TO DECEMBER 1920

Item of expenditure	Per cent of total expenditure	Per cent of increase from Dec. 1914 to		
		Dec. 1915	June 1920	Dec. 1920
New York, N. Y.				
Food	42.0	1.3	105.3	73.5
Clothing				
Male		4.8	220.8	188.4
Female		4.9	258.8	211.8
All Clothing	16.6	4.8	241.4	201.8
Housing	14.3	0·1*	32.4	38.1
Fuel and Light	4.3	0.1*	60.1	87.5
Furniture and Furnishings	3.3	8.4	205.1	185.9
Miscellaneous	18.5	2.0	111.9	116.3
Total	100.0	2.0	119.2	101.4
Philadelphia, Pa				
Food	40.2	0.3	101.7	68.1
Clothing				
Male		3.3	233.4	194.7
Female		3.9	206.0	172.3
All Clothing	16.3	3.6	219.6	183.5
Housing	13.2	0.3*	28.6	38.0
Fuel and Light	5.1	0.8*	66.5	96.0
Furniture and Furnishings	4.4	6.9	187.4	183.4
Miscellaneous	20.8	1.2	102.8	122.3
Total	100.0	1.2	113.5	100.7

* Decrease

Item of expenditure	Per cent of total expenditure	Per cent of increase from Dec. 1914 to		
		Dec. 1915	June 1920	Dec. 1920
San Francisco and Oakland, California.				
Food	37.9	4.3*	93.9	64.9
Clothing				
Male		2.1	193.6	180.7
Female		2.8	184.2	166.3
All Clothing	16.6	2.5	191.0	175.9
Housing	14.8	0.7*	9.4	15.0
Fuel and Light	4.1	0.1*	47.2	66.3
Furniture and Furnishings.	4.2	6.0	180.1	175.6
Miscellaneous	22.4	1.7*	79.6	84.8
Total.	100.0	1.7*	96.9	85.1
Seattle, Washington				
Food	33.5	2.8*	102.3	52.1
Clothing				
Male		0.8	153.1	141.7
Female		1.6	183.0	167.7
All Clothing	15.8	1.2	173.9	160.5
Housing	15.4	2.4*	74.8	76.7
Fuel and Light	5.4	0.2*	65.8	78.7
Furniture and Furnishings.	5.1	8.5	221.2	216.4
Miscellaneous	24.8	1.0*	90.4	95.5
Total.	100.0	1.0	110.5	94.1
Baltimore, Maryland.				
Food	42.0	4.1*	110.9	75.6
Clothing				
Male		2.5	188.9	158.3
Female		3.0	198.4	164.7
All Clothing	15.1	2.7	191.3	159.5
Housing	14.0	0.2*	41.6	49.5
Fuel and Light	5.0	0.5	57.6	79.0
Furniture and Furnishings.	4.5	5.6	191.8	181.9
Miscellaneous	19.6	1.4*	111.4	112.9
Total.	100.0	1.4*	114.3	96.8
Cleveland, Ohio.				
Food	35.6	1.4	118.7	71.7
Clothing				
Male		1.6	180.5	150.8
Female		2.4	185.7	157.7
All Clothing	16.0	2.0	185.1	156.0
Housing	16.4	0.1	47.3	80.0
Fuel and Light	4.1	0.3	90.3	94.5
Furniture and Furnishings.	6.0	4.7	129.1	121.3
Miscellaneous	21.9	1.4	117.9	134.0
Total.	100.0	1.4	116.8	104.0

* Decrease.

Item of expenditure	Per cent of total expenditure	Per cent of increase from Dec. 1914 to		
		Dec. 1915	June 1920	Dec. 1920
Chicago, Illinois.				
Food	37.8	2.7	120.0	70.5
Clothing				
Male		8.5	207.7	166.5
Female		6.2	202.6	150.3
All Clothing	16.0	7.5	205.3	158.6
Housing	14.9	0.1*	35.1	48.9
Fuel and Light	6.0	0.9*	62.4	83.5
Furniture and Furnishings	4.4	5.9	215.9	205.8
Miscellaneous	20.9	3.0	87.5	95.5
Total	100.0	3.0	114.6	93.3
Detroit, Michigan.				
Food	35.2	4.1	132.0	75.6
Clothing				
Male		1.7	235.1	192.9
Female		3.0	186.1	162.4
All Clothing	16.6	2.3	208.8	176.1
Housing	17.5	2.1	68.8	108.1
Fuel and Light	6.3	1.6	74.9	104.1
Furniture and Furnishings	5.9	8.7	206.7	184.0
Miscellaneous	18.4	3.5	141.3	144.0
Total	100.0	3.5	136.0	118.6
District of Columbia (City of Washington)				
Food	38.2	0.6	108.4	79.0
Clothing	16.6	3.7	184.0	151.1
Housing	13.4	1.5*	15.6	24.7
Fuel and Light	5.3	0.0	53.7	68.0
Furniture and Furnishings	5.1	6.3	196.4	194.0
Miscellaneous	21.4	0.4	68.2	73.9
Total	100.0	1.0	101.3	87.8

* Decrease.

Wholesale Prices in Different Countries, 1913-1920.

IN the following tables, the more important index numbers of wholesale prices in different countries as compiled by recognised authorities have been reduced to a common base, in order that the trend of prices in the several countries may be directly compared. The table marked A gives the figures as actually published, and the one marked B gives the results obtained by shifting the base for each series of index numbers to the year 1913, i. e., by dividing the index for 1913 on the original base into the index for each year or month on that base. The series of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, of the Federal Reserve Board and of Sweden are published in the form of numbers with 1913 as the base period, and no shifting of base is therefore required.

The results in Table B are to be regarded only as approximations of the correct index numbers in the case of series constructed by averaging the relative prices of individual commodities (e. g., Canada, France and Italy). Index numbers based on aggregates of actual prices or relatives made from such aggregates of actual prices can readily be shifted to any desired base, e. g., the index numbers of the United States (Bureau of Labor Statistics), United Kingdom (Board of Trade), and New Zealand.

It should be understood also that the validity of the comparisons here made is affected by the wide difference in the number of commodities included in the different series of index numbers.

Notes are appended on the movement of wholesale prices in the more important countries during 1920.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

A. — Published Results.

YEAR	United Kingdom			Canada	United States of America						France	Italy	Japan		Sweden	India	South Africa	Australia	Netherlands	New Zealand	Denmark
	Board of Trade	Economist	Statist	Official	Bureau of Labour Statistics	Federal Reserve Board	Bradstreet	Dun (1)	Gibson	Annalist	Statistique générale	Bacchi	Department of Commerce	Bank of Tokio	Svensk Handelstidning	Official	Official (3)	Official	Official	Official	Finanstidende
Month (end of)	47 items	44 items	45 items	272 items	324 items	90 items	96 items	200 items	22 items	25 items	45 items	44 items	65 items	50 items	47 items	37 items	188 items	92 items	49 items	140 items	80 items
1913 Average	116.5	2692	85.0	135.5	100	100	9.18	120.9	58.1	140.0	115.6	126.0	135	132 2	100	—	—	1088	114	1051	100
1914 »	117.2	2658	86.0	136.1	99	(2)	8.91	122.1	60.8	146.1	117.9	119.8	129	126.3	116	100	1000	1149	121	1077	—
1915 »	143.9	3313	106.9	148.0	100	(2)	9.27	126.2	64.0	143.0	161.6	167.2	127	127.8	145	112	1109	1604	170	1269	142
1916 »	186.5	4322	135.2	182.0	123	(2)	11.94	147.9	74.9	175.7	217.6	251.6	147	154.9	185	125	1229	1504	266	1380	178
1917 »	243.0	5496	175.2	237.0	175	(2)	15.81	204.1	110.8	261.8	302.4	385 9	194	196 4	244	142	1470	1662	340	1555	249
1918 »	267.4	6056	192.5	278.3	196	(2)	18.74	229.2	122.8	287.1	392.1	515.5	266	259 0	339	174	1663	1934	454	1809	302
1919 »	296.5	6332	205.6	293.2	212	217	18.73	230.2	121.4	295.6	411.8	460.9	525	316.6	330	200	1870	2055	349	1834	295
1920 Jan.	356.6	7768	245.3	336.4	248	242	20.87	247.4	130.4	294.9	562.7	634.7	407	398.0	319	218	2360	2311	331	1999	340
» Feb.	368.7	8160	260.4	343.5	249	242	20.79	253.7	127.3	296.7	603.3	701.0	419	414.6	342	209	—	2354	329	2039	(2)
» Mar.	375.2	8352	261.4	349.0	253	248	20.71	253.0	133.8	298.9	641.0	780 0	420	425 2	354	198	—	2383	331	2123	(2)
» Apr	374.4	8232	266.1	353.1	265	263	20.73	257.9	417.4	321.0	679.2	855.7	403	397.2	354	200	2500	2477	388	2153	(2)
» May	371.9	8199	260.0	356.6	272	264	19.87	263.3	155.4	321.9	635.9	830.3	366	359.7	361	210	-	2568	399	2167	(2)
» June	393.5	7847	254.7	349.3	269	258	19.35	262.1	154.7	281.8	569.6	774.7	341	327 7	366	206	—	2657	339	2157	383
» July	404.3	7876	254.6	346.8	262	250	18.83	260.4	141.9	307.7	572.9	772.4	--	316 6	364	209	2608	2671	343	2262	385
» Aug.	379.4	7743	253.5	330.2	250	234	17.97	252.3	125.8	309.8	579 5	795.9	—	311 0	365	208	—	2692	330	—	394
» Sept.	385.5	7645	248.7	326.6	242	226	16.91	248.2	118.5	268.1	607.7	832.2	—	305 0	362	208	—	—	328	—	398
» Oct.	377.5	7175	239.9	317.6	225	208	15.67	237.3	106.9	247.1	581.5	834.0	—	298.5	346	206	—	—	323	—	403
» Nov.	364.4	6594	223.8	304.2	207	190	13.62	227.2	95 7	218.6	532.0	829.6	—	292.7	331	194	—	—	297	—	374
» Dec.	352.2	5924	207.2	290.5	189	171	12.66	211.6	86.0	292.7	502.0	800.6	—	272.9	299	180	—	—	283	—	341

(1) Figures for 1920 relate to the 1st of each month. — (2) No figures published. — (3) No figures published for 1913. Base year = 1914.

B. — EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE OF 1913.

YEAR / Month (end of)	United Kingdom			Canada	United States of America						France	Italy	Japan		Sweden	India	South Africa	Australia	Netherlands	New Zealand	Denmark
	Board of Trade	Economist	Statist	Official	Bureau of Labour Statistics	Federal Reserve Board	Bradstreet	Dun (1)	Gibson	Annalist	Statistique générale	Bacchi	Department of Commerce	Bank of Tokio	Svensk Handelstidning	Official (3)	Official	Official	Official	Finanstidende	Official
1913 Average	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100	100.0	100.0	100 0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	—	—	100.0	100	100.0	100
1914 »	100.6	98.7	101.2	100.4	99	(2)	97.0	109.2	105 0	104.4	102.0	95.1	96.3	95.5	116	100	1000	105.6	106	102.5	—
1915 »	123.5	123.1	125.8	109.2	100	(2)	108.1	104.4	101.2	102.2	139.8	132.7	94.8	96.7	145	112	1109	147.4	149	120.7	142
1916 »	160.1	160.5	159.5	134.3	123	(2)	130.0	122.3	128.9	125.6	187.0	199.7	109.0	117.2	185	125	1229	138.2	233	131.3	178
1917 »	208.6	204 1	206.1	174.9	175	(2)	172.2	168.7	191.0	187.1	261.6	306.3	143.7	148.5	244	142	1470	152.8	298	148.0	249
1918 »	229.5	224.9	226.5	205.4	196	(2)	204.0	190.0	211.3	205.2	339.2	409.1	200.0	195.9	339	118	1663	177.8	398	172.1	302
1919 »	254.3	235.2	241.9	216.4	212	217	204.0	190.3	209.0	211.3	355.6	365.8	240.7	239.5	330	200	1870	188.9	306	174.5	295
1920 Jan.	306.0	288.5	288.6	248.3	248	242	227.2	204.5	224.4	210.1	406.9	503.7	301.5	301.1	319	218	2360	212.4	293	190.2	340
» Feb.	316.4	303.1	306.3	253.5	249	242	226.4	209,8	219.1	211.9	521.9	556.3	310.4	313.6	342	209	—	216.4	289	194.0	—
» Mar.	322 1	310 2	308.0	257.6	253	248	225.5	209.0	230.3	213.4	554.5	619.0	310.5	321.6	354	198	—	219.2	290	202.0	—
» Apr.	321.4	305.7	313.1	260.6	265	263	225.7	213.2	253.7	229.3	587.5	679.1	298.5	300.5	354	200	2500	227.7	340	204.8	—
» May	319.2	304.5	305.9	263.2	272	264	216.4	217.8	267.2	229.9	553.0	659.0	269.6	272 1	361	210	—	236.0	350	206.2	—
» June	337.8	291.4	300.8	257.8	269	258	210.7	217.0	266.0	201.2	492.7	614 8	252.6	247.9	366	206	—	244 2	297	205.2	383
» July	346.8	292.5	299.5	255.9	262	250	205.0	215.2	244.2	219.8	495.6	613.0	—	239.5	364	209	2608	245.4	301	215.1	385
» Aug.	325.7	287.6	298.2	243.7	250	234	195.7	208 5	216 6	221.3	501.3	632.0	—	235.0	365	208	—	246.6	289	—	394
» Sept.	330.8	284.0	292.6	241.0	242	226	184.1	205.3	204 0	196.5	525.7	660.5	—	230.7	362	208	—	—	288	—	398
» Oct.	324.0	266.5	282.2	230.7	225	208	170.6	196.3	164.0	176.5	501.7	665.0	—	225.8	346	206	—	—	283	—	403
» Nov.	312.8	245.0	263.3	223.4	207	190	153.2	187.9	156.2	201.1	460.2	658.2	—	221.4	331	194	—	—	261	—	374
» Dec.	302.3	220.0	243.8	214.4	189	171	137.8	175.0	148.0	209.9	434.3	635.0	—	205.7	299	180	—	—	248	—	341

(1) Figures for 1920 relate to the 1st of each month. — (2) No figures published. — (3) No figures published for 1913. Base year = 1914.

CANADA.

The course of wholesale prices in Canada, as shown by the index number published by the Canadian Government, has roughly followed that of the United States of America (see note on U.S.A. p. 114). A maximum point of 357 was reached in May 1920 (average 1890 - 1899 = 100), and each subsequent month registered a decline until at November the index number stood at 290.5.

The index numbers for the different groups are shown in the following table :—

Groups	Jan. 1920	May 1920	Sep. 1920	Oct. 1920	Nov. 1920	Dec. 1920
Grains and Fodder	368.4	412.6	348.1	313.9	278.3	261.1
Animals and Fats	350.0	371.8	363.4	348.4	331.0	320.8
Dairy Products	352.3	292.0	325.5	318.7	322.1	340.0
Fish	245.1	286.6	249.5	249.5	243.2	236.5
Fruits and Vegetables	317.0	428.5	216.3	211.2	242.5	226.1
Groceries, Tea, etc.	282.3	316.6	300.8	287.3	271.3	256.3
Textiles	414.0	422.0	387.4	382.4	357.5	328.6
Hides, Leather, Boots	387.6	352.0	264.4	255.8	250.7	231.8
Metals	227.4	253.1	246.1	251.6	244.4	230.4
Implements	248.4	250.3	273.4	273.2	273.2	273.2
Fuel and Lighting	251.1	304.1	349.9	249.2	319.3	317.6
Building Materials	345.7	403.0	385 6	375.3	368.5	356.5
House Furnishings	363.5	389.2	357.6	390.3	390.2	390.2
Drugs and Chemicals	215.3	230.2	245.4	238.6	232.5	228.1
Miscellaneous	619.6	451.4	401.2	400.3	301.3	277.5
All	336.4	356.6	326.6	317.6	304.2	290.5

The first six groups, comprising articles of food, all stood at a lower level at the end of the year than at the beginning. Textiles, and Hides and Leather are the only two of the remaining groups which showed a fall at the end of the year compared with the beginning, all the remainder having increased. For the general index number prices declined nearly 15 % during the year, or nearly 19 % since the maximum point in May.

FRANCE.

The index numbers of Wholesale Prices published by "La Statistique Générale de la France" increased throughout the first four months of 1920. In May a fall set in which, apart from a slight increase in September, continued throughout the year. As compared with the peak of high prices reached on April last it shows a fall of 26.1 per cent. The greatest fall has been in Textiles which in December were just half the price of April. The prices of foodstuffs have moved in an irregular manner.

The following table shows the index numbers for the chief groups of commodities, the base period being the average of the ten years 1901-1910.

1920	FOODS				MATERIALS				Grand total
	Vegetable Food	Animal Food	Sugar, Coffee and Cocoa	All Foods	Metals and Minerals	Textiles	Sundries	Total	
Jan.	518.3	533.9	443.9	509.7	495.4	920.8	511.5	605.2	562.7
Feb.	568.7	571.0	462.4	548.3	532.9	968.9	552.9	647.2	603.3
March	619.6	590.1	465.4	576.9	551.7	1035.0	603.0	692.3	641.0
April	612.8	616.3	474.2	586.5	608.0	1114.7	657.6	753.4	679.2
May	575.4	565.8	449.2	546.3	550.8	983.5	660.9	707.5	635.9
June	480.5	568.8	415.3	502.8	513.1	859.3	569.2	623.1	569.6
July	444.4	590.8	429.7	500.0	563.0	873.0	550.3	631.3	572.9
Aug.	430.8	607.4	423.2	500.0	569.8	862.5	576.4	643.2	579.5
Sept.	494.1	626.6	577.1	563.6	561.1	836.3	594.0	642.9	607.7
Oct.	504.8	629.4	447.8	543.2	544.1	745.0	579.6	609.3	581.5
Nov.	468.5	612.3	400.0	512.3	509.1	597.1	547.8	548.8	502.6
Dec.	431.4	607.8	376.4	490.9	462.4	556.3	518.6	512.0	469.6

INDIA.

Wholesale prices in India have risen much less than in European countries, the level of prices throughout 1920 being about double that of July 1914. The following table shows the index numbers of wholesale prices for different groups of commodities during 1920. A general tendency towards lower prices made itself felt during 1920, the level at the end of the year being represented by an index number of 180, as compared with 218 at the beginning of the year.

The largest rise in prices since 1914 occured in sugar and in cotton goods, while hides, skins and jute are now considerably below their pre-war price. Tea, it will be noted, now approaches half its pre-war price.

ITALY.

The rise in wholesale prices in Italy appears to have been greater than in any of the other countries for which index numbers are given in the above Tables A and B, prices having risen to nearly seven times their pre-war level. According to the index number published by "Riccardo Bacchi" prices rose throughout the first four months of 1920, declined during the next three months, again rose in August, September and October, and fell substantially by the end of December. The "Cereals and Meat" group has increased almost continuously throughout the year, the decline in the summer months and at the end of the year being entirely due to the fall in price of textiles, metals and minerals. The following table (p. 112) gives the figures for each of the 5 groups into which the commodities are divided.

GROUP INDEX NUMBERS — CALCUTTA, INDIA, DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICS
(End of July, 1914 = 100).

Date	Building Materials	Manufactured articles	Metals	Hides and Skins	Cotton manufactures	Raw cotton	Jute manufactures	Other textiles	Oils	Raw Jute	Oils, Seeds	Tea	Sugar	Pulses	Cereals	Others foods
End of July, 1914 .	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100 [1]
August, 1918 . . .	—	—	317	83	—	240	328	240	—	89	96	—	95	179	—	119 [1]
1920																
January.	118	225	226	253	356	214	181	153	159	125	200	96	377	207	167	204
February	118	217	215	233	364	185	164	158	155	123	190	92	363	191	158	199
March	127	218	222	211	351	179	150	159	135	118	166	87	321	160	151	192
April	114	201	219	209	357	158	170	161	116	119	163	90	377	159	156	185
May	128	215	248	160	365	135	142	164	123	120	169	90	511	150	157	183
June	131	233	244	116	364	144	147	164	119	83	171	73	482	149	156	180
July	139	235	249	100	364	132	151	168	119	89	169	74	503	159	151	188
August	142	235	257	99	360	139	163	168	115	91	167	72	477	160	154	185
September	158	237	245	105	347	154	163	164	115	105	179	65	456	170	154	186
October	154	282	245	96	343	142	136	164	132	104	184	64	392	169	155	178
November	161	246	243	89	314	133	118	164	118	90	163	62	348	168	150	173
December	161	229	242	90	133	116	107	156	124	83	152	69	273	149	139	160

(1) Includes pulses

GROUP INDEX NUMBERS, ITALY

Date	Cereals and meats	Other foodstuffs	Textiles	Minerals and metals	Other goods	All.
1920.						
January	363	396	777	671	418	504
February	365	399	840	857	443	556
March	381	418	962	996	489	619
April	395	494	,064	1,076	535	679
May	441	499	840	1,088	525	659
June	445	511	742	917	534	615
July	434	508	759	903	542	613
August	445	510	794	957	540	632
September	459	520	837	1,040	541	660
October	446	502	810	1,092	572	665
November	475	535	763	1,009	585	658
December	481	531	674	928	624	635

SWEDEN.

The index number published by the Svensk Handelstedning is based on average prices for the 12 months ended June 30, 1914. Taking this average as 100, the fluctuations in the different groups are shown in the table below, during the last 12 months.

1920	Vegetable Food	Animal Food	Raw Materials for Agriculture	Coal	Oils	Metals	Building Materials	Textiles	Hides & Leather	Paper Pulp	Total
Jan.	248	328	317	864	204	248	295	353	258	388	319
Feb.	273	305	319	936	226	259	371	380	269	476	342
Mar.	270	304	318	960	275	291	387	380	268	632	354
Apl.	265	284	320	1008	275	283	367	368	263	767	354
May	269	283	320	1069	275	324	367	374	252	788	361
June	250	273	313	1252	303	318	381	368	212	778	366
July	252	277	312	1252	303	293	388	306	202	767	363
Aug.	271	307	310	1117	322	286	388	328	191	756	365
Sept.	273	312	308	1085	340	273	388	310	180	753	362
Oct.	258	306	309	1026	340	256	390	250	166	740	346
Nov.	264	290	303	910	332	253	387	233	161	609	331
Dec.	247	283	301	602	328	247	362	206	156	598	299

Prices slowly increased from a level of 317 at the end of 1919 to 366 at the end of June, fluctuated slightly in the next 3 months and fell from a level of 362 in September to 299 in December.

