



# INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

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## The Trade Union Movement

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### THE INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT

**I**N the preceding number of the *International Labour Review* (1) some account was given of the movement now being carried on under the auspices of the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions, for dealing in a practical way with the problem of the devastated areas in France and Belgium. A delegation was appointed by the Federation to make an enquiry into prospects and conditions, and French and German trade unionists, in a special meeting held at Geneva on 17 February, agreed on certain general principles. The detailed proposals of the German Federation of Trade Unions are now to hand and are as follows.

(1) To prepare for the reconstruction of the devastated areas of northern France and Belgium with the aid of the whole of the resources of Germany, and to propose that rapid advantage be taken of this.

(2) To make an immediate beginning of the work of clearance and afforestation on the devastated areas. The French Government to communicate to the German Government practical proposals for carrying out the work; on the other hand, the German Government to put forward concrete proposals, if so requested, as to the distribution of contracts, the engagement of German workers, their wages, food, and the safeguarding of their social and political rights.

(3) To establish or re-establish in the reconstruction area brick-kilns, chalk, lime, and cement works, to supply the necessary plant and machinery for the extraction and conversion of raw material available on the spot into building material; also to bring building material from Germany.

(4) To see that tools and machinery for building purposes not available in the reconstruction area are supplied from Germany, including material needed for the initial operations.

(5) To put in hand immediately the construction of temporary buildings of all kinds, and of at least 25,000 wooden houses, to be completed before the beginning of the cold season, in order to meet the exceptionally urgent need of houses in the devastated areas.

(6) To supply installation, such as furniture, grates, cooking-stoves, and utensils.

(7) To state Germany's preparedness to undertake excavation and constructional work of all kinds under the supervision of the French authorities. The French Government to communicate as soon as possible to the German Government proposals as to whether such work shall be carried out under the direct supervision of the French or the German Governments, or under joint supervision, or through private contractors, or by a combination of all three.

(8) On the part of the German building workers' organisations, including the Federation of Engineers and Municipal Architects, the German Government is assured that the members of these organisations are prepared to take an active part in the reconstruction of the devastated areas. Each Government to negotiate with the building workers' organisation of its own nationals on points of theory, practice, and social conditions. The French and German federations of building workers have for their part already entered on such negotiations, and formulated their recommendations on 17 February in Geneva under the auspices of the Director of the International Labour Office.

The Bureau of the International Federation, with these proposals in front of it, reiterated its earlier declaration <sup>(2)</sup> that the work of reconstruction can only be carried out by the co-operation of the workers. Their attitude received the support of a meeting of representatives of the French devastated regions, held on 22 April.

The First of May was, as usual, observed by the trade union movement on the invitation of the International Federation, as an opportunity for demonstrating in support of the international solidarity of the workers, the international protection of labour, international action to combat unemployment, and the socialisation of raw materials.

**The Moscow International.** Some particulars of the work of this organisation have been received. At the headquarters of the International there are five sections, Latin, Germanic, British, American, and Eastern. Propaganda bureaux have been established in the areas corresponding to these sections and visits of labour delegations to Russia have been arranged. A publications section will shortly issue a periodical Bulletin and two series of pamphlets on trade unionism, while a special section is preparing for the next International Conference of "Red" trade unions, to be held in July.

### *Craft Internationals*

The International Federation of Transport Workers held its annual congress from 18 to 22 April at Geneva. After separate meetings had been held of the three sections of the Federation — railway, shipping, and transport workers—a

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(2) *Ibid.*

number of resolutions were submitted to the final meeting of the congress. As regards shipping, the establishment of international agreements between shipowners and seamen was advocated, as well as the introduction of the 48-hour week at sea as well as in port, and of a uniform international minimum wage. The resolution continued by instructing the Executive Committee:—

to institute an enquiry for the formulation of a standard of accommodation on board with a minimum of square and cubic space for each member of the ship's crew; for ships to be laid down it shall be prescribed that accommodation for the crew shall be installed either amidships, or astern, with proper separate mess room, bath and washing accommodation, proper conveniences, sick bay, library space, and adequate lighting; for ships already in commission, transitional measures to be stipulated;

to initiate a movement in favour of a uniform regulation with regard to the minimum and maximum water freeboard and the carrying of deck cargoes: of an international legal regulation prescribing the minimum number of qualified seamen to be carried as crew per ship: of a stipulation that seven-eighths of the ship's crew must understand the language of the nation under whose colours the ship sails;

to initiate a movement in favour of an international regulation for the adoption of wireless telegraphy on ships carrying a crew of forty hands or more;

to initiate a movement in favour of indemnification in the event of unemployment or of destitution caused by shipwreck, in accordance with the decision of the Genoa Conference; also for insurance against sickness, accidents, disablement, and old age.

The decasualisation of dock labour by the adoption of a preference scheme combined with out-of-work pay, such as is in force at Rotterdam, was advocated, also the further organisation of dockers and waterside workers, in order to avoid competition between adjacent ports during labour disputes. A number of questions were referred to the Executive Committee for further consideration, among them the appointment of sectional secretaries, uniformity of organisation within the Federation, an enquiry into the organisation and working conditions of the Russian trade unions, and the preliminary steps towards an international labour code. The next congress is to be held at Vienna in the autumn of 1922.

**Christian Craft Internationals.** The movement for organising these bodies noted in the preceding number of the *Review* <sup>(3)</sup> continues to make progress. Congresses of delegates of Christian unions of railwaymen on 6 April, of miners on 10 and 11 April, and of agricultural workers on 27 and 28 April respectively, decided to form international federations affiliated to the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions.

The general attitude of the Christian unions of railwaymen was stated as follows:—

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(3) *Ibid.*, p. 21.

The Federation is based on the principles of Christianity. It therefore asserts that the economic and social life of persons belonging to the same nation implies mutual collaboration. Consequently, it rejects the ideas of violence and class war, whether from the side of the employers or the workers. The Federation considers the present social and economic order to be opposed to the spirit of Christianity. Its endeavour is to effect a complete reform and by the pursuit of organic and legal methods of evolution, to transform society to conform with Christian ideals.

At the congress of the Christian unions of miners a difficulty of organisation was discussed. The German Christian Miners' Union is already affiliated to the existing International Miners' Federation. The relation of the new Christian Miners' International to this older International will have to be defined; an amicable solution of the problem is expected.

### NATIONAL MOVEMENTS

In Italy, the General Confederation of Labour is proposing extensive reorganisation. On 22 April the National Council of the General Confederation of Labour held a plenary meeting at Milan, at which representatives of the local chambers of labour (*Camere del Lavoro*) and a delegation of the Italian Communist Party were present.

Mr. D'Aragona, General Secretary of the Confederation of Labour, spoke on the question of the reform of the rules and organisation of the Confederation. He said that the present organisation of the General Confederation of Labour makes it impossible to direct and co-ordinate adequately the activities of the trade union movement, for only the large federations are directly connected with the central organisation, while the chambers of labour enjoy almost complete autonomy. Mr. D'Aragona advocated the curtailment of this autonomy, the exercise of which has often proved a source of embarrassment to the General Confederation of Labour, and the transformation of these chambers of labour into local branches of the Confederation subject exclusively to its orders. The other branches of the trade union movement, the co-operative and the mutual benefit movements, should also be connected with the General Confederation of Labour, which would cease to be a purely fighting organisation and would represent a real union of the forces of labour. The headquarters of the new General Confederation of Labour will be at Milan.

In reply to the Communist Deputy Repossi, who declared himself opposed, for political reasons, to this absorption of the chambers of labour, Mr. D'Aragona said that local autonomy (which the Communists wished to maintain) is contrary to party discipline: autonomy and discipline are incompatible terms. The Communists ought not to forget that Russia, which they always hold up as a model, affords many examples of much greater centralisation.

The views of the General Secretary were supported by the majority of the delegates present and the new Committee of the General Confederation of Labour was instructed to draft a reform scheme to be submitted for approval to the National Council.

A motion presented by Deputy Quaglino and by Mr. Galli was also carried. This motion recognises "the urgent necessity of training officials to direct the trade union organisations, and, in consequence, decides to establish a permanent trade union school attached to the General Confederation of Labour, with the collaboration of the chambers of labour and the trade union federations. These schools will organise regular courses of instruction and will be under the control of Mr. Rinaldo Rigola, a former General Secretary of the General Confederation of Labour".

In **France** the great legal controversy between the General Confederation of Labour, representing the body of the trade union movement, and the Government, continues in a modified form. The Government had some time ago ordered the dissolution of the National Union of Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Employees. The Union refused to obey the order, but at the same time its representatives have continued to sit on joint committees and councils of discipline together with representatives of the Government. At the congress of the Union, held from 20 to 23 April, the question was whether this practice should be continued; eventually it was decided that it was a form of direct action, and as such not to be disregarded.