The rise during the earlier months was chiefly in Coal, Oil, Paper Pulp, and Building Materials. Vegetable foods rose slightly, while animal foods experienced a substantial fall. The substantial slump in the last few months was due primarily to a great fall in the price of coal and textiles — the former having fallen from an index figure of 1252 in July to 602 in December, and the latter from 374 in May to 206 in December. Hides and Leather and Paper Pulp also declined continuously from April. Vegetable Foods and Oils are the only groups which did not experience any substantial drop during the year.

UNITED KINGDOM.

The course of wholesale prices in the United Kingdom during the year 1920 showed a steady rise during the first few months of the year followed by a gradual fall till the end of the year. Of the three index numbers published in the United Kingdom, those of the "Economist" and "Statist" reached a maximum at the end of March and April respectively, while the index number of the Board of Trade reached a maximum in the month of July. At the end of March the "Economist" index number of the general level of prices stood at 313 compared with 100 in 1913. At the end of December this had fallen to 223. The following table published by the "Economist" gives a clear view of the course of prices since the Armistice.

Group	Nov. 1918	Dec. 1919	Mar. 1920	Nov. 1920	Dec. 1920
Cereals and Meat	100	112	117	115	104
Other Foods.....	100	113	116	111	103
Textiles.....	100	132	161	89	69
Minerals.....	100	126	138	139	134
Miscellaneous	100	104	123	96	92
All items.....	100	118	134	106	95

Taking the level of prices at the end of November 1918 as 100, the level at the end of 1920 had fallen to 95, but if the different groups of commodities are considered, it will be seen that this drop is chiefly due to the textile group, which fell from a maximum of 161 in March to 69 at the end of December. The "Cereals and Meat" group and the "Other Food" group show much smaller falls. The only group which has not shown the same tendency to decline rapidly is the minerals group, which rose up to the end of October and has declined slightly in the last two months.

UNITED STATES.

All of the numerous index numbers published in the United States to show the movements of wholesale prices show a steady increase in prices up to May or June, followed by a decline at a much quicker rate in subsequent months.

Taking the one published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as an example — probably the most reliable one — the following table shows the movement of prices in the different groups of commodities for certain months in 1920 (base 1913 = 100).

Group	Dec. 1919	Apr. 1920	May 1920	June 1920	July 1920	Aug. 1920	Sep. 1920	Oct. 1920	Nov. 1920	Dec. 1920
Farm products	244	246	244	243	236	222	210	182	165	144
Food etc.	234	270	287	279	268	235	223	204	195	172
Cloths and Clothing	335	353	347	335	317	299	278	257	234	220
Fuel and Lighting	181	213	235	246	252	268	284	282	258	236
Metals and Metal Products	169	195	193	190	191	193	192	184	170	157
Lumber and Building Materials	253	341	341	337	333	328	318	313	274	206
Chemicals and Drugs	179	212	215	218	217	216	222	286	207	188
House-furnishing Goods	303	331	339	362	362	363	371	371	369	346
Miscellaneous	220	238	246	247	243	240	239	229	220	205
All commodities	238	265	272	269	262	250	242	225	207	189

The highest level of prices since 1913 was reached in May 1920, when the index number stood at 272. For the different groups, however, May was the month of maximum prices for the "Food, etc." group and the "Lumber and Building Materials" group only, the "Cloths and Clothing" group and "Metals" reaching a maximum in April and "Fuel and Lighting" in October.

The greatest decline has been in farm products, for which the index number rose slightly from 244 in December to 246 in April, but fell rapidly in the latter months of the year to 165 in November and 144 in December, a decline of over 40 in the year. Foods have declined nearly 30 during the year; since May, when the maximum was reached, a decline from 287 to 172 or 40 % was recorded. The "Fuel and Lighting" group continued to increase till September, falling slightly in subsequent months; at the end of the year prices were substantially higher than a year ago. This is also true of the "Chemicals" and "House-furnishing" groups. For all commodities a decline of about 21 % was recorded during the year, or if reckoned from the maximum point in May, a fall of 30%.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

Statistics of Unemployment among Workers' Organisations.

AMONG the numerous classes of statistics of unemployment none is better known or more frequently quoted than that which shows the number of trade unionists reported to be out of work by different trade unions. Although records of unemployment among their members have generally been kept by trade unions since their earliest days, it is only within the last 15 years or so that Governments have commenced the collection and publication of such statistics. The United Kingdom and France are two exceptions: the British records go back 50 years (to the year 1871) and the French records to 1894. New York State commenced the publication of such figures in 1899, Belgium in 1902, Germany in 1903, Massachusetts in 1908, Denmark in 1910, Sweden and the Netherlands in 1911, Austria in 1914 and Canada in 1915. In 1914, twelve countries were publishing trade union statistics of unemployment. During the war, however, four countries ceased the publication of these statistics, viz., France, Belgium, Austria and New York State, and one new country commenced, Canada. In December 1920 Belgium resumed the publication of unemployment statistics of its Unemployment Funds. At the present time, therefore, 9 Governments have published regularly statistics showing the number and percentage of trade unionists unemployed, viz., United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, Canada, Massachusetts, Australia.

The following table (I) shows comparative figures for each of these 9 countries from 1913 to 1920 (Canada from 1915).

The first point of importance with regard to these figures is the great increase in the number of workpeople covered. For the eight countries for which figures are available for the years 1913 to 1920 (i. e. all except Canada), the number of work-people covered by the returns is shown in Table II to the nearest thousand.

TABLE I. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG TRADE UNIONS.

DATE	United Kingdom		Germany		Denmark		Netherlands			Norway		Sweden		Canada		Massachusetts		Australia	
	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Index number of unemployment (2)	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed	Numbers covered	Percentage Unemployed
1913 Average	927,000	2.1	1,973,000	2.9	117,000	7.5	65,000	5.1	5.0	16,000	1.8	55,000	4.4	—	—	175,000	6.3	246,000	6.5
1914 »	970,000	3 3	1,635,000	7.2	128,000	9.9	76,000	16.2	13.8	16,000	2.4	61,000	6.7	—	—	172,000	10.4	269,000	8.3
1915 »	922.000	1.1	1,019,000	3.2	134,000	7.7	106,000	14.6	12.0	16,000	2.2	62,000	7.8	56,000	8.0	170,000	7.7	276,000	9.3
1916 »	943,000	0.4	818,000	2.2	145,000	4.9	132,000	5.8	5.1	17,000	0.9	68,000	4.2	105,000	1.9	176,000	3.0	290,000	5.8
1917 »	966,000	0.6	939,000	1.0	160,000	9.2	148,000	9.6	6.5	18,000	1.2	87,000	3.9	128,000	1.9	189,000	4.2	287,000	7.1
1918 »	1,108,000	0.8	1,248,000	1.2	218,000	17.4	190,000	10.0	7.5	18,000	1.9	105,000	4.4	164,000	1.4	222,000	2.9	300,000	5.8
1919 »	1,338,000	2.4	3,686,000	3 7	296,000	10.7	300,000	8.9	7.7	18,000	1.9	121,000	5.5	177,000	3.6	259,000	5.3	310,000	6.6
End of																			
Jan. 1920	1,564.000	2.9	4,765,000	3.4	273,000	13.2	379,000	10.6	8.7	19,000	2.4	120,000	7.6	173,000	4.3	—	—	—	—
Feb.	1,539,000	1.6	4,859,000	2.9	295,000	9.6	397,000	8.5	6.9	19,000	1.9	110,000	7.5	181,000	4.3	—	—	—	—
Mar.	1,567,000	1.1	4,939,000	1.9	295,000	6.7	404,000	7.7	6.4	19,000	1.5	126,000	4.5	171,000	3.4	281,000	4.1	329,000	5.6
Apl.	1,561,000	0.9	5,027,000	2.0	314,000	3.5	398,000	8.0	6.7	18,000	1.3	114,000	3.5	182,000	2.8	—	—	—	—
May	1,572,000	1.1	5,234,000	2.7	304,000	2.8	397,000	7.3	6.2	18,000	0.9	121,000	2.9	202,000	2.9	—	—	—	—
June	1,603,000	1.2	5,600,000	3.9	306,000	2.1	407,000	5.9	5.0	18,000	0.7	126,000	3.4	194,000	2.5	248,000	14.6	343,000	6.2
July	1,498,000	1.4	5,074,000	6.0	310,000	2.1	401,000	4.9	4.2	19,000	1.1	125,000	2.8	186,000	2.6	—	—	—	—
Aug.	1,669,000	1.6	5,555,000	5.9	304,000	2.4	—	—	—	19,000	1.4	134,000	3.0	187,000	4.0	—	—	—	—
Sept.	1,636,000	2.2	5,356,000	4.5	308,000	2.8				18,000	1.7	151,000	2,9	189,000	3.2	255,000	16.4		
Oct.	[1]1,401,000	[2]5.3	5,233,000	4.2	315,000	3.6				19,000	2.1	142,000	4.3	215,000	6.0	—	—		
Nov.	1,612,000	3.7	5,629,000	3.9	317,000	6.1				19,000	3.1		7.0	216,000	10.0	—	—		
Dec.	1,535,000	6.1	5,545,000	4.1	311,000	15.1							15.8			199,000	[3]26.0		

[1] Excluding coalmining. — [2] This number is the percentage which the total number of days of unemployment in the month bears to the total no. of working days in the month. — [3] Provisional number.

TABLE II. NUMBER OF WORKPEOPLE COVERED (IN EIGHT COUNTRIES

Year (1)	No. of Workpeople covered (2)
1913	3,587,000
1914	3,341,000
1915	2,719,000
1916	2,604,000
1917	2,811,000
1918	3,427,000
1919	6,330,000
1920	8,707,000

For the years 1913 to 1919, the figures in Column 2 are the average numbers throughout the year, while for 1920, the figure is the total for the last month available.

It will be seen that the total declined continously from 1913 to 1916, due to the effects of the war in withdrawing many workers from industrial life. A slight increase took place in 1917 and 1918, followed by an increase of nearly 3,000,000 in 1919, and a further increase of over 2,000,000 in 1920. In 1920, the number of workpeople covered was in these countries nearly 2½ times the number covered in 1913.

This increase may be due to two causes, first, the great growth in trade unionism during the period, and secondly, the greater number of trade unions who now make returns of their unemployed members. To estimate the relative effect of these two factors, the following table is given which shows, for the years 1913 and 1919, the total reported membership of *all* trade unions, and the total membership of trade unions included in the unemployment returns. The figures of total reported membership of trade unions relate to the end of the year, while the other figures, as stated above, are an average over the whole year. Figures of total membership at the end of 1920 are not yet available.

TABLE III. COMPARISON OF TOTAL MEMBERSHIP WITH MEMBERSHIP COVERED BY UNEMPLOYMENT RETURNS.

Year (1)	Total Membership (2)	Membership covered by returns (3)	Percentage of Column 3 to Column 2 (4)
1913	9,080,000	3,587,000	39.5
1919	18,436,000	6,330,000	34.3
Increase	103 %	76 %	—

Whereas almost 40 % of the organised workers were reported on in 1913, the figure in 1919 was a little over a third (or 34.3 %). If we assume that the unions making returns in 1913 continued to do so in 1919 and increased in membership at the same rate as all trade unions, the number covered by the returns in 1919 would be 7,281,000, instead of 6,330,000. It is therefore highly probable that the enormous increase is due to the general growth of trade unionism and not to any general increase in the number of unions furnishing information as to the unemployment of their members.

In comparing their statistics for the different countries account must be taken of the important differences in methods of collection which prevent the statistics being internationally comparable. The first important distinction is that some countries confine their returns to unions which pay unemployment benefit to their members, while others include also unions who do not. Canada, Massachusetts, Australia, Netherlands and Sweden are in the latter category, while the United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark and Norway confine their returns to unions paying unemployment benefit. It is obvious that unions which pay unemployment benefit to their members are able to furnish more accurate returns than unions who do not pay such benefit, for in many cases the only figures which the latter can furnish are based on estimates and their returns are likely to be more unreliable and irregular. Of the above 8,451,000 workers (Table II), 7,332,000 were in unions which pay benefits to their members when unemployed, and only 1,120,000 in unions which either do or do not pay such benefits. It is in fact an indispensable condition for the trustworthiness of statistics of this kind that they should be confined to trade unions which pay unemployment benefit.

Again, the definition of unemployment differs. Exact information is not available as to the definitions adopted in the different countries, but it may be stated that invariably unemployment directly due to strike, lock-out, and sickness is excluded. Generally also, the figures are limited to unemployment for a particular day, though the Netherlands statistics include persons unemployed for less than one whole day, while Australia excludes all cases of unemployment for 3 days or less in a fixed week.

In every case, the returns are made monthly, with the exception of Australia and Massachusetts, where the returns are quarterly, and all the returns relate to the end of the month.

The chief cause, however, of the non-comparability of the figures between different countries is the varying degree in which they cover the ground. The different trades are represented in a disproportionate manner. In the following table, a comparison is made of the percentage number of workpeople in the different trade-groups for the

latest date for which a classification is available. In several countries, large unions of unskilled workers figure which it is impossible to allot to different trade groups, and other difficulties arise in classifying the trades in a uniform manner. The figures, do, however, show approximately the relative importance of the various trade groups.

TABLE IV. — SHOWING THE PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL WORKPEOPLE COVERED IN CERTAIN TRADE GROUPS.

Trade Group	United Kingdom	Sweden	Norway	Canada	Australia	Netherlands	Denmark	Massachusetts	Germany
Building & Woodworking	12.1	17.0	19.6	17.2	16.2	25.0	14.3	28.5	21.5
Metal Trades	39.0	28 1	54.3	10.3	12.9	14.4	9.3	11.0	30.8
Mining	11.3	1.2	—	5.6	9.2	0.2	—	—	—
Textile	15.0	4 3	—	2.3	—	.7.0	3.5	8.4	8.6
Paper & Printing	6.4	2.6	18.7	7.4	3.4	2.9	3.0	3.6	3.2
Food, Drink & Tobacco	9.3	7.9	2.7	2 2	9.7	10.0	8.3	2.1	4.2
Transport ..	—	—	—	40.3	3.6	12.3	—	11.0	10.6
Clothing ...	13.1	8.0	4.8	2.8	8.7	2.5	7.3	1[illegible].1	2.9
Miscellaneous	2.8	30.9	—	11.9	36.3	25.7	54.3*	18.3	18.2
Total..	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Thus the metal trades represented about 54 per cent. of all workpeople covered in Norway, 39 per cent. in the U. K. and 31 per cent. in Germany, while the proportion was 11 per cent in Massachusetts, 10 per cent. in Canada and 9 per cent in Denmark. The building trades are represented in proportions varying from about 12 per cent. in the

* General Labourers (trade not specified).

United Kingdom to 28 per cent. in Massachusetts. The transport trades are not represented at all in the returns of the United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway and Denmark, while they form 40 per cent of the returns in Canada. In most countries agriculture is not represented at all. It will thus be seen that in some countries specially large representation is given to trades like building, woodworking and transport, which are characterised by large fluctuations of employment, and consequently the average for all trades in one country is not comparable with that in another.

It should, however, be remarked that although trade union statistics of unemployment have played a very important rôle in the past, it is to other forms of information that we must probably look in the future for statistics of unemployment. In many countries, provision of out of-work-benefits by trade unions is giving way to an organised system of state-assisted or state-controlled unemployment insurance. As stated above, statistics of unemployment derived from trade unions are of little value unless they are based upon unemployment benefits paid to those out of work. In the United Kingdom, Italy and Austria, state schemes of unemployment insurance to be worked through trade unions have recently been introduced, and in Belgium, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries and other States, systems of State assistance to trade unions are in force. Bills to introduce systems of unemployment insurance have already been prepared in Germany, and certain American States, and legislation is under consideration in many other countries. One of the Recommendations of the Washington Labour Conference was that each State should establish an effective system of unemployment insurance through a Government system or through a system of Government subventions to associations paying unemployment benefits.

It is, therefore, to the development of unemployment insurance that we must look in future, and the trade unions' statistics of unemployment as such will probably recede further into the background.

PROTECTION OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

New British Legislation affecting Women and Young Persons.

Two Acts have been adopted by the British Parliament in order to embody in law certain provisions of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Washington and Genoa Conferences. These are the Women, Young Persons and Children (Employment) Act, 1920, and the Women and Young Persons (Employment in Lead Processes) Act, 1920 (both dated 23rd December).

The first of these Acts brings the British law into conformity with the Washington Conventions respecting the Minimum Age for Admission of Children to Industrial Employment, the Night Work of Young Persons employed in Industry, and the Night Work of Women employed in Industry, and with the Genoa Convention fixing the Minimum Age for the Admission of Children to Employment at Sea. This Act gave rise to considerable controversy during its passage through Parliament, owing to certain provisions extraneous to its ostensible purpose which were included in it. The Bill was first introduced in May 1920, and in its original form dealt only with the Washington Conventions, the Genoa Convention not having at that time been adopted. No exception was taken by any Party in the House of Commons to the provisions of the Bill tending to bring the Washington Conventions into operation, but a clause had been inserted in the Bill which did not arise out of the Washington Conventions, and which involved the controversial question of the employment of women in two shifts. Before the war the British Factory Act was the most rigid in existence. It provided that women and young persons should be employed only between certain fixed hours. In the Factory Acts of other countries the employer was usually left some latitude of choice as regards the actual hours of beginning and ceasing work, provided that a legal maximum was not exceeded and that certain hours of the night were excluded from the working period. The British Factory Act, on the other hand, required the employer to choose one of three fixed periods of employment for his women workers and young persons, namely, from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., 7 a. m. to 7 p. m.,

or 8 a. m. to 8 p. m., with a shorter day on Saturday. In textile factories only the first two periods were allowed. Deducting meal times the total daily hours were 10½ (10 hours in textile factories). The proposal to bring the 8-hour day into operation for women and men alike, raised the question whether it should not be permissible for women and young persons to be employed in two shifts of not more than 8 hours each instead of adhering to the rigid system of the old Factory Act. During the war exemptions were allowed, permitting employment in shifts and night work for women. When the question arose of abolishing these temporary war expedients, two alternatives were possible : firstly, the introduction of an 8-hour day instead of the former 10½-hour day — the workers working in one shift taken between certain outside limits ; secondly, to permit two shifts in a general way or in certain circumstances.

The British Government took the line that women and young persons should be permitted to work any time between 6 in the morning and 10 in the evening, provided that their total shift did not exceed 8 hours. They were led to this conclusion largely by the fact that the immediate abolition of existing emergency orders permitting work in two shifts would have thrown a considerable number of women out of work. A provision was consequently inserted in the Women, Young Persons and Children (Employment) Bill, the effect of which would have been to allow two shifts of not more than 8 hours each to be worked at the employer's discretion, and incidentally to postpone from 8 to 10 p. m. the latest hour in the evening for the employment of women and young persons (1). This was regarded as a reactionary step and objected to very strongly, particularly by the textile trade unions. An objection in principle was raised by the British Section of the International Association for Labour Legislation to the effect that the clause permitting the two-shift system should be taken out of the Bill for bringing the Washington Conventions into effect, and if necessary treated separately, on its merits, in another Bill. Although the clause did not contravene any of the provisions of the Washington Conventions, it did not result necessarily from any of them. It did not affect the Conventions nor was it affected by them. It was therefore urged that to introduce a clause of so controversial a nature into a Bill having the express purpose stated in the preamble of carrying out the Conventions, would be damaging to the prestige of the Washington Conference, since it would be considered that the decisions of the Conference had the result of introducing

(1) The Factory Act of 1901 allowed women to be employed in certain circumstances on overtime, but not beyond 10 p. m. Young persons, i. e., persons of from 14 to 18, were never allowed to work after 8 p. m.

reactionary provisions into British factory legislation. As a result of these attacks the clause was deleted from the Bill in the Committee stage.

The Government were, however, determined to maintain some provision on the lines suggested. Before proceeding with the Bill the Home Secretary consequently appointed a Departmental Committee "to consider whether it is desirable that the Factory and Workshop Act should be so amended as to allow women and young persons to be employed in the system of two day-shifts, and if so what should be the length of the shifts and the time for beginning and ceasing work". This Committee presented its report at the beginning of November. The evidence placed before it as to the wishes of women workers themselves and as to the effect upon their health of working in two shifts, and particulary of remaining at work so late as 10 p. m., was of a contradictory nature. The Committee did not recommend that the original clause giving full discretion to employers should be retained in the Bill, but proposed that the Secretary of State should be given power to issue orders permitting the two day-shift system to be adopted in individual factories or groups of factories, and to impose conditions (such as the institution of welfare arrangements) upon the granting of such orders. They recommended that this power should be given for a limited period of 5 years, before the end of which term the whole question should be reconsidered in the light of experience gained.

An amendment somewhat on these lines was moved when the Bill was brought forward for further consideration in the autumn session of Parliament. The amendment allowed the Secretary of State to make orders authorising the employment of women and young persons over 16 in two shifts only in cases of a joint application to that effect made by the employer or employers concerned and the majority of the workpeople affected. Representatives of the textile industry in Parliament, both employers and workers, still strongly objected, principally on the ground that under the clause single firms might procure permission to work two shifts and thus compete unfairly with the rest of the industry. They succeeded in procuring the addition to the clause of a proviso which gives an industry as a whole power to veto an order of the Home Secretary applying to any particular firm or firms in that industry. The importance of the amendment was not overlooked in the debate. It gives joint representative bodies of employers and workers in any industry (which in some cases will be the Whitley Councils) statutory power to govern their own affairs on the matter at issue, regardless of the wishes of the Government. This is a remarkable innovation in British factory legislation. The result of it is that, under the Act as finally adopted, the power of the Secretary of State to issue two-shift orders on the joint

application of the employers and workers immediately concerned is limited by the power of "organisations representing a majority of the employers and workers in the industry concerned" to veto, by a joint representation, the making of any such order and to cancel orders previously made affecting factories in the industry. The Act further provides that the Secretary of State may attach such conditions as he considers necessary to the issuing of an order under it. The whole section dealing with orders on the two-shift system is frankly experimental in character. It, and any orders issued under it, are to remain in force for five years only.