In **Germany** the Federation of Non-Manual Employees met at Weimar from 21 to 23 April. A resolution was passed approving the proposed co-operation between the *Afabund* and the *Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund*<sup>(4)</sup>; the agreement has therefore now been approved by both organisations. In **Switzerland** a similar agreement, linking up manual and non-manual workers, has been concluded between the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions and the Swiss Association of Non-Manual Workers' Federations.

In **America** the New York Federation of Labor, at its Convention on 14 April, adopted a programme, including the organisation of meetings at which members of the Legislature should give an account of their activities during the session in questions affecting labour further calling for organisation within existing; political parties to secure representation independent of the great financial and industrial interests, the adoption of the referendum, and the legal prohibition of forms of strike insurance which encourage employers to provoke disputes.

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(4) *Ibid.*, pp. 24-25.

In **Japan** the general Meeting of the Western Federation of the General Confederation of Labour (*Yuai Kai*) was held on 27 March. Resolutions in favour of the self-government of the Western Federation and of the establishment of shop committees to enforce existing factory law were passed. The members of the Confederation also demanded the reduction of armaments and the recognition of the right to strike. As a result of the elections of officers of the Confederation, the chief posts are now held by workers, instead of by members of the educated classes.

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# PRODUCTION, PRICES, AND COST OF LIVING

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## Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

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### I

IN the following tables the principal index numbers of wholesale prices in various countries have been brought together. Table I A gives the figures as originally published. In table IB the same index numbers have been reduced to a common base : 1913=100. The figures are not, however, absolutely comparable, as the methods according to which they are calculated, and the scope and accuracy of the data on which they are based, vary very greatly from one country to another. Besides the lack of comparability arising from the number and nature of the articles taken into account, from the importance of the markets from which prices are collected, and the kind of average (simple average, weighted average, or geometrical average), a special difficulty arises out of the fact that the process of reducing the figures to a common base renders them not truly comparable. If the index number is based on aggregates of actual prices or relatives made from such aggregates, they can readily be transferred to any desired base. If, however, the index numbers are calculated by averaging the relative price of individual commodities, the index numbers transferred to a new base (in this case 1913) are only approximations. Thus in the case of certain countries, such as Canada, France, and Italy, which employ this method, the index numbers of our table IB, are only approximate, while those for the United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand, and Australia can readily be shifted to any desired base.

We give below the two general tables, followed by notes on the various countries. They correspond to those published under the same heading in the March number of the *International Labour Review*, and have been brought up to date.





*B. Expressed as a percentage of 1913*

Countries	Australia (Mel- bourne)	Canada	Den- mark	France	Germany	India (Cal- cutta)	Italy	Japan	Nether- lands	New Zealand	Norway	South Africa	Switzer- land	Sweden	United Kingdom	U. S. A.
Sources																
	(a)	(c)	(e)	(b)	(d)	(f)	(g)	(h)	(i)	(j)	(k)	(l)	(m)	(n)	(o)	(p)
1913 average	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1914	105.6	100.4	100.0	101.9	105.0	100.0	95.1	95.5	106	102.5	100	100.0	100	116	100.6	100.0
1915	147.4	109.2	138	139.8	142	112	132.7	96.7	149	120.7	159	110.9	100	145	128.5	109.2
1916	138.2	134.4	164	188.2	152	125	199.7	117.2	233	131.3	233	122.9	*	185	160.1	104.4
1917	152.8	174.9	228	261.6	176	142	306.3	148.5	298	148.0	341	147.0	*	244	208.6	122.3
1918	177.8	205.4	293	339.2	216	178	409.1	185.9	398	172.1	345	166.3	*	339	229.5	168.7
1919	188.9	216.4	294	356.2	412	200	365.8	239.5	306	174.5	322	187.0	*	330	254.3	190.0
1920	227.9	246.1	382	509.3	1251	204	624.3	257.9	285	207.9	377	250.8	*	347	321.9	204.9
1920 Jan.	212.4	248.2	*	486.8	1038	1440	507.2	301.1	293	190.2	333	236.0	*	319	306.0	242
" Feb.	216.4	253.5	*	521.9	1413	1615	556.3	313.6	289	194.0	342	*	*	342	316.4	209.8
" March	219.2	257.5	*	554.5	1456	1604	602.0	321.5	290	202.0	351	250.0	*	354	322.1	242
" April	227.7	260.6	*	587.5	1252	1714	663.7	300.0	296	204.8	354	250.0	*	354	321.4	242
" May	236.0	263.1	*	550.1	1203	1473	660.1	248.1	297	206.2	368	*	*	361	319.2	217.8
" June	244.2	257.8	383	492.7	1086	1495	631.7	254.9	297	205.2	382	*	*	366	337.8	272
" July	245.4	256.0	385	495.6	1176	1599	604.2	298	301	215.2	409	602.8	*	363	346.8	269
" Aug.	247.4	243.7	394	501.3	1166	1582	625.2	295.3	288	215.1	417	*	*	365	325.7	250
" Sept.	250.9	241.0	403	525.7	1225	1604	655.5	290.7	288	215.7	425	*	*	362	320.8	234
" Oct.	235.2	234.4	403	501.7	1308	1670	658.6	295.8	288	218.0	419	256.3	*	346	324.0	236
" Nov.	217.9	234.6	374	460.7	1373	1681	670.1	221.4	261	213.8	403	*	*	331	312.8	208
" Dec.	206.3	214.4	341	434.4	1319	1636	655.4	205.7	233	212.5	377	*	*	299	302.3	173
1921 Jan.	205.3	207.6	290	406.6	1260	1494	642.4	201.1	213	214.0	394	—	—	—	—	164
" Feb.	—	199.3	280	377.7	1231	1439	613.3	195.1	201	—	319	—	—	—	—	152.7
" March	—	—	270	359.9	1206	1429	603.6	—	—	—	312	—	—	—	—	144.3
" April	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Monthly figures relate to: (a) the monthly average; (b) the end of the month; (c) the 15th of the month; (d) the 1st of the following month. (e) From 1920 a revised index is used. (f) The figures for 1915 to 1920 relate to December in each year. (g) The figures for 1913 to 1920 relate to the 1st January in each year. (h) Old index transferred to the base 1913 = 100. \* No figures published.

## II

### GENERAL SURVEY

In all the countries for which statistics are available, the steady fall in wholesale prices, which began in the year 1920, continued up to the end of March 1921.

In each country, the various groups of commodities have shown somewhat different changes. That of textiles has shown a very marked rise in price in almost all countries for which figures are available. In China alone the situation was reversed, and textiles form one of the groups which show the smallest increase since September 1919.

In Canada, France, Italy, and the United Kingdom, on the other hand, the textile groups reached higher maxima than any others. Again, textiles were, as a rule, among the first groups to show a decrease from the beginning of 1920 onwards; their prices fell with marked rapidity.

Metals did not reach such high maxima as textiles, but were also rather early in showing a tendency to fall.

The most characteristic feature of the index numbers published in this article is, however, the general slackening of the tendency towards a fall. This is noticeable in the 13 index numbers for March, referring to the 9 countries for which these March figures are available. This is shown in the following table, which gives the fall per number of points for each of the four last months in comparison with the preceding month.

TABLE II  
(Base : 1913 = 100)

	Highest point		Decrease compared with previous month (in points)			
	1920	Index number	Dec. 1920	Jan. 1921	Feb. 1921	March 1921
Denmark	Nov.	403	33	51	10	10
France	Apr.	587	26	28	29	17
Germany: Official	Mar.	1456	54	59	29	25
<i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i>	Apr.	1714	55	132	55	10
Italy	Nov.	670	15	13	29	10
Norway	Sept.	425	26	33	25	7
Sweden	June	366	32	32	17	13
Switzerland	—	—	—	7	10	8
United Kingdom: <i>Economist</i>	Mar.	310	25	11	16	3
<i>Statist.</i>	Apr.	313	16	12	17	7
U. S. A. : <i>Dun</i>	Apr.	218	11	11	3	6
Bureau of Labor						
Statistics	May	272	18	12	10	5

The slackening is very marked in all these countries, except Switzerland, where it is less noteworthy.

We have also given for purposes of comparison the highest point reached by these index numbers. It will be noticed that the highest maxima generally correspond to the greatest decreases.

#### NOTES ON THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES

In the article appearing in the March number of the *Review* as systematic a survey as possible was given of the monthly index numbers of wholesale prices in various countries for various groups of commodities in 1920 and in the early months of 1921. In the present article the only figures given for these countries are those for the last month of each quarter of 1920, and wherever possible for the first three months of 1921. Special attention has been paid to the most recent fluctuations, both in order to save repetition and to avoid overloading the tables.

More detailed information is given in the case of five countries: Australia, China, Italy, New Zealand, and Switzerland. Index numbers for various groups of commodities in these countries in 1920 are now available, and serve to complete the information given in the last article. A new series of index numbers for Norway is now added, that published by the commercial journal *Farmand*. In the case of South Africa, India (Calcutta), Japan, and the Netherlands, no figures more recent than those published in the March number of the *Review* are available; special notes on these countries are therefore omitted in this issue.