The remaining provisions of the Act have merely the effect of bringing into operation certain provisions of the Washington Conventions which differed from existing provisions of British law. Since, while the Bill was under consideration, the Genoa Conference had adopted a draft Convention relating to the Minimum Age for the Admission of Children to Employment at Sea, the provisions of this Convention also were added to the Bill during the autumn session. The Act therefore provides in accordance with these Conventions that no child under 14 years of age shall be employed in any industrial undertaking or on vessels. It prohibits the night work of young persons under 18 in industrial undertakings, subject to exceptions in the case of boys over 16 in certain continous processes, and it prohibits the night work of women in industrial undertakings. Although the night work of women and young persons was already prohibited in general under the British Factory Act, it was necessary to overrule certain provisions of the Act which allowed exceptions to the night work of young persons of a wider nature than those permitted by the Convention, and it was also necessary to make the terms of the Factory Acts in respect of night work apply as widely as the Washington Convention, since the definition of industrial undertakings in the Convention is wider than that of factories and workshops coming under the existing British Factory Acts.

The Act "for the better protection of women and young persons against lead-poisoning" brings into effect a Recommendation adopted at the Washington Conference. It introduces a new system into British legislation for the protection of workers in unhealthy industries. Formerly each industry was regulated separately by regulations issued by the Secretary of State under Section 79 of the Factory Act of 1901. The new act imposes, over and above any such regulations for particular trades, a set of general provisions to be observed in all places where women or young persons under 18 are employed in any process involving the use of lead compounds, even where the place of employment is not technically a "factory or workshop" coming under the Factory Act. Thus as far as lead processes are concerned the Act amounts to an important extension of the Factory

Acts, and the powers of inspectors are extended beyond the existing sphere of the Factory Acts.

In order to conform to the Washington Recommendation, the Act introduces into British legislation a system formerly existing chiefly in the Latin countries (notably in France, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Argentine, and the French-Canadian province of Quebec), namely, that of directly excluding women and young workers from a series of dangerous trades or processes. Under the British system of issuing separate regulations for each trade, the exclusion of women and young persons from particular processes was merely incidental to the regulations, and no general list of prohibited processes existed. In the case of certain peculiarly dangerous processes, women had never been excluded for the simple reason that no British factory owner had attempted to employ them. Some of the exclusions decreed by the new Act are consequently innovations in so far as they never before existed in any British act or regulations. But they will make no practical difference, as no women are actually employed in those processes.

The Act follows closely the first paragraph of the Recommendation (containing the list of processes from which women and young persons under 18 are excluded), with only certain technical changes in working. Section 2 of the Act embodies in the form of law the suggestions contained in the second paragraph of the Recommendation as regards the conditions which should be attached to the employment of women and young persons under 18 in any other processes involving the use of lead compounds, namely, that lead dust or fumes should be drawn off as nearly as may be at the point of origin ; that the persons concerned shall submit to regular medical examinations, of which a register shall be kept ; that no food, drink or tobacco shall be brought into a workroom where a lead process is carried on and that no person shall remain in such a workroom during meal times ; that adequate and clean protective clothing shall be provided by the employer and worn by the worker ; that suitable cloak-rooms, mess-rooms and lavatories shall be provided ; and that workrooms, tools and apparatus shall be kept clean. Rules to the like effect already exist in many lead trades in the United Kingdom in addition to the general terms of the Factory Act itself. The importance of the section therefore consists chiefly in its wide general application. The arrangements for the medical examinations and the intervals at which they are to be undertaken are to be regulated in detail by the Secretary of State in orders issued by the same procedure as that laid down in the Police, Factories, etc. (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act of 1916 for the issuing of " Welfare Orders ".

The Act further provides for the suspension of women and young persons from work in a lead process on the ground

that continuance therein would involve special danger to health, and the provisions of the Factory Act of 1901 requiring medical men to notify to the Chief Inspector of Factories any case of lead-poisoning contracted in a factory or workshop, are extended to cover cases of lead-poisoning occurring amongst women and young persons in all processes involving the use of lead compounds whether coming under the Factory Act or not. Section 3 of the Act gives the factory inspectors power to take samples of any substance used in any process in which women or young persons are employed, if there is ground for suspecting the presence of a lead compound in it. The technical definition of a "lead compound" is left to the Secretary of State, who will by order issue the necessary definition and prescribe the method of ascertaining whether any substance is lead compound.

CO-OPERATION.

The next Conference of the International Co-operative Alliance.

THE resumption of the activity of the International Co-operative Alliance has been marked by two important meetings of its Central Committee, held at Geneva and the Hague (in April and October, 1920). This Committee comprises delegates of the 25 nationalities represented in the Alliance. It is to meet again in April 1921 at Copenhagen to make arrangements for the Tenth International Co-operative Congress which is to be held at Basle from the 23rd. to 28th. August, 1921.

In accordance with the decisions come to at Geneva and the Hague, the agenda of the Basle Congress will include particularly : (1) the modification of the Constitution of the Alliance.; (2) the revision of the resolution relating to peace at the Glasgow Conference, 1913 ; (3) the consideration of the resolution on international economics and co-operation adopted by the Conference of Inter-allied and Neutral Co-operative Societies at Paris in June, 1919 ; (4) The League of Nations ; (5) The International Labour Office.

Founded in 1895, the International Co-operative Alliance at first included only important persons interested in the development of the Co-operative movement and in spreading its principles. Since its last congresses, and particularly those held in Hamburg in 1910 and in Glasgow in 1913, it has become an international federation of co-operative organisations. The greater part of the affiliated organisations are consumers' societies or national unions of consumers' societies. However, several important agricultural organisations of Denmark, Finland, Norway, Austria, Hungary, Italy and Serbia are also members, as well as the producers' co-operative federations of Great Britain, France and Italy. According to the report presented to the Glasgow congress, from which we have taken the data in the following table, the Alliance included in 1913 55 co-operative federations and 3871 Societies affiliated either directly or through their federations.

Composition of the International Co-operative Alliance in 1913

	Federations	*Societies*
Credit co-operative organisations	4	24
Agricultural *do*	11	5
Producers' *do*	5	87
Housing and construction co-operative organisations	1	57
Consumers' co-operative organisations	27	3,698
General federations	7	—
	55	3,871

The tendencies of the International Co-operative Alliance and its attitude with regard to the different forms of co-operation have been stated in a resolution adopted at the Hamburg Conference in 1910 and confirmed by the Glasgow Congress in 1913. This resolution, as well as the one voted by the Inter-allied and Neutral Conference in Paris in 1919, marked important steps in the evolution of the international co-operative movement. It would appear to be worth while to reproduce the text for the readers of the International Labour Review.

RESOLUTION

of the International Co-operative Congress at Hamburg in September, 1910, on Co-operative Societies of Consumers and on other forms of the Co-operative Movement (1).

The Eighth International Co-operative Congress at Hamburg considers :—

1. That Co-operation, year by year increasing in importance in all countries, is essentially a social movement which by the formation of economic associations based upon mutual help, aims at the protection of the interest of labour, manual and intellectual. Therefore, all true forms of Co-operation tend to influence the distribution of the wealth of the nations in favour of the working classes, i.e., to increase the income derived from labour and to strengthen its purchasing power, and on the other hand to diminish the increments derived from possession of the means of production and exchange, viz. : profits on capital, interest and rents.

(1) Report of the Proceedings of the Eighth Congress of the International Co-operative Alliance held at Hamburg 5th-7th Sept. 1910. Published by the International Co-operative Alliance, London, 1911. Page 173 of the English edition.

2. It recognises that co-operative societies working towards this end, irrespective of any differences in their social structure, or their economic principles, have the right to exist: their influence, however, on the development of the co-operative movement itself, as also on the development of general industrial life, is not of equal importance.

3. Co-operative societies established for the benefit of the independent artisan, peasant or farmer, such as *credit, supply, industrial and selling societies*, exist for the purpose of assuring the economic position, and of raising the social conditions of the small owners, although working for profit. They are able, if properly organised, to increase the output, by improving the methods of production, to reduce the working expenses by eliminating all superfluous intermediaries between producer and consumer, and to educate the members of such societies to think and act co-operatively.

The industrial and agricultural co-operative societies, however, lose their valuable economic and social qualities if they are used to raise the price of goods produced for the working classes, and to favour the one-sided interests of the producer at the expense of the whole community. In that case they are as harmful as syndicates and trusts.

4. *Productive societies and societies for supplying labour* by dependent workmen, aim at raising their social condition by undertaking work and turning out products as contractors. They attain this end by increasing their remuneration as workers, adding to it their profits as contractors.

General experience with regard to these societies makes it specially desirable that the greatest care and forethought should be exercised in their establishment. The want of sufficient working capital is often the cause of their failure, as is also the lack of a steady market for their products and of a competent and continuous management. Only under specially favourable conditions and if a steady market is assured, is there any hope of success for such societies.

5. *The co-operative societies of consumers*, which include not only co-operative stores but also the co-operative tenants' societies, are, wherever the capitalistic system is developed, of all forms of Co-operation the most important in protecting the interests of labour, by reason not only of their great practical value to their members, but especially by reason of their fundamental industrial principles, by the spread and practice of which the transformation of the capitalistic system may be furthered.

The retail societies aim at protecting their members from any disadvantages in buying and procuring goods of all kinds.

(*a*) By obtaining goods of good and genuine quality:

(*b*) By eliminating as far as possible the profit made by the middleman.

The conditions necessary to attain this end are that the greatest possible number of consumers should supply themselves as far as possible from the distributive society.

In proportion as the consumers join together into distributive societies they unite the purchasing power of the income derived from labour, thus enabling the working classes to organise a large part of their labour co-operatively and to employ themselves in their own productive workshops. The organisation of purchasing power as brought about by the distributive societies can only be fully successful on condition that they hold to the principles of democratic self-government, cash payments, unlimited membership, fixing prices according to local market prices, and returning the surplus accruing by this method in proportion to custom. It is further desirable to endeavour to accumulate a fund, the amount of which shall not be limited and which is indivisible, and to give the members the opportunity of depositing their savings with the society. In addition to this, the distributive society should make its members acquainted with its principles and educate them to be loyal to their society. Every distributive society must limit its field of activity and not overlap that of any other retail society. Competition among distributive societies is in contradiction to their fundamental principles as organisations whose aim is, not to do lucrative business, but to fulfil economic functions for consumers in a definite limited locality.

6. The federations established by the distributive societies for the purpose of joint purchase and production of staple articles, i. e., *the co-operative wholesale societies*, are not only enabled to foster this activity and the extension of distributive co-operation, but also to apply its principles successfully in the sphere of national and universal economy. They are in a position to organise labour co-operatively in a great number of branches of production and to promote model productive establishments.

Co-operative unions which work partly apart from the co-operative wholesale societies, and partly in close connection with them, foster and represent the rights of the distributive societies, counteract all hostile attacks, develop and perfect co-operative methods and cultivate and organise co-operative education and instruction.

7. By the development of their distributive and productive undertakings the co-operative societies of every description become to an increasing extent employers of labour.

It is their duty to grant the officials and workers in their service model conditions of wages and labour and also to recognize their unrestricted right to combine. An agreement with the trade unions is specially desirable in so far as standard rates and conditions are not in force between these trade unions and employers. Where such standard rates and

conditions do exist, they should be recognized by the societies, which should help the trade unions to enforce their application.

The co-operative societies expect in return that the employees should justify the model conditions of labour and wages granted to them, by the quality of work rendered and by their high sense of duty.

8. The co-operative unions and the individual co-operative societies should join the International Co-operative Alliance in order to develop co-operative theory and practice. By uniting the co-operative movement throughout the world into a great international organisation, a universal centre is created by means of which their mutual interests find expression, and which exercises a stimulating and fruitful influence on the development of co-operation. The union of all forms of co-operation in the International Alliance must also serve to counteract the many existing differences between the various nations. Such an Alliance opens the way to a mutual understanding among the nations on the basis of equal rights and mutual consideration, thus furthering the high and noble purpose of preparing humanity for universal peace and well-being.

RESOLUTION

of the Inter-Allied and Neutral Co-operative Conference held in Paris in June, 1919, *on the principles of Co-operation and on the international economic policy of Co-operation* (1).

1. — *Principles of International Co-operation.*

Of all organisations under democratic management, the Co-operative societies are those which, in the course of modern history, have the most important, the most regular, and the most stable development.

They include to-day millions of members. Their turnover runs into thousands of millions.

But it is in the Consumers' Co-operative Societies that the co-operative principle may be most fully realized.

Far from being hindered by the difficulties of the war, in almost every country their turnover has been doubled. Far more important, they have acquired everywhere an authority unknown up till then. They were, both during the difficulties of the war and since the Armistice, auxiliaries of the Governments in their efforts to assure the provisioning of the people.

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(1) *Les conférences coopératives interalliées et neutres pendant la guerre. Compte-rendu des conférences tenues à Paris en septembre* 1916, *février et juin* 1919. Published by la Fédération nationale des coopératives de consommation, Paris. p. 74.

The Consumers' Co-operative Societies have an unlimited power of expansion. They are tending to embrace more and more branches of consumption.They can adapt themselves to all social classes. If their progress is facilitated by the common action of the proletariat, if they are for the most part composed of workers, whose power of consumption is the weakest and which must be the most carefully spared, they are tending more and more to be open to all consumers. They cannot be reserved for social, political, or religious classes.

They are assisted and sustained in their progress by the development of democratic institutions, by the practice of liberty, by the spreading of all forms of co-operation and solidarity.

But they feel, above all, the singular power which the very principles of co-operation bestow upon them. While, in its essence, all economic activity should have as its object the satisfaction of human needs, the present economic system, entirely founded on the search for gain, conduces to waste and disorder. Co-operation tends to regulate all production in view of human needs. In grouping together consumers, in substituting their legitimate authority for the domination of the oligarchic minority which realizes profit, it creates the true economic democracy.

In order to realize these principles and adequately to co-ordinate their action in all countries, the Consumers' Co-operative Societies wish to affirm once again their loyalty to the rules drawn up by the Rochdale pioneers :

(1) Distribution of profits, or more exactly of returns, in proportion to the purchases of each individual. Articles to be sold at correct weight, good quality, and at a fair price;

(2) Representation at the General Assemblies on the following basis :— one vote per member whatever be the number of shares which he holds.

The Societies realize, moreover, that they must set aside increasingly large reserves in order to assure their development, to realize more completely the co-operative ideal, and that they must, with this object, reserve more and more important sums to create, within or outside their organisation, works of social fellowship, giving practical embodiment to the motto of the co-operators, " Each for all and all for each "

The Consumers' Co-operative Societies are agreed that their purchasing power should be concentrated to create a further form of co-operation, increasingly powerful wholesale stores, which will thus organise their industrial and agricultural production under the control of the community of consumers.

The Consumers' Co-operative Societies claim to be the natural organisations for defending the interests of consumers in dealing with the Governments. They are the institutions which, by their very existence, regularize the prices of the

markets for the advantage of all. And it is for this reason that, in certain countries, they sell to the public, reserving the profits of those sales for development funds and for works of social fellowship.

They claim, finally, by the establishment of a fair price, to transform the machinery of the distribution of wealth, that is, to eliminate unearned increments, commercial gain, industrial profit, land revenue, and to substitute for the present competitive and capitalist system the system of social justice, set up by the collective and gradual appropriation of the means of exchange and production, and organised in the interest of all consumers, who henceforward shall keep for themselves the wealth which they have created.

2. — *The International Policy of Co-operation.*

The Inter-Allied and Neutral Co-operative Societies adopted once again the principles of international economic policy drawn up by the February Conference.

They pointed out that commercial policy has been up to now a war policy;

That this war assumed the form of a defensive war when countries adopting the protectionist system endeavoured to protect themselves against what they called an enemy invasion, that is to say, against imports, by raising the barriers constituted by customs duties;

That this was, on the contrary, the offensive war to which Free Trade had led, when countries strong enough to have no fear of imports endeavoured to invade other countries with products defying all competition;

That this was the audacious imperialism of those who, practising dumping and the trust system, endeavoured both to close the home market to foreigners and to conquer foreign markets.

Co-operation denounces under all its forms competition and warfare.

It recognizes that in many circumstances the system of Free Trade has helped consumers, in making for cheapness and in tending to lower the cost of living. But its policy can be neither national protection nor international trade competition. Co-operation proclaims that its aim is association between all peoples, exactly the object which it is hoped to realize in the political sphere by the League of Nations.

It demands neither the abolition of customs duties nor the abolition of commerci treaties. It recognizes that the same practical considerations, where one country or another is concerned, become quite different, according to the spirit by which they are inspired.

It demands that customs duties, if they exist, shall be established without differentiation of nationality and not by means of a graduated scale according to which the other countries are classified either as members of the family, as friends, as persons of slight importance, or as enemies. It sees in this the necessary consequence of the establishment of a League of Nations. The characteristic of all society is that members should have equal rights.

It declares that commercial treaties should be increased, but it demands that the spirit of bargaining which has always been the rule should be abolished. And it wishes that those treaties should be concluded for a considerable period in order to assure security and development to industry.

It is with this aim that the Consumers' Co-operative Societies formulate :

(*a*) The following general programme :

(1) The re-establishment of inter-Allied committees as International Food Committees to distribute food stuffs among nations according to the world's resources, and according to the needs of each nation ;

(2) Collaboration of Government departments with the co-operative organisations of each country, in order to assure the fair distribution at a fair price of imported food stuffs in common with all other merchandise ;

(3) The creation of an international economic statistical office with regard to food supply as an instrument of co-ordination and of administration of the International Committees. Through its knowledge of the needs, resources, and conditions of production and of consumption of each country this office would prepare for the economic co-operation of peoples and the division of work among all.

(*b*) The following immediate measures :

(4) The reduction of customs duties, particularly on all articles necessary for existence, and on all those which may speed up the restoration of industry; failing reduction, the maintenance of the existing duties considered as a maximum for a period of two years; repudiation of any policy tending to strengthen protection ;

Customs duties, as long as they exist, shall have only a fiscal and not a prohibitive character. If export taxes are instituted they must be only exceptional and temporary ;

The signature of a complete commercial treaty (or of commercial agreements constituting a general system)

between all countries (Home countries and Colonies) belonging to the League of Nations. All should be placed on an equal footing;

(5) Multiplication of facilities of exchange — exchange of products, of capital, and of individuals ; facilities for correspondence, for travelling, and for residing in the different countries ;

(6) Restoration and development of all means of transport by land and by water ; international organisation for the equitable distribution of the means of transport whenever these are insufficient, and with the object of assisting peoples threatened with famine or an exceptionally high cost of living ; transformation of transport systems in the interests of the community ;

(7) Understandings between all agricultural producers and consumers organised through agreements between their associations. Development, by these agreements, of the production of food stuffs;

(8) The adoption of an international financial understanding for the liquidation of war debts in order to reduce the excessive circulation of notes, for facilitating the exchanges, and for fighting the disproportionate increase of prices;

(9) Unification of measures and of money. Unification of social laws. Unification of international agreements for posts, railways, etc;

(10) Study in common by the nations of great schemes of economic enterprise for the development of civilization (Channel Tunnel, Gibraltar Tunnel, etc.) and for the advancement of social hygiene by a system of control exercised over commercial products harmful to public health. The realization of these schemes should be carried out apart from private societies anxious to obtain profit. It should be made with the collaboration and under the control of the representatives of associated consumers.

The National Co-operative Associations see in these international measures the necessary economic consequences of the establishment of the League of Nations.

These provisions do not exclude, on the contrary they complete, the measures of economic defence against the states which are not members of the League of Nations or who may violate its regulations. It is understood that before their realization material reparation shall have been made for the invaded districts and to war victims.

The co-operative organisations do not forget that the causes of war are seldom merely political. Private internation-

al commerce has never given peace to the world. On the contrary, it has supported a thousand quarrels because it is itself a form of struggle, — struggle for profit. That is why co-operation has been, is, and will be a means of fortifying the permanent organisation of peace under this double form of associated co-operative consumers and of the economic co-operation of peoples.

AGRICULTURE.

The Agricultural Labourers of Hungary.

SINCE most information as to Hungary refers to the kingdom which existed before the war, this paper deals with the territory coincident with that kingdom unless the contrary is stated.

The Hungary of 1914 was pre-eminently an agricultural country. In 1910, 11,399,122 persons, or 62.4 per cent. of the whole population, were maintained by agriculture, forestry, and fishing. This percentage, high as it was, represented a diminution, for the importance of the rural exodus and the progress of industry and trade were marked characteristics of the years between 1890 and 1910. The percentage of the population maintained by agriculture had been 70.8 in 1890 and 68.4 in 1900. The decrease in the number of the tillers of the soil was, however, accompanied not by a fall but by a rise in production, for its effect on cultivation was counteracted by an increased use of machinery and fertilizers, by improved stock breeding and by better farming methods. Thus in 1897, 2946 car loads of fertilizers were used in Hungary; in 1913 nearly eight times that amount, namely 23,240 car loads. The development of Hungarian industry was, moreover, partly incidental to that of agriculture. The number of reaping and mowing machines in use was 1927 in 1871, 13,329 in 1895, and 18,210 in 1915. While there were only 2,464 steam threshing machines in the country in 1871, and 9,500 in 1895, 28,907 threshing machines worked by steam or other motive power were being used in 1915. Other machines numbered only 171 in 1895, but 952, namely 771 steam ploughs and 182 motor tractors, in 1915. More and more this demand for machinery was supplied at home, so that to some extent Hungarian agriculture provided a market for Hungarian industry. The converse of this proposition was also true, for Hungarian industry, in so far as it was pursued in the important mills, distilleries, sugar refineries, breweries, and malt, oil, and starch factories, absorbed the products of agriculture. This interdependence of agriculture and industry makes the following figures as to Hungarian trade in 1913 even more striking proof of the enormous importance of agriculture to the country than they at first seem to be.

	Percentage of Imports	Percentage of Exports
Products of agriculture and forestry	17.92	53.17
Products of mining and metal working	10.78	2.01
Products of industry	71.30	44.82
	100.00	100.00

The percentage of the total area of the country which is productive was stated in 1908 to be 94.77, as compared with 86.9 per cent of the soil of Italy from which a yield is obtained, 84.3 per cent of that of France, 8.14 of that of Belgium, and 65.1 of that of England. The figure is remarkable when it is taken in conjunction with the density of population, which is in Hungary only 154 to the square mile, while it is 652 in Belgium, 618 in England, 326 in Italy, and 189 in France. Farming is mainly arable and is most important in the Great Plain, which occupies the centre of the country, and the Small Plain, which lies in its western part.