In all the tables the highest figure in each series of index numbers is marked in heavy type. It is evident that these figures, in the case of countries showing quarterly indices for 1920, only indicate approximately the real maxima reached.

A list of sources will be found at the end of the article.

#### AUSTRALIA

Wholesale prices have not risen as greatly in Australia as in European countries. They reached their highest point in August 1920 (rather more than double pre-war prices), and since then have fallen steadily. The index number for last January is a little below that for January 1920, and the decrease in the last four months represents 17% of the maximum.

TABLE III  
(Base : July 1914 = 100)

	Coal and metals	Textil., leather, etc.	Agri- cultur. prod.	Dairy prod.	Grocer. and tobacco	Meat	Build- ing mater- ials	Chemi- cal prod.	Total
1920									
Jan.	189	273	227	143	156	147	282	268	203
Feb.	192	283	226	149	161	149	287	272	206
March	205	281	226	162	160	126	298	280	209
April	205	277	234	169	192	160	298	280	217
May	214	265	252	177	197	170	307	297	225
June	214	260	261	187	195	208	307	297	233
July	211	252	244	188	193	261	307	283	234
Aug.	209	251	238	189	193	284	312	282	236
Sept.	211	222	231	209	196	273	295	276	230
Oct.	222	220	208	214	196	226	289	276	215
Nov.	222	180	206	212	195	211	281	255	208
Dec.	216	156	193	210	198	193	271	252	197
1921									
Jan.	215	145	197	208	197	191	279	244	196

The fluctuations of the groups are very different. In most groups the fall began in the second half of the year, and proceeded more or less rapidly. Textiles began to fall as early as February, and by December 1920 had almost returned to the average for 1916. This is the group in which prices are at present lowest, and where the decrease has been greatest (45 % compared with the maximum).

A comparison between the index numbers for January 1921 and January 1920 also gives somewhat varied results. Four groups (coal and metals; dairy products; groceries and tobacco; meat ) in January 1921 are still above the level of the corresponding month in the previous year, while the four remaining groups (textiles and leather; agricultural produce; building materials; chemical products) have already fallen below it.

## CANADA

The index numbers of wholesale prices published by the Department of Labour show that prices have been falling steadily since May 1920. The figure for February 1921 is, however, still 170 % above the pre-war figure.

TABLE IV  
(Base : 1890—1899 = 100)

	1920				1921	
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.
Grain and fodder	384	414	348	261	255	234
Meat and fat	357	369	363	321	314	307
Dairy products	318	282	326	340	333	285
Fruit and vegetables	353	216	216	226	220	194
Groceries, tea, etc.	293	242	301	256	244	236
Textiles	421	307	387	329	298	267
Hides, leather, etc.	363	305	264	232	215	206
Metal and tools	250	248	254	230	230	221
Building materials	383	398	386	357	347	336
Heating and lighting	259	331	349	318	292	277
Chemical products	220	233	245	228	222	213
Total	349	349	327	291	281	270

There is a great decrease in the prices of grain and fodder, textiles, and hides and leather. Heating and lighting is the only group, which in February 1921 is still above the level of March 1920.

#### CHINA

The Market Office of the Ministry of Finance at Shanghai has recently published a series of index numbers of wholesale prices based on 147 commodities, most of which are manufactured articles. Prices are recorded on the last Wednesday of each month, and the base of the index numbers is September 1919.

The following table shows the index numbers of wholesale prices for groups of articles in 1920 and 1921.

TABLE V  
(Base : Sept. 1919 = 100)

1920	Cereals	Other foodstuffs	Textiles	Metals	Fuel	Miscell.	General average
Jan.	108.5	102.2	95.9	92.8	100.2	94.5	98.8
Feb.	109.8	106.2	98.5	100.2	99.0	95.7	102.1
Mar.	111.0	105.8	105.5	110.6	97.0	99.8	106.5
Apr.	107.2	117.0	103.5	105.7	99.5	101.2	106.9
May	105.0	119.0	102.3	108.9	99.4	104.5	107.9
June	115.4	106.4	100.8	118.1	98.9	109.0	109.9
July	114.7	105.2	100.2	115.7	97.1	105.9	108.3
Aug.	108.6	102.4	98.4	117.0	96.4	104.7	106.2
Sept.	109.9	107.7	94.7	111.8	97.2	103.7	105.5
Oct.	103.2	107.6	94.9	110.2	99.2	105.2	104.2
Nov.	98.6	112.5	93.2	109.9	102.4	108.7	104.6
Dec.	103.1	108.9	91.8	109.4	102.0	111.0	104.8
1921							
Jan.	96.9	107.0	93.1	109.6	103.1	113.1	103.9

It will be observed that the index numbers of wholesale prices, unlike those in other countries, do not vary in a regular way. The successive fluctuations produce in several of the groups two, or even three, maxima during the year. The general index number reaches its highest point in June, when it is 10% higher it was in September 1919. This is a comparatively slight increase. The maxima appear at different dates in the different groups. Textiles were the first group to reach a maximum (March 1920), and fuel the latest (November 1920). The "mi-scellaneous" group continues to rise. The greatest increase is shown by foodstuffs other than cereals. In January 1921 two groups, textiles and cereals, had already fallen lower than in January 1920. The general index number, however, was still above that of the preceding year.

# DENMARK

The highest point was reached in November 1920, when wholesale prices were four times as high as before the war. Subsequently there was a rapid fall, which continued until March 1921. The prices of foodstuffs fell rather more slowly than those of industrial commodities; these had reached a much higher maximum, but have now fallen almost to the same level as foodstuffs.

The rapidity of the fall in prices shows a clearly marked tendency to slacken in the last month as compared with the preceding months.

TABLE VI  
(Base: July 1912—July 1914=100)

	1920		1921		
	1 Nov.	1 Dec.	1 Jan.	1 Feb.	1 March
Foodstuffs	334	342	319	277	273
Other commodities	446	394	356	298	285
Total	403	376	341	290	280

# FRANCE

The index numbers published by the *Statistique Générale de France*, which are reproduced below, show a decrease in wholesale prices in March; but this is neither so marked nor so general as in the preceding months.

TABLE VII  
(Base : 1901—1910=100)

	1920				1921		
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
Vegetable foodstuffs	620	481	494	432	401	381	387
Animal foodstuffs	590	569	627	608	570	534	479
Sugar, coffee, cocoa	465	415	577	376	357	359	389
All foodstuffs	577	503	564	491	460	438	424
Metals and minerals	552	513	556	462	409	361	347
Textiles	1035	859	836	556	539	466	439
Miscellaneous	603	569	594	519	489	464	432
All industrial commodities	693	623	643	512	479	435	410
Total	641	570	608	503	470	436	416

The general index number for March is now, as will be seen from table IB, at the level of 1919. The March decrease itself, however, was only 20 points, somewhat less than in the preceding months. This slackening of the fall in prices is particularly noticeable in the case of foodstuffs; indeed, two groups out of the three (vegetable foodstuffs; sugar, coffee, cocoa) have risen again; sugar, coffee, and cocoa had already begun to rise in February, and this rise was still more marked in March. The third group, on the other hand, (animal foodstuffs) continued to fall, but more rapidly.

In the case of industrial commodities the fall continued more or less steadily, without any clearly marked acceleration or slackening.

#### GERMANY

The two series of index numbers published by the *Frankfurter Zeitung* and the *Statistisches Reichsamt* continue to show a decrease, though this is now less rapid. In March more especially there seems to be a general stabilisation in the index numbers of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, which are reproduced below. Textiles are the only group which continue to fall steadily.

TABLE VIII  
(Base : January 1920=100)

	1920				1921		
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
Foodstuffs	135	146	153	154	144	137	136
Textiles, leather, etc.	151	94	108	97	92	87	79
Minerals	135	111	124	120	113	111	115
Miscellaneous.	170	195	191	189	183	182	180
Total	146	136	146	148	136	131	130

No figures for different groups are available for the index number of the *Statistisches Reichsamt*, but the general index number shows that in March the decline, which began in November last, still continues.

# ITALY

Professor Bachi's index numbers of wholesale prices show in almost all groups very definite curves with two maxima, the first maximum being reached between March and May 1920, and the second at the end of 1920 and the beginning of 1921. Only in the case of building materials is there a regular increase, the maximum not being reached before February 1921. The group of "other foodstuffs" reached a well-marked maximum in December 1920, after slight oscillations about February and July in the same year. Vegetable foodstuffs, on the contrary, show in the course of 1920 a double movement of rise and fall, and rose again in March 1921. In order to make this double fluctuation clearer to the reader, in the table given below we have indicated in heavy type not only the absolute maxima (as we have done in all the other tables), but also the secondary maxima.