The Distribution of Landed Property.

In the middle of last century the land of Hungary was distributed among properties of different sizes, as follows :—

Very small holdings of less than 6 acres	1,444,400
Small holdings of from 6 to 40 acres	903,710
Holdings of from 40 to 260 acres	118,981
Holdings of from 260 to 1300 acres	13,748
Holdings of more than 1300 acres	5,426
	2,486,265

These figures show that the country included numerous small holdings, a large number of great estates, and comparatively few properties of medium size. In other words the rural population — then nearly the total population (1) — was made up chiefly of large landowners, small peasant proprietors, and landless labourers. It had just emerged from another condition, for serfdom was abolished in Hungary only by the reform of 1848. The older rural society had consisted of landlords and serfs, and the serfs had constituted by far its most important element and had themselves been much graded, going from the large peasant holders, farming considerable areas, through all the degrees of peasant holders down to the landless cottars. The characteristic mark of servile tenure is the obligation to work on the lord's land and

(1) In 1850 the total population of Hungary was 13,450,000; Budapest had 170,000 inhabitants, Szegedin 50,244, and Debreczen 30,906.
Gustav Sundbärg, *Aperçus statistiques internationaux*, Stockholm, 1908.

to render him other services, as distinct from the obligation to pay rent in kind or money, which is incumbent on free tenants also. Some peasants of Hungary were able before 1848 to commute their duty of rendering service for rents, but the agrarian system and agriculture as a whole were based on the servile principle (1).

In the second half of the nineteenth century the effects were felt of the reform of 1848. The large properties were cultivated, not by serfs bound to the land, but by labourers hired in a market which was free in theory, although in practice it was probably subject to many customary restrictions, and the change inevitably led to the failure or retirement of the less adaptable of the large landowners. After 1850, therefore, small holdings were multiplied, partly as the result of the division of estates which accompanied successions, but partly in consequence of a deliberate dismemberment of large properties. In 1895 property was distributed as follows (2).

	Number.	Percentage of total area.
Holdings under 6 acres in area	1,459,893	4
Holdings of 6-130 acres . . .	1,311,218	50
Holdings of 130-1300 acres . .	20,797	16
Holdings of 1300 acres and more	3,977	30
	2,795,885	100

These figures make clear the extent to which holdings of less than 130 acres had increased to the detriment of the largest properties. The next twenty years witnessed a further decrease in the number of properties of medium size and a further dismemberment of large estates.

As a rule the land of Hungary is cultivated by the owners directly. In Hungary without Croatia and Slavonia less than 18 per cent of the whole number of properties and 23 per cent. of the total area were cultivated by tenants in 1895. The largest holdings were those most frequently let. Of the estates extending over more than 1300 acres, 57 per cent. were in the hands of tenants in 1895; of those between 670 and 1300 acres in area, 16 per cent; of those between 260 and 670 acres in area, 11 per cent. In later years, however, the practice of letting land increased, but the recent agrarian reforms may enable the small holder who used to be a tenant to become the owner of his land.

(1) For a description of the system see Henry Marczal's, *Hungary in the Eighteenth Century*, translated by Arthur B. Yolland and published by the Cambridge University Press, 1910.

(2) R. Calwer. *Jahrbuch der Weltwirtschaft*, Jena, 1911.

Only about 40 per cent. of the land of the country, including less than a third of the total forest area, has been alienable. The other 60 per cent., of which about half is woodland, has belonged until the recent political changes to the Church, the state, the communes, and various corporations, or has been entailed. This area was, however, stated in 1908 to include only about 21 per cent. of fertile agricultural land, since it comprised, in addition to extensive forests, common pasturages and unproductive land. The alienable area was considerably burdened. According to figures published in 1914, itwas mortgaged to the extent of 18 or 19 per cent. of the value of all the landed property of Hungary (1).

During the recent years of war and revolution various agrarian experiments have been made in Hungary; since the Peace Treaty they have applied to Hungarian territory as therein delimited. The policy of forming small holdings has been adopted even by certain sections of the large landowning class, as is witnessed by a proposal made in 1916 to bring forward in the Hungarian House of Magnates a motion which would give a right of pre-emption to the State, the communes, and the rural co-operative credit societies, whenever land came into the market, the declared object being to facilitate indirectly the acquisition of land by peasants and agricultural labourers rather than suffer it to pass into the hands of speculators in real estate. In 1917 Count Tisza's government issued a decree which gave the State a right of this sort. The succeeding Karolyi government went much further, for it enacted that all properties exceeding 700 acres in area should be expropriated and subdivided, the owners receiving full compensation calculated at pre-war values, but paid entirely in state bonds maturing only in a period of eight or ten years. When the Red government supervened, it confirmed this expropriation, but deprived the landlords affected of their right to compensation. These hasty and violent alterations of the established system had the natural result of reducing production. The fact was realized by the Red government, who thereupon made the new experiment of nationalizing the large properties and handing over their management to officials, most of whom are said to have come from Budapest. The effects on cultivation and on the victualling of the capital were disastrous : the government was reduced to requisitioning cattle and selling meat to the townspeople at low prices.

A new agrarian law, framed on less doctrinaire and more practical principles, has now been passed. It grants to the state a right of pre-emption whenever a conveyance of more than 65 acres of land takes place, except between near rela-

(1) *International Review of Agricultural Economics.* International Institute of Agriculture, Rome, June, 1914.

tives or to a disabled soldier, the right to be valid for a period of thirty days. Further, where the state tries and fails to buy certain properties, it is enabled for five years to sequestrate them through the medium of local commissions, set up in each *comitat* and formed of representatives of the administrative court, the supreme court, the great economic associations, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the various classes of landowners. The properties liable to be thus sequestrated are all that have been acquired during the war, all that belong to companies compelled to show a balance-sheet and all large properties, but sufficient land must be left to the large owners to enable them still to be farmers on a scale consistent with good agriculture. The expropriation will be carried out gradually and in accordance with local conditions, and those affected will receive compensation at rates fixed by the commissions on the basis of present prices. The expropriated lands will not be granted to the unemployed — a course followed by the Red governments — but will be used to increase to not more than 21 acres the present holdings of peasants, to form holdings of not more than four acres for agricultural labourers, or smaller plots as building sites for disabled men, widows and orphans of the war, and to form acre-allotments for state officials and others. The grants will be not free gifts but sales; either the grantees will pay the full price of the holdings immediately, or they will hold them on ordinary bases or on bases with option to purchase (as *Rentengüter*). Agricultural credit associations will be set up to help the new smallholders.

Ten or a dozen years must pass before the effects of the new law can be estimated. It is calculated that the state has acquired the right to dispose of nearly three million acres of land, whereas some four million acres would be needed to satisfy all who will become eligible for grants. Yet it is anticipated that such a redistribution of landed property will be accomplished as will greatly modify the economy of Hungary.

The Position and Status of the Agricultural Labourer.

We have no data which allow us to analyse exactly the distribution in classes of the rural population of Hungary in 1910, but we have detailed figures as to the larger number of persons — 13,175,083 as against 11,399,122 — who were maintained by agriculture, forestry, and fishing in 1900. (1)

This number included an active population of 6,055,390, together with 7,119,693 dependents of workers, and of the former class 6,007,297 were occupied in agriculture and horticulture. Of these last 1,636,949 men and 218,249 women,

(1) R. Calwer, *op. cit.*

that is a total number of 1,855,198 persons, were independent landowners or tenant farmers; 10,471 men and 14 women were agents, bailiffs, and other occupants of salaried posts; and 2,540,170 men and 1,601,405 women, or 4,141,575 persons of both sexes, worked on land farmed by others. This last number comprised both relatives of farmers working on the family land — a large group in every country in which small holdings are important — and labourers in receipt of daily or other wages. Since the number of small holdings increased between 1900 and 1910, it may be concluded that the decrease of a million and a half suffered by the whole agricultural population affected chiefly the paid labourers and their dependents and the younger men who had worked on their fathers' land. If we take it that the active agricultural population fell between 1900 and 1910 from six million to some five million, and that the increase of small holdings brought the number of independent farmers and landowners up to some two million, then we must conclude that some three million persons were working on land farmed by others in 1910, and it is very unlikely that they included as many as two million wage-earners.

As in most countries, the rural wage-earning class is divided into men and women who belong to the permanent staffs of farms, ordinary day labourers, and seasonal labourers.

The status of all workers constantly employed on a farm for one month or more is regulated by a law of 1907 (1). This forbids the engagement of any child under twelve years old, and subjects all workers engaged for the period named who are between the ages of twelve and eighteen to the authority of their employers.

Otherwise the law makes provisions which almost amount to a regimentation of the agricultural workers of this class. Each of them must have a work-book, which he presents to each successive employer in order that his engagement may be entered in it, and which is returned to him, so that he is able to seek new work, only at the conclusion of this engagement. Moreover, each employer whom he leaves must grant him a certificate of discharge, and if he engages to work on another farm immediately, his new employer must demand the production of this certificate. No passport can be delivered to him unless he produces this certificate, or unless he has been hired for more than a year and has completed one year's service. All engagements are for one year unless they are specifically stated to be for another definite period of time.

Certain clauses seek to protect the worker from over-employment. An employer may not expect him to perform tasks which are beyond his physical strength or injurious to his health and must allow him a sufficient time for nightly

(1) *Annuaire de la législation du travail*, 11*me année*, 1907, published by the Office du Travail de Belgique, Brussels, 1908.

rest, in accordance with local custom. If in exceptional circumstances he is deprived of this rest, compensatory leisure must be granted him in the daytime. Only work among stock and other quite necessary work may be expected from him on Sundays or on great feasts, and he must be allowed time to perform his religious duties.

These enactments are additional to those of a law of 1898, according to which the working day in agriculture lasts from sunrise to sundown, but is broken by intervals of an hour at midday and half an hour in the afternoon.

As to payments and allowances, the Act of 1907 stipulates that all payments in kind forming part of wages must be of the same quality as the produce sold by the farmer. Workers' allotments must be equal in value to the other lands of the farm on which crops of their kind are grown, and the workers have a right to the implements necessary to the cultivation of their allotments and to free cartage of their produce, and may have their grain ground in their employer's mill at current prices.

The employer must provide no lodgings for his workers which are not sanitary. Each married man or woman with a family must be provided with two rooms. Each worker lodged by his employer has a right to the fuel he needs for cooking, including baking, and for other household purposes All food supplied to workers must be good and sufficient.

Other provisions of the law are evidently aimed at abolishing certain survivals of the old agrarian system; they forbid the exaction from workers of customary services and the engagement of a whole family by a single contract, and they establish that a worker may use the leisure allowed him by the terms of his engagement to work for a second employer. The truck system is declared illegal.

The Act also cites the grounds on which either the employer or the worker may break the contract, namely physical and moral defects coming within certain categories, *force majeure*, and the flagrant neglect of his obligations by one or the other party.

As regards he manner in which this law is executed, an unofficial report from the Hungarian Ministry of Agriculture, made in 1920, states that, on an average, the yearly wages of workers of this class amount to from £16 (1) (400 crowns) to £20 (500 crowns) a year in money, together with five bushels of wheat, 24 bushels of barley, 88 pounds of bacon, 66 pounds of salt, 66 pounds of beans, a free supply of fuel, and either a pair of boots or an equivalent sum of money.