TABLE IX  
(Base : 1920 = 100)

	Vegetable foodstuffs	Other foodstuffs	Chemicals	Textiles	Minerals and metals	Building materials	Wood, peat, and fodder	Miscellaneous	All commodities	All commodities (fixed base : 1901-1905 = 100)
1920										
Jan.	86.2	81.2	64.2	95.3	75.9	72.0	93.5	78.2	81.25	639.23
Feb.	91.6	79.5	76.8	106.0	92.7	75.4	100.9	85.8	89.13	701.22
Mar.	93.1	82.7	96.8	115.6	104.8	82.2	<b>102.4</b>	92.8	96.41	758.50
Apr.	<b>102.7</b>	83.6	110.4	<b>130.8</b>	<b>115.8</b>	96.4	99.8	104.2	<b>106.30</b>	<b>836.30</b>
May	102.2	92.9	<b>122.6</b>	104.9	113.2	101.8	97.2	<b>107.8</b>	105.73	831.82
June	100.2	101.1	112.8	90.8	99.1	106.3	95.9	105.7	101.18	796.02
July	96.8	100.3	100.0	88.3	95.5	108.4	90.2	104.9	97.77	761.33
Aug.	100.7	103.4	102.3	94.9	96.6	109.9	91.9	101.4	100.13	787.76
Sept.	104.8	108.8	100.1	99.6	103.7	109.9	97.5	102.1	104.98	825.92
Oct.	107.1	108.0	103.4	97.9	<b>106.5</b>	112.8	100.5	105.4	105.47	829.77
Nov.	<b>107.7</b>	124.1	<b>107.7</b>	94.0	101.4	112.6	100.7	105.2	<b>107.33</b>	<b>844.41</b>
Dec.	106.9	<b>126.4</b>	102.8	81.8	92.7	112.6	121.8	106.8	104.97	825.84
1921										
Jan.	106.7	120.7	98.1	77.4	88.2	113.3	<b>128.4</b>	<b>107.1</b>	102.89	809.48
Feb.	103.4	119.5	89.2	65.4	79.5	<b>117.0</b>	127.3	106.7	98.23	772.81
Mar.	<b>107.8</b>	117.4	86.9	63.5	72.0	112.8	123.2	103.9	96.66	760.46

The greatest increase is in the textile group; but here a rapid fall began, so that in March 1921 the level of prices was lower than in any other group, in fact, only half of what it had been a year before when the maximum was reached. The lowest maxima reached occur in the group of vegetable foods and other vegetable products.

The general index number reached its maximum in November, when it was 570 % above the level of 1913 as shown in table IA; it is still at 504 % above that level, which represents a fall of only 10 % of the maximum.



As was the case in most other countries, the fall in prices slackened in March; this movement, however, was less marked in Italy; in several groups the fall had only begun a month or two previously.

## NEW ZEALAND

The official index numbers for New Zealand indicate a fairly steady rise in prices until October 1920. There was a considerable fall in the general index number in November, but a further rise of several points took place in December.

TABLE IX  
(Base: 1909—1913 = 100)

	Agric. prod.	Flour, bran, pollard, oat- meal	Wool, hides, tallow, butter, cheese	Gener. merch. and crock- ery	Build. materi- als	Leath- er	Chem. and man- ures	Coal	All com- mod.
1920									
Jan.	2185	1548	1586	2083	2078	2441	2152	1818	1999
Feb.	2130	1560	1634	2174	2181	2538	2164	1849	2039
March	2083	1718	1688	2224	2310	3279	2176	1935	2123
Apr.	2100	1722	1650	2243	2338	3476	2229	1995	2153
May	2055	1724	1610	2227	2391	3437	2435	2066	2167
June	2015	1736	1546	2206	2405	3368	2463	2092	2158
July	1983	1746	1532	2460	2584	3145	2528	2096	2262
Aug.	1939	1756	1560	2498	2587	2901	2489	2108	2261
Sept.	1931	1764	1582	2493	2585	2890	2501	2153	2267
Oct.	1855	1761	1907	2509	2605	2897	2494	2158	2291
Nov.	1740	1755	1770	2494	2603	2716	2426	2170	2247
Dec.	1828	1747	1750	2459	2612	2592	2368	2178	2249

Of the various groups, coal and building materials are continuing to rise. Agricultural products and leathers, on the other hand, began to fall at the beginning of 1920. The other groups reached their highest point about the end of 1920. The greatest increase took place in the case of leather and building materials, and the smallest in "flour, bran, pollard, and oatmeal", and "wool, hides, tallow, butter, and cheese". Generally speaking, prices did not rise very greatly, as the general index number at its highest point was only 118% above the figure for 1913. There are few, even among the overseas countries, where prices show so small an increase.

## NORWAY

Two series of index numbers of wholesale prices are published in Norway, one by *Okonomisk Revue* and the other by *Farmand*. The former, which is the more recent, is based

on current prices at Christiania for 93 articles, which are divided into eleven groups, and gives a fairly comprehensive survey of wholesale prices. The second series only includes 40 articles (20 foodstuffs and 20 raw materials). It dates from 1891. The following table gives both series.

TABLE X  
(Base : 1914 = 100)

	<i>Okonomisk Revue</i>	<i>Farmand</i>
1920		
June	382	411
July	409	422
Aug.	417	426
Sept.	425	433
Oct.	419	424
Nov.	403	409
Dec.	377	370
1921		
Jan.	344	309
Feb.	319	281
March	312	278

The highest point of both series was reached in September 1920 and indicates prices more than four times higher than those before the war. Since this date prices have fallen steadily; there was, however, a definite slackening in this fall in March, even in the *Farmand* series, which shows a more decided tendency to register a fall.

#### SWEDEN

The index numbers of wholesale prices published by the *Svensk Handelstidning* indicate a continued fall in prices, which however is less rapid than in the preceding months.

TABLE XI  
(Base : June 1913—June 1914 = 100)

	1920				1921		
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
Vegetable foodstuffs	270	250	273	247	244	231	238
Animal foodstuffs	304	273	312	283	266	241	229
Seed and fertilisers	318	313	308	301	281	248	240
Coal	960	1252	1085	602	371	362	279
Oils	275	303	340	328	328	318	268
Metals	291	318	273	247	230	204	185
Building materials	387	381	388	362	320	319	298
Textiles	380	368	310	206	169	147	134
Hides and leather	268	212	180	156	131	108	85
Wood pulp	682	778	753	598	520	511	510
Total	354	366	362	299	267	250	237

The general index number for March is 137% above the pre-war figure. In the latter month, however, the fall was less as compared with that in the preceding months. This slackening in the fall of prices is to be observed in most of the groups of commodities, except oils, metals, and building materials, which continue to fall. Even coal prices, which had been falling at an immense rate ever since July 1920, slackened their headlong career. The price of vegetable foodstuffs rose several points.

### SWITZERLAND

The index number of wholesale prices, published by Dr. Lorenz in the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, start in January 1921, with the year 1914 as base. The following table gives the results up to date.

TABLE XII  
(Base : 1914 = 100)

	Num- ber of com- mod.	1920	1921			
		1 Jan.	1 Jan.	1 Feb.	1 Mar.	1 Apr.
I. Agricultural and industrial products	33	302.9	271.5	265.0	259.0	248.1
A. Food, drink, etc.	22	281.5	259.4	254.0	249.7	244.7
a) animal foodstuffs	6	274.8	255.2	248.4	242.3	325.9
b) vegetable foodstuffs	13	297.8	276.2	274.2	272.7	269.1
c) drink, tobacco	3	266.7	226.3	217.9	215.3	215.3
B. Clothing	5	407.2	283.2	272.5	264.4	241.7
a) textile manufacturers	4	435.7	282.7	268.7	258.0	231.0
b) shoes	1	315.0	285.0	285.0	285.0	276.0
C. Housing	6	271.2	291.0	284.3	276.3	260.7
a) building materials	3	235.3	244.0	233.6	232.0	218.7
b) heating and lighting agents	3	335.7	375.4	375.4	355.8	336.1
II. Agricultural raw materials	12	408.4	172.3	165.1	154.8	150.8
A. Forage	4	464.1	159.3	153.1	142.5	144.5
B. Fertilisers	8	241.5	211.5	201.2	191.6	169.8
III. Industrial raw materials	26	356.5	292.0	216.7	197.1	191.2
A. Minerals and metals	11	382.2	314.9	308.9	299.5	288.6
a) Industrial coal	4	595.5	655.2	655.2	655.2	655.2
b) Metals	7	296.9	178.7	170.3	157.2	142.0
Pig-iron		395.0	216.0	204.0	180.0	156.0
B. Textiles and leather	6	340.3	159.3	154.4	128.3	126.1
Cotton		417.1	177.7	175.0	145.9	135.4
Silk		298.0	149.0	140.0	109.0	118.0
Hides and leather		154.8	140.2	132.7	131.3	127.7
C. Miscellaneous	9	371.3	524.4	320.0	306.7	290.8
Total	71	342.7	234.3	227.9	217.5	209.5

A general and fairly rapid fall is to be observed in the first few months of 1921, and the level of January 1921 in almost all groups is lower than the level of January 1920.

The chief exceptions are industrial coal, which, in consequence of the continuation of government control, remained at a fixed price throughout the winter of 1921, and building material, which, though amongst the groups which have increased least, was in January 1921 a few points higher than in the preceding year; in this commodity a fall took place in the succeeding months.

It is impossible to determine exactly the maximum prices obtained, for they were probably reached during 1920, for which year no monthly index number has yet been published. With the data available it may, however, be said that the greatest increase took place in the case of industrial coal, fodder, textile manufactures, and the smallest in the case of hides and leather, agricultural fertilisers, and building materials. It will be noted that the fall is much less rapid in the case of products resulting from industry and agriculture (group 1) than in the case of raw materials required by industry and agriculture (groups II and III).

# UNITED KINGDOM

The index numbers of wholesale prices for groups of articles published in the *Economist* and by the Board of Trade were reproduced in previous numbers of the *Review* (1). The index numbers published by the *Statist* are now reproduced below.

TABLE XIII.  
(Base : 1867—1877 = 100)

	1920				1921		
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March
Vegetable food	238	250	222	179	163	143	148
Animal food	236	243	289	260	282	269	261
Sugar, coffee, tea	211	266	179	114	103	100	97
All foods	232	251	238	195	194	180	179
Minerals	291	297	313	280	249	221	198
Textiles	302	259	240	173	166	151	144
Sundries	266	236	233	207	192	187	185
All material	284	259	257	215	199	185	176
Total	262	256	249	207	197	183	177

Generally speaking, prices have fallen from month to month, but there appears to be a certain slackening in March. The general index number had been falling 10 points at least every month since September 1920, while in the last month

(1) *Inter. Lab. Rev.*, Vol. I, No. 1, p.113, and No. 3, p. 78.

it only fell 6 points. On that date it was 115% above the figure for July 1914. The prices of raw materials have fallen more than those of foodstuffs. The decrease is especially great in the case of minerals. In all groups of commodities, however, the decrease in March is less than that in the preceding month. Vegetable foodstuffs, indeed, have risen 5 points after falling 20 points in the preceding months.

### UNITED STATES

The various series of index numbers of wholesale prices published in the United States appear to indicate a slackening in the general fall in prices which had been going on since May 1920. Thus, for example, the index number published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which indicated a monthly decrease of at least 10 points in September, only fell 5 points in March. The March index number, however, is only 62% above the pre-war figure, and shows a decrease of 36% as compared with the maximum in May 1920.

TABLE XIV  
(Base: 1913 = 100)

	1920				1921		
	Mar.	June	Sept.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March
Farm products	239	243	210	144	136	129	125
Food, etc.	246	279	223	172	162	150	150
Cloth and clothing	356	335	278	220	208	198	192
Fuel and lighting	192	246	284	236	230	218	207
Metals and metal products	192	190	192	157	152	146	139
Lumber and building materials	325	337	318	266	239	222	212
Chemicals and drugs	205	218	222	188	182	178	171
House-furnishing goods	329	362	371	346	283	277	275
Miscellaneous	230	247	239	205	190	180	167
All commodities	253	269	242	189	178	107	162

A general slackening in the fall in prices is also noticeable in the different groups of commodities. In almost all cases the decrease is less than in the preceding month. Foodstuffs have not changed.

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# EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

## The State of Employment in March 1921

The publication of employment statistics begun in the March issue of the *International Labour Review* <sup>(1)</sup> is continued in the present issue. One country has been added, viz. Germany; figures given for this country are those compiled from the returns of the sickness insurance societies and published regularly in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt*.

### CANADA

The *Canadian Labour Gazette* has not continued the publication of the table which was quoted in the March issue of the *Review* <sup>(2)</sup>. The table given below is based on employers' returns and shows the aggregate number of workers employed in identical establishments in the months of January, February, and March 1921 as compared with January 1920.

TABLE I

1921	No. of establishments covered by the enquiry	No. of workers employed	Percent. of staff on 17 Jan. 1920
3rd. week of Jan.	5,245	616,983	88.6
Feb.	5,276	616,065	88.5
March	5,151	599,236	86.5

In the period between 20 February and 19 March the weekly returns of employers to the Central Employment Exchange show a steady decrease in the number of employees on the pay-rolls, a decrease amounting for the whole period to a total of 14,964 persons. The decrease affected the following industries: logging, railway construction, iron and steel, mining, and railway transport. The decrease was greatest in the logging industry, and amounted to 7,497 persons or 50 per cent. of the total decrease for all industries. This decrease is to be attributed to the fact that at this season of the year normal work in the timber-yards is at an end.

The decrease in the number of employees on the pay-roll in other industries is due to the general depression which is now prevalent in Canada as elsewhere.

On the other hand, employment has increased in the leather industry, in telephone undertakings, in edible plant products factories, and in retail trade.

(1) Cf. *Inter. Lab. Rev.*, Vol. I, No. 3, p. 83.

(2) Cf. *Inter. Lab. Rev.*, Vol. I, No. 3, p. 86.

## GERMANY

On 1 April the number of sickness insurance societies which sent in returns was 6,507, with a total membership of 12,542,992 compulsorily insured persons. This figure represents the total number of workers in employment on that date; unemployed and sick persons unable to work are excluded. Compared with the membership of the same societies on 1 March there was an increase of 88,683 members, or of 0.7%. Almost all insured workers are members of urban or rural sickness insurance societies or of societies belonging to individual works. There are 2,282 of the former with a membership of 9,258,130; and 3,467 factory insurance societies, with a membership of 2,766,920. Of the remaining 517,942 insured persons, 276,214 belong to 119 special mining insurance societies and 241,228 to the so-called "guild" insurance societies, of which there were 639.

The following table is based on the returns of the factory insurance societies and shows the state of employment in the principal industries on 1 April as compared with that on 1 March. A comparison of the situation on 1 March with that on 1 February is also given.

TABLE II

	No of societies reporting	Members insured on 1 April (excluding unemployed and sick persons unable to work)		Situation on 1 April; percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) on previous month		Situation on 1 March; percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) on previous month	
		men	women	men	women	men	women
Agriculture, forestry and horticulture	86	14,857	7,728	— 0.1	+ 16.7	— 1.6	+ 2.0
Metal and engineering	855	831,170	86,221	+ 0.5	— 0.6	+ 0.3	— 0.8
Electrical trades	23	68,505	31,047	— 0.1	— 0.9	— 0.8	— 1.9
Chemical »	129	106,072	14,430	+ 5.6	+ 4.0	— 5.8	— 4.2
Textile »	800	124,844	157,561	+ 0.8	— 0.2	— 1.7	+ 0.7
Wood	102	17,381	3,099	— 0.8	— 2.9	— 0.2	— 2.8
Food and drink	300	42,367	34,740	— 1.4	+ 1.3	— 1.1	+ 1.4
Clothing	74	11,686	12,632	— 0.1	+ 1.8	+ 0.6	+ 1.2
Building	171	63,705	2,394	+ 4.4	+ 10.0	+ 2.3	+ 0.1

The building industry shows some improvement, the increase being 4.4 per cent. in the case of men and 10 per cent. in the case of women. In the chemical industry the increase in men's employment is still greater; the decrease of 5.8 per cent. in the number of men employed in this industry which took place in February was thus almost entirely made good again. Agriculture shows an increase of 16.7 per cent. in the number of women and a decrease of 0.1 per cent. in the number of men employed. In the other trades included in the table, metal and engineering, textile, etc., no appreciable change occurs. The following table is based on the returns of urban and rural societies.



TABLE III

	Insured members incl. sick and unemployed on 1 April		Per cent: increase (+) or decrease (—) on the previous month	
	men	women	men	women
Agriculture, forestry	1,112,213	886,589	— 1.4	+ 3.2
Domestic service	49,382	789,595	— 2.9	— 1.2
Casual workers	36,844	55,711	+ 3.0	+ 0.2
Home workers	50,855	113,450	+ 6.9	+ 0.0
Others (chiefly industrial)	4,635,017	3,070,407	+ 1.3	— 0.2

The figures for agriculture and forestry follow the same course as those for the factory sickness insurance societies, showing an increase in the number of women, and a slight decrease in the number of men, employed. The decrease in the number of domestic servants employed is due partly to the increase in the cost of living, which has compelled many people to dispense with servants, and partly to the steadily increasing unpopularity of this occupation.

## UNITED KINGDOM

Employment statistics for March show no improvement on the previous month. In almost all industries there is a considerable decrease in the number of persons employed. The following table shows the March employment and wages figures as compared with those of the previous month, February 1921, and of a year ago, March 1920.