(1) Throughout this paper the English equivalents of money values are given approximately and at par. The par value of the Hungarian crown is about 10*d*. Its exchange value is slightly less than that of the Austrian crown which has been for some time well under a halfpenny. It varied in August 1920 from $^5/_3$ to $^3/_{10}$ of a penny, in December 1920 from $^1/_3$ to $^3/_{40}$ of a penny.

Each worker is also allotted a free dwelling, a maize-field and a smaller plot of land, and is allowed keep for a cow and poultry.

As to the length of the working day, the report states that it is limited only by the law of 1898, cited above, unless it has been the subject of agreements between the employer and the workers.

The day labourers and the seasonal labourers, who probably do most of the outdoor work, as distinct from work with animals and the tending of stock, are stated in the report to be employed, as a rule, for eight hours a day. The wages of day labourers, properly so called, vary very much with places and seasons and the nature of their tasks, and may or may not include board. Their daily wages in money go from a minimum of 25s. (30 crowns) to a maximum of £5 (120 crowns). The seasonal workers are divided into those usually engaged for a period of six months and the harvesters. The former, who are subject to the provisions of the 1907 Act in so far as these do not apply only to workers lodged by the farmers, are paid by the month, the men receiving as a rule £20 (500 crowns), together with thirty pounds of cooking flour, fifty-seven pounds of baking flour, eleven pounds of beans, nine pounds of bacon, as much of meat, four pounds of salt, thirty-three pounds of potatoes, half a gallon of vinegar, and either a gallon of spirits (*Schnaps*) or a sum of £4 (100 crowns). They also usually receive a payment in grain which, after six months' work, amounts to about 20 bushels.

Many of the harvesters, for whom there is a special demand in the Great Plain, came thither before the war from the Slovak and the Ruthenian districts lying to the north-west and the north-east. In the three or four weeks in which they are employed they receive a proportionate share of the wages in kind given to other seasonal workers. They also generally have a right to a fixed share of the harvest, on an average from an eleventh to an eighth part, calculated on a unit of area and represented for each individual worker by a money-value which is fixed by agreement and in advance. The harvesters choose whether they will take their wages in money or in kind.

Hungarian law makes considerable provision for the disablement, sickness, and old age of all classes of land workers For those hired for more than a month the employer must, under the Act of 1907, provide all necessary medical attendance and drugs, paying them full wages while they are ill. He is similarly responsible for either a half or a tenth, according to the amount at which he is taxed, of the cost of the medical attendance required by the wives of these workers or by their children under twelve years old; and he must pay a fixed sum towards the cost of their funerals and those of their wives and young children. In addition to the provisions of this law, both compulsory and voluntary

insurance of landworkers has been instituted, under Acts of 1900 and 1902. Farmers are compelled to insure the men and women in their permanent employ against accidents, and owners of threshing-machines must similarly insure all who work on the machines. Voluntary insurance is effected through a State agency and provides for invalidity, old age, and death. It is open, on slightly differing conditions, to all persons having an agricultural occupation. In 1909 the members of the rural population who had insured voluntarily numbered 52,000, those who were compulsorily insured 11,638. There was in 1920 a strong body of opinion in Hungary in favour of extending the domain of the compulsory insurance of landworkers.

Problems of the Rural Labouring Class.

In an arable and grain-growing country the seasonal agricultural labourers necessarily suffer from a dead season. In Hungary unemployment among the rural population was grave enough before the war to preoccupy the authorities and to be cited as a cause of emigration. By the law of 1898 government labour-placing machinery was set up; in each commune an agent sent weekly reports on the demand for and supply of labour to a departmental agent, and all the departmental agents sent similar reports to the Ministry of Agriculture. In this way information was collected which could prevent unemployment from existing in one district when there was an unsatisfied demand for labour in another, and it was calculated in 1910 that about 80,000 workers were placed by the agents every year. The same machinery enabled the Ministry to dispose of a reserve of labourers, who could take the place of workers breaking their contracts, thus guarding against the possibility of the loss of a large part of the harvest. The fact that no harvesters' strike occurred between 1906 and 1910 is said to have been partly due to the existence of this reserve. The Ministry stated, however, in 1910 that it was in no case placed at the disposal of any employers save those who had hired their labour in accordance with the law of 1908 and had been met with a refusal to work through no fault of their own.

In spite of the distribution of labour effected by the government agencies, it was stated in 1910 that most agricultural workers were out of work for six months in the year. Yet the unofficial report supplied from the Ministry of Agriculture in 1920 declares unemployment among the rural population to have been unknown in normal times; so that it is evident that the unemployment of pre-war days seems negligible when it is compared with the vast disproportion which now exists between the supply of agricultural labour and the demand for it. The supply has increased because the depreciation of money and shortage of foodstuffs have

made the wages in kind paid in agriculture unprecedentedly attractive and because industry is almost at a standstill; the demand has decreased because, owing to the high cost of living, farmers cannot afford to engage as much paid labour as previously, and because the depredations of the Roumanian army have lessened the cultivated area. The unemployed agricultural labourers are said now to number more than 30,000.

In addition to the problem of unemployment there is in Hungary a rural housing problem. A large number of landless labourers who do not form part of the staffs lodged on farms live in hired dwellings in the villages and country towns. In the beginning of this century it was realized that the lack of sufficient accommodation for them and the crowded and insanitary conditions of the available lodgings were such as to impair their efficiency and to constitute a contributory cause of the emigration which was beginning to alarm the government. From 1902 onwards, therefore, sums were annually allocated in the state budget to encouraging the building of houses for rural labourers. But this measure fell short of its purpose, and a law making fuller provision for the same object was therefore passed in 1907. This enacts, in the first place, that the Treasury will bear the cost of all the preliminary surveys, plans, and specifications necessary to the building, and that these documents are exempt from duty. In the second place, it gives to municipalities and communes who build labourers' dwellings a government guarantee of part of the price or rent due from the eventual purchaser or tenant, who must be an agricultural labourer of Hungarian nationality. The price may be paid in half-yearly instalments spread over a maximum period of fifty years, during which the dwelling is exempt from seizure and cannot be alienated, mortgaged, divided, or let without leave from the administrative authority. Where dwellings are let in the first instance, the tenant acquires them in full ownership after he has fulfilled the terms of his lease for thirty years. All communes or municipalities which benefit by this Act must build at least ten labourers' houses at a time, and all the dwellings for which it provides are exempt from taxation for twenty years. It was stated in 1910 that whereas none of the earlier state subsidies had made possible the erection of more than six hundred dwellings in a year, the 1907 law enabled state aid to be given to schemes for building 15,000 at a time. The law does not, however, appear to have wrought the benefit which was expected from it, for according to a monograph published by the Geographical Society of Hungary in 1919, the rural people of Hungary, while they are often as well fed as those of Belgium and sometimes even better than those of England, frequently live in dwellings of the most primitive description.

The great ambition of farm servants and day and seasonal labourers alike is, according to the unofficial report from the Ministry of Agriculture, to have not only houses, but land provided for them, to become smallholders.

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I. The Metric and British systems of Weights and Measures.

A. — *Metric Measures in terms of British.*			B. — *British Measures in terms of Metric.*		
UNIT	EXACTLY	ROUGHLY	UNIT	EXACTLY	ROUGHLY
A. Lineal Measures.					
Millim.	0.394 inches	one-25th of an inch	Inch	25.399 millim.	4 ins. = 10 cms.
Centim.	3.937 »	10 cms = about 4 ins.	Foot	30.479 centim.	30 cms.
Metre	39.371 »	11 metres = 12 yards	Yard	9.144 metres	11 yards = 10 metr.
Kilom.	6.214 miles	5 furlongs	Mile	1.6093 kilom.	5 miles = 8 km.
B. Square Measures.					
Metre² (centiare)	1.196 sq. yds.	1 1/8 sq. yds.	Square inch	6.451 sq. cms.	
Are	3.954 poles	10 ares = 1/4 acre	Square yard	0.836 sq. met.	6 sq. yds = 5 sq. metr.
Hectare	2.471 acres	2 1/2 acres	Acre	0.40467 hect.	1 acre = 2 1/2 hec.
			Sq. Mile	2.5899 sq. km.	100 sq. miles = 260 sq. km.
C. Measures of Capacity.					
Litre	1.76 pints	4 1/2 litres = 1 gallon	Pint (liquid)	0.5679 litres	1 litre = 1 3/4 pints
Decalitre	2.201 gallons	5 décalitres = 11 gallons	Quart (liquid)	1.1359 »	—
Hectolitre	22.01 »	22 gallons	Gallon (liquid)	4.5435 »	4 1/2 litres 22 gallons = 1 hectol.
			Peck (dry)	9.087 »	9 litres
			Bushel »	36.34766 »	36 litres
D. Measures of Weight.					
Gramme	0.352 ounces	454 grs. = 1 lb.	Ounce	28.35 grs.	7 ozs. = 200 grs.
			Pound	453.59 »	1/2 kilo 22 lbs = 10 kilos
Hectogr.	3.527 »	nearly 1/4 lb.	Hundred-weight	50.802 kilos	50 kilos
			Short Ton (2000 lbs)	901.6 »	900 »
Kilogr.	2 2046 lbs.	5 kilos = 11 lbs.	Long Ton (2240 lbs)	1016.04 »	1000 »

II. Table showing the par values of the pound (£), the dollar, and the franc in the currencies of the principal countries.

COUNTRY	Monetary Unit	One pound = 20 shillings = 240 pence.	One dollar = 100 cent.	One franc = 100 centimes
		equals	*equals*	*equals*
United Kingdom	pounds	1.00	4 s. 1 ½ d.	9½ d.
Australia	pounds	1.00	4 s. 1 ½ d.	9½ d.
New Zealand	pounds	1.00	4 s, 1 ½ d.	9½ d.
South Africa	pounds	1.00	4 s. 1 ½ d.	9½ d.
Canada	dollars	4.8665	1.00	193
United States	dollars	4.8665	1.00	193
Belgium	francs	25.222	5.181	1.00
Bulgaria	leva	25.222	5.181	1.00
Finland	markka	25.222	5.181	1.00
France	francs	25.222	5.181	1.00
Greece	drachmae	25.222	5.181	1.00
Italy	lire	25.222	5.181	1.00
Roumania	lei	25.222	5.181	1.00
Serbia	dinars	25.222	5.181	1.00
Spain	pesetas	25.222	5.181	1.00
Switzerland	francs	25.222	5.181	1.00
Argentine	pesos	5.04	1.036	0.200
Austria	kronen	24.00	4.93	0.951
Brazil	milreis	15.00	3.14	0.606
Chili	peso (gold)	13.33	2.74	0.53
Denmark	kroner	18.15	5.73	0.720
Germany	marks	20.43	4.198	0.811
Hungary	kronen	24.00	4.93	0.951
India	rupees	10.00	2.09	0.403
Japan	yen	9.80	2.006	0.387
Netherlands	florins	12.11	2.49	0.480
Norway	kroner	18:15	3.73	0.720
Portugal	escudos	4.53	0.92	0.176
Russia	roubles	9.48	1.94	0.374
Sweden	kroner	18.15	3.73	0.720
Turkey	piastres	111.10	22.73	4.386

NOTE. — This table is read as follows : £1 is equivalent to 12.11 Dutch florins ; 1 dollar is equivalent to 2.49 Dutch florins ; one franc is equivalent to 0.48 Dutch florins.