TABLE IV  
(a) *Certain Mining and Metal Trades*

	Workers included in the returns for Mar. 1921	March 1921	Incr. (+) or decr. (—) as compared with a	
			month ago	year ago
		days worked per week by mines	days	days
Coal mining	610,547	4.71	— 0.08	— 1.01
Iron    "	10,578	4.32	+ 0.05	— 1.60
Shale   "	4,115	6.00	—	+ 0.03
Pig-iron	—	Furnaces in blast 111	No. — 64	No. — 143
Tin-plate and steel sheet	—	Mills working 136	— 31	— 360
Iron and steel	83,022	Shifts worked (one week) 409,691	Per cent. — 12.5	Per cent. — 39.7

## (b) Other Trades

	Number of workers			Total wages paid to all workers		
	Week ended 19 March 1921	Incr. (+) or decr. (-) on a		Week ended 19 March 1921	Incr. (+) or decr. (-) on a	
		month ago	year ago		month ago *	year ago *
Textiles		%	%	£	%	%
Cotton	70,934	— 3.6	— 27.5	134,865	— 7.0	— 42.3
Woollen	15,709	— 3.6	— 15.9	31,407	— 8.9	— 33.9
Worsted	30,029	— 2.6	— 8.4	56,255	— 9.3	— 26.0
Linen	19,078	— 0.2	— 38.1	25,134	— 1.3	— 47.0
Jute	9,156	— 4.3	— 11.0	12,435	+ 6.7	— 36.0
Hosiery	13,501	— 2.7	— 26.4	23,138	— 0.5	— 39.0
Lace	5,200	— 0.0	— 34.9	9,089	+ 2.1	— 48.5
Other textiles	13,884	+ 0.3	— 4.8	29,027	— 1.5	— 4.3
Bleaching, etc.	22,620	+ 1.7	— 12.5	61,246	+ 0.5	— 33.4
Total textiles	200,111	— 2.2	— 22.2	382,596	— 4.6	— 36.4
Boot and shoe	49,985	— 0.1	— 15.8	108,739	+ 3.6	— 23.7
Shirt and collar	12,825	— 1.3	— 7.5	17,261	— 4.6	— 20.2
Ready-made tailoring	19,724	+ 1.0	— 21.9	32,734	+ 9.4	— 31.8
Paper	13,281	— 1.6	— 5.4	36,423	— 2.8	— 11.2
Printing and bookbinding	15,683	— 1.4	— 4.5	50,171	— 0.9	+ 1.3
Pottery	15,639	— 0.6	+ 2.7	39,094	— 1.8	+ 14.0
Glass	8,268	— 6.0	— 24.1	26,973	— 7.3	— 19.1
Brick	7,327	— 1.5	+ 11.4	25,676	— 2.8	+ 29.0
Cement	11,196	— 7.7	+ 12.0	47,279	— 8.5	+ 37.4
Food preparation	57,341	— 0.8	— 10.2	148,978	+ 3.2	+ 0.0
Grand total	411,380	— 1.7	— 16.5	915,924	— 1.9	— 22.1

\* Comparison of earnings is affected by changes in rates of wages.

## UNITED STATES

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has tabulated statistics on the volume of employment in March 1921, from returns supplied by more than 800 establishments employing about 560,000 workers, in 13 manufacturing industries and in coal mining; these statistics are summarised in the following tables.

TABLE V

	Estab- lish- ments report- ing for March both years	Period of pay- roll	Number on pay-roll in March		Per cent. of incr. (+) or decr. (—)	Amount of pay-roll in March		Per cent. of incr. (+) or decr. (—)
			1920	1921		1920	1921	
Iron and steel	114	1/2 mon.	188,007	133,732	— 28.9	\$ 14,655,671	\$ 8,173,095	— 44.2
Automobiles	45	1 wk.	152,692	70,547	— 53.5	5,148,279	1,853,904	— 64.0
Car building and repairing	58	1/2 mo.	57,245	48,728	— 14.9	3,638,501	3,227,251	— 11.3
Cotton mfg.	62	1 wk.	60,928	54,494	— 2.4	1,266,694	1,010,912	— 20.2
Finishing	16	1 wk.	12,468	11,401	— 8.6	288,605	252,226	— 12.6
Hosiery and underwear	63	1 wk.	32,718	21,574	— 34.1	651,079	352,883	— 45.8
Woollen	52	1 wk.	52,234	38,831	— 25.7	1,312,600	871,666	— 33.6
Silk	44	2 wk.	15,414	12,735	— 17.4	727,960	548,594	— 24.6
Men's cloth- ing	45	1 wk.	31,576	23,881	— 24.4	1,119,382	782,844	— 29.2
Leather	34	1 wk.	15,779	10,124	— 35.8	408,208	216,722	— 46.9
Boots and shoes	85	1 wk.	74,685	55,525	— 25.7	1,841,707	1,321,274	— 28.3
Paper making	57	1 wk.	32,828	27,786	— 15.4	877,021	685,349	— 21.9
Cigar mfg.	56	1 wk.	17,252	14,539	— 15.7	375,573	289,200	— 23.0
Coal (bitu- minous)	103	1/2 mon.	28,510	25,899	— 9.2	1,885,868	1,549,286	— 17.8

The figures for March 1921, when compared with those for March 1920 for identical establishments, show a considerable decrease in the number of persons employed. The largest decreases are 53.5 per cent., 35.8 per cent., and 34.1 per cent. in the automobile, leather, and hosiery and underwear industries respectively. The smallest decrease is 2.4 per cent. in the cotton manufacturing industry.

The total wages paid in these 14 industries have decreased at a still greater rate. The amount of the pay-roll has decreased by 64 per cent. in the automobile, 46.9 per cent. in the leather, 45.8 per cent. in the hosiery and underwear, and 44.2 per cent. in the iron and steel industries.

On the other hand, when the state of employment in March is compared with that of the previous month, the figures show an increase in employment in 8 industries out of 14.

TABLE VI

	Establishments reporting for both months	Period of pay-roll	Number on pay-roll in		Per cent. of incr. (+) or decr. (—)	Amount of pay-roll in		Per cent. of incr. (+) or decr. (—)
			Feb. 1921	March 1921		Feb. 1921	March 1921	
Iron and steel	116	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> mon.	142,977	136,695	— 4.4	\$ 9,290,388	\$ 8,334,036	— 10.3
Automobiles	46	1 wk.	54,121	71,559	+ 32.2	1,293,298	1,870,828	+ 44.7
Car building and repairing	55	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> mon.	52,127	48,557	— 6.8	3,456,000	3,250,838	— 5.9
Cotton mfg.	60	1 wk.	59,743	58,014	— 2.9	1,012,840	981,308	— 3.1
Cotton finishing	15	1 wk.	10,289	11,148	+ 8.3	224,970	245,729	+ 9.2
Hosiery and underwear	64	1 wk.	18,860	21,269	+ 12.8	303,242	345,975	+ 14.1
Woollen	52	1 wk.	33,189	38,831	+ 17.0	693,199	871,666	+ 25.7
Silk	43	2 wk.	11,553	12,631	+ 9.3	486,403	544,736	+ 12.0
Men's clothing	48	1 wk.	23,078	24,026	+ 4.1	681,701	798,325	+ 17.1
Leather	35	1 wk.	10,175	10,653	+ 4.7	226,567	225,771	— 0.4
Boots and shoes	84	1 wk.	54,610	54,990	+ 0.7	1,312,187	1,309,995	— 0.2
Paper making	59	1 wk.	29,893	28,801	— 3.7	746,814	714,558	— 4.3
Cigar mfg.	57	1 wk.	15,150	14,645	— 3.3	286,162	289,927	+ 1.3
Coal (bituminous)	97	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> mon.	26,433	25,006	— 5.4	1,688,299	1,513,916	— 10.3

In the automobile industry, which was the most seriously affected, the number of workers on the pay-roll increased by 32.2 per cent.; increases of 17.0 per cent. and 12.8 per cent. appeared in the woollen and in the hosiery and underwear industries respectively. Other industries show increases of 4 to 8 per cent. The greatest decreases in the number of workers on the pay-rolls are 6.8 per cent. in the car building and repairing industry, 5.4 per cent. in the mining industry and 4.4 per cent. in the iron and steel industry.

In the amount of wages paid 7 industries show an increase and 7 show a decrease. The greatest increases, 44.7 per cent. and 25.7 per cent., occur in the automobile and in the woollen industries respectively. The greatest decreases are 10.3 per cent. in the iron and steel industry, 10.3 per cent. in the mining industry, and 5.9 per cent. in the car building and repairing industry.

# LABOUR CONDITIONS

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## Labour Conditions fixed by Collective Agreements in France during 1920 \*

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The table which follows summarises the collective agreements which were concluded in France during the year 1920, and of which the French Ministry of Labour published an analysis in its Bulletins of August, September, October, November, and December 1920.

The majority of these agreements were in settlement of a dispute of a collective nature; they deal principally with wage-rates or methods of the payment of wages, with the various cost of living bonuses to be added to wages, and with labour conditions. With a view to clearness these agreements have been classified in groups of industries; the wage-rates adopted for men and for women are indicated; any special clauses included are given in a separate column; finally, there is a special column giving information as to the circumstances in which the agreement was concluded: origin of the dispute, names of the contracting parties, and the conciliation procedure to which they had recourse.

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\* *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Paris, Aug., Sept., Oct., 1920.

(Franc at par=19.3 cents or 9<sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub>d.)

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
<b>AGRICULTURE</b>			<i>Francs</i>	<i>Francs</i>		
Armissan	Labourers	( <sup>1</sup> ) 6, 7, 8	2.00	1.00	Agreement between proprietors and union	
Boutenac	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> ) 12.00	( <sup>2</sup> ) 6.00	Agreement between delegates of proprietors and workers	Men receive 2 litres of wine and women 1 litre
Ferrals and Fabrezan	— do —	7	( <sup>2</sup> ) 12.00	( <sup>2</sup> )	Agreement between delegates of proprietors and workers after strike	Payments in kind; overtime
Laure	— do —	7	1.50	0.75	— do —	Cost of living bonus; overtime
Sijean	— do —	7	( <sup>2</sup> ) 12.00	( <sup>2</sup> ) 6.00	Agreement between employers' association and union; conciliation before magistrate	Payments in kind
Montpellier	— do —	8	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	— do —	— do —
Epernay	Vinc-dressers	( <sup>4</sup> )	0.50 to 1.75	0.50 to 1.20	Agreement between employers' association and union after intervention by sub-prefect	— do —
Provins	Labourers	( <sup>1</sup> ) 9, 10	( <sup>2</sup> ) 14 to 17		Agreements between delegates of employers and workers	Board and lodging included
Saint-Marcel	— do —	7	2.00	1.15	Decision of sub-prefect after strike	Payments in kind
Saint-Nazaire	— do —	7	( <sup>2</sup> ) 11.00	( <sup>2</sup> ) 6.50	Decision of sub-prefect	— do —
Aigues-Vives	— do —	7	2.00	1.00	Agreement between delegates of proprietors and workers	

Lunel-Viel	— do —	(2)	(2)	1.00	Decision of mixed committee after strike	
Marsillargues	— do —	(2)	(2)	1.00	Agreement between proprietors and union after strike	Payments in kind
<b>BUILDING</b>						
Tournon	Building workers	8	1.60 to 2.25		Conciliation agreement before magistrate after strike	Travelling allowance.
Marseille	— do —	8	(2) 15.00 to 24.00		Agreement between employers' association and union after strike	— do —
Honfleur	— do —	8	1.75 to 1.80		Conciliation agreement before magistrate	
Thouars	Masons	8	1.75 to 2.00		— do —	Travelling allowance
Pont-Audemer	— do —	(2)	1.80 to 1.90		Agreement between employers' associations of the Department and delegates of the workers	— do —
— do —	Roofers	8	(1) 2.00		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	
Fougères	Builders and furniture workers	(6) 48	(1) 1.80 to 2.00		Agreement between employers' association and union	No advance notice of dismissal ; conditions for apprentices and less skilled workers
Saint-Etienne	Masons	(6) 48	2.00 to 3.00		— do —	
— do —	Plasterers, painters	(6) 48	(1) 2.75		— do —	No advance notice of dismissal ; allowance for absence from home
— do —	Plumbers, roofers	(6) 48	2.75		— do —	— do —
Hennebont	Navvies	8	(1) 1.40 (6) 1.25		Conciliation proceedings after strike before magistrate ; agreement between delegates of employers and workers	Overtime

(1) According to season. (2) Not reported. (3) Daily rate. (4) Work by the job. (5) Minimum daily wages ; harvest, 25 francs.  
 (6) Per week. (7) Minimum. (8) Workers under 18 years of age.

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Nevers	Building workers	8	( <sup>1</sup> ) 2.25		Agreement between employers and union	Special conditions for unhealthy work outside town
Fécamp	Roofers	( <sup>1</sup> )	1.90		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers; conciliation proceedings after strike before magistrate	Allowance for country work
Rouen	Plasterers, masons	( <sup>1</sup> )	2.75		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	
— do —	Labourers	( <sup>1</sup> )	1.75		— do —	
— do —	Navvies	( <sup>1</sup> )	2.00		— do —	
Draguignan	Masons	8	( <sup>1</sup> ) 12.00		— do —	
Limoges	Building workers	8	( <sup>1</sup> ) 1.70 to 2.25		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	
CHEM. PROD.						
Lille	Dye Manufacturers	8	1.25 to 2.25		Joint Committee with labour inspector as chairman	Apprentices 6 frs. a day; workers under 18, 11 frs.
— do —	Gas Company	( <sup>1</sup> )	2.45 to 2.90		Agreement between company and workers' delegates	Agreement valid for three months; renewable unless notice is given to terminate; 3 days' notice
— do —	Electricians	( <sup>1</sup> )	1.50 to 2.30		Arbitration award of labour inspector; agreement between company and workers' delegates	Cost of living bonus, 0.70 per day
Roubaix	Gas	( <sup>1</sup> )	19.60 to 23.60 ( <sup>1</sup> ) (according to grade)		Agreement between delegates of workers and employers (intervention of labour inspector)	Working hours; bonuses; proceedings in the case of stoppage of work

Calais-Boulogne	Gas	8	16.00 to 18.00 <sup>(9)</sup> 0.85 to 2.30		Agreement between company and union	allowance; travelling allowance
Lyons	Electricians	<sup>(1)</sup>	17.20 to 22.00 <sup>(1)</sup>		Agreement between employers' and union after strike	Overtime rates; cost of living bonus, office staff 100 frs. a month; manual workers, 2.00 to 2.40 a day; family allowances; payment in kind; pensions
Limoges	Gas	<sup>(2)</sup>	5.00 to 17.00 <sup>(3)</sup>		Agreement between employers' and workers' delegates; intervention of prefect	Fuel allowances; family allowances
CLOTHING						
Paris	Ready made	<sup>(1)</sup>	34.45 <sup>(4)</sup> to 127.20 <sup>(4)</sup>		Agreement between employers' association and general workers' union	Increase in piecework rates for workshop and home workers; joint committee appointed
— do —	Underclothing	<sup>(1)</sup>	5.00 to 18.50 <sup>(2)</sup>	3.00 to 10.00 <sup>(2)</sup>	— do —	
— do —	Sempstresses	8		350 to 650 per month	Agreement between association and federation of women workers' unions	Sickness allowance; annual holiday of a week or a fortnight according to length of service; from one to six months' notice of discharge according to length of service
— do —	Corsets (hand workers)	<sup>(2)</sup>		1.50 to 7.50 <sup>(3)</sup>		
	(machine workers)	<sup>(2)</sup>		2.50 to 10.00 <sup>(3)</sup>		
— do —	Cutters	<sup>(1)</sup>	3.75 to 15.00 <sup>(1)</sup>		Agreement between association and general workers' union	

(9) Cost of living bonus included.

(10) For each baking. (11) For each 150 kilograms (330.7 lbs.) of flour kneaded. (12) Children 0.60 to 1.30 per hour.

(13) Per month plus tips. (14) Four bakings a day. (15) Per month, board and lodging additional.



Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Paris	Flower makers	( <sup>2</sup> )		1.10 to 1.25	Agreement between association and general workers' union	
— do —	Ready made (ladies')	48 ( <sup>4</sup> )	25.80 to 76.80 ( <sup>4</sup> )		— do —	
— do —	Wholesale millinery	( <sup>2</sup> )		18.75 to 82.50 ( <sup>4</sup> )	— do —	Piece-work rates
— do —	Millinery	( <sup>2</sup> )		Including board : 56.25 to 256.25. ( <sup>2</sup> ) Not including board : 118.25 to 337.50	— do —	
Bordeaux	Barbers	60 hrs on duty ( <sup>4</sup> )	3.00 to 18.00 ( <sup>2</sup> )		Agreement between employers' association and workers' union after strike	Board and lodging discontinued ; abolition of tips
Douarnenez	Tailors	8	1.25		Conciliation proceedings before magistrate between delegates of employers and workers	Wages of apprentices; overtime rates
Rennes	Clothing alteration hands	( <sup>2</sup> )	0.60 to 1.00		Agreement between employers' association and union	Piece-work rates; additional allowances for special work
Loire Inférieure	Barbers	( <sup>2</sup> )	18 frs. ( <sup>2</sup> ) plus 10% commission		Agreement between employers and union	Abolition of tips; fortnight's notice of discharge
Lille	Barbers	( <sup>2</sup> )	20 frs. ( <sup>2</sup> ) plus 10% commission on work and sales		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	Abolition of tips
— do —	Ready made clothing	( <sup>2</sup> )	Workers, 2.50 to 24.00 ( <sup>2</sup> ) Cutters, 90 to 600 per month		Agreement between employers' association and union	
Roubaix	Cutters (men and women); apprentices	48 ( <sup>4</sup> )	400 to 550 per month 50 to 260 per month		Agreement between employers and unions	Exceptions to the 48-hour week; overtime rates; piece-work rates
— do —	Apprentices	48 ( <sup>4</sup> )	0.50 to 1.15		Agreement between employers' and workers' organisations	One week's notice of discharge ; Saturday half-day; duration of apprenticeship;

Chalon sur Saône	Clothing	48 (*)			Agreement between employers and union	Overtime; 7 days' notice of dismissal; 15 days' sick leave a year at full wage with medical certificate
Rouen	Shirt-makers	(2)		33.50 to 60. (*)	Agreement between employers' association and union after strike	Cost of living bonus; joint committee
— do —	Dressmakers	8		0.75 to 1.50	Agreement between employers' association and union (intervention of labour inspector)	One week's notice of dismissal
— do —	Laundry workers	(2)	0.80 and 1.10	0.80 and 1.10	Agreement between employers' association and union	Method of applying 8-hour day Act
— do —	Dyeing and Cleaning	48 (*)	1.60 to 2.25	1.00 to 1.20	Agreement between employers' association and union (intervention of labour inspector)	Exceptions to the 48-hour week; one month's notice to terminate; arbitration committee for disputes
Boissezon and Val Durenque	Drapery		1.00 (2)	6.50 (2)	Agreement between delegates of employers and workers; arbitration under 1892 Act	Cost of living bonus
FOOD						
Paris	Horse-flesh butchers	8	(2)	(2)	Agreement concluded at the Ministry of Labour after a strike	Minimum output demanded
Oran	Commercial employees; colonial products	8	(2)	(2)	Agreement between employers and union	
Mascara (Algeria)	Bread kneading (hand)	(2)	(16) 9.00		Arbitration award (law of 27 Dec. 1892)	
— do —	Kneading (machine)	(2)	(16) 4.50		— do —	
— do —	Baking	8	(16) 0.50		— do —	
Nice	Cooks	8	(22) 700.00 to 1,000.00		Agreement between associations of employers and union; intervention of prefect, mayor, and labour inspector.	Wages of apprentices fixed; travelling expenses paid; abolition of gratuities

(16) Increase of 130 % over 1914 rates.

(17) Apprentices 0.70 to 1.00.

(18) Equal pay for equal work.

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Marseille	Cooks	8	( <sup>11</sup> ) 300.00 to 600.00		Agreement between associations of employers and union; intervention of prefect, mayor, and labour inspector	Wages of apprentices fixed and length of apprenticeship; hygienic conditions in kitchens
Toulouse	Bakers	8	( <sup>11</sup> ) 18.00		Agreement between employers and delegates of workers after strike	Contracts for apprentices, weekly rest day, mixed committee appointed to revise contract according to cost of living
Bordeaux	Candy makers	48( <sup>4</sup> )	( <sup>12</sup> ) 1.75 to 2.00	4 to 8	Agreement between one establishment and union after strike	Piece-work with bonus
Béziers	Coffee-house waiters	10	250.00 to 400.00		Agreement between employers' association and union; conciliation before magistrate after strike	
Montpellier	— do —	10	( <sup>12</sup> ) 250.00 to 400.00		Agreement between association of employers and union after strike	
Chalons-sur-Marne	Bakers	10 ( <sup>11</sup> )	( <sup>13</sup> ) 100.00 to 150.00		— do —	Four bakings a day; additional pay for hand kneading; 3 days' notice of dismissal
Nancy	— do —	8	( <sup>3</sup> ) 15.00 ( <sup>1</sup> )		— do —	Additional bakings 5 frs. each; payments in kind
Lille	— do —	8	( <sup>4</sup> ) 110.00 to 120.00		Decision of joint committee	Establishment of a mixed committee; overtime labour conditions in co-operative stores
— do —	Workers in chicory	8	( <sup>3</sup> ) 4.00 to 18.00		Decision of joint committee and labour inspector	Overtime; special conditions for

Lille	— do —	( <sup>e</sup> ) 48	( <sup>2</sup> )	— do —	Advance notice of dismissal
Ajaccio (Corsica)	Café waiters	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>13</sup> ) 150.00	Agreement between employers and union	Wages to be revised according to cost of living
Roubaix	Brewers Distillers	( <sup>e</sup> ) 48	( <sup>e</sup> ) 135.00	Agreement between employers' association and union	Plus 19.20 frs. cost of living bonus per week
— do —	Workers in alcohol and yeast plants	( <sup>e</sup> ) 48	2,075 to 2,375	Agreement between one establishment and workers' delegates	
Lyon	Cooks	8	( <sup>10</sup> )	Agreement between employers' association and union	Eighteen months' apprenticeship; three days' notice of dismissal; written contract obligatory
— do —	Bakers	8	( <sup>2</sup> ) 16.00 to 21.00	— do —	Weekly rest day; no notice of discharge
Chatellerault	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> ) 16.00	— do —	Payment in kind; obligation to resort to arbitration under the Act of 1892 in cases of dispute
Limoges	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> ) 19.25 to 20.25	Agreement between employers' association and union	
LEATHER					
Bord	Leather dressers	8	( <sup>2</sup> ) 6.40 to 12.80	Agreement between one establishment and workers' delegates; conciliation after strike	
Morestel	Shoemakers	8	( <sup>2</sup> ) 15.00	( <sup>2</sup> ) 6.00 to 10.00	Agreement between one establishment and workers' delegates; conciliation after strike before magistrate
Saint-Etienne	Saddlers, harness makers	( <sup>2</sup> )	1.00 to 2.25	Joint committee presided over by Secretary-General of the prefecture	Standards of physical condition of workers lowered

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Reims	Fur sorters	( <sup>2</sup> )	2.50		Agreement between one establishment and union; intervention of inspector of labour	Piece-work rates
Lille	Shoe makers	( <sup>4</sup> ) 48	( <sup>7</sup> ) 1.00 to 3.50		Joint committee presided over by labour inspector	Table of piece-work rates
— do —	Tanners	( <sup>2</sup> )	2.35 to 2.85		Agreement between one establishment and union	
Rouen	Harness makers	8	( <sup>1</sup> ) 1.75		Agreement between employers' association and section of union	Overtime: increase of 0.25 fr.; travelling allowance; Sunday work 6 francs; one week's notice of dismissal
METALS						
Paris	Horse-shoers	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>6</sup> ) 139.20 to 148.80		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	
Vienne	Metal workers	8	( <sup>11</sup> ) 1,975 to 2,475		Agreement between employers' association and union after strike	Committee of employers and workers to adjust wage-scale according to cost of living; apprentices' wages 0.70 to 1.90 fr.; overtime 25 % to 50 % extra
Roanne	— do —	( <sup>6</sup> ) 48	( <sup>18</sup> ) 1.75 to 2.50		— do — Intervention of Prefect	Workers' delegates appointed in each workshop to deal with disputes between workers and employer; overtime rates
Paris	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>23</sup> ) 14.10 to 20.00		Agreement between delegates	

[197]	Maubeuge	— do —	8	0.45 to 2.18	Agreement between employers' association and union	Appointment of joint arbitration committee and agreement not to strike until conciliation tried; cost of living bonus
	Zeneghem	— do —	(*) 48	(*) 10.00 to 18.00	Agreement between one company and union	Cost of living bonus fixed periodically by committee
	Linoges	— do —	8	(*) 8.00 to 18.00	Agreement between employers' association and union (after strike)	Overtime rates; joint committee for cost of living
	MINES			per day		
	La Tour	Miners	(*)	10.05 to 13.50	Local joint committee	
	Decazeville	Miners ; pick men ; timber men	(*)	(?) 15.80	Arbitration of the Ministers of Labour and Public Works at the request of both parties	Allowance of 0.50 fr. per working day for each child under 13 years of age or dependant
	Saint-Georges-de-Luzençon	Underground workers ; surface workers	(*)	14.75 to 22.00	Local committee	— do —
	Millau	Underground workers ; surface workers	(*)	13.00 to 15.00 16.00 to 20.00	— do —	— do —
	Rodez	Underground workers ; surface workers	(*)	14.00 13.00 to 18.25 14.85 to 15.50	Local joint committee	— do —
	Tulle	Underground workers ; surface workers ; special workers	(*)	13.55 to 17.15 8.00 to 13.90 13.65 to 17.50	Local committee	Bonus of 6.00 fr. a month for every child under 13 years of age
	La Motte d'Avicillans	Underground workers ; surface workers	(*)	19.20 to 21.15 16.00 to 18.50	— do —	
	Bourg d'Oisans	Underground workers ; surface workers ; sorters	(*)	11.75 to 19.50 10.40 to 17.55 8.80 to 11.05	— do —	Allowance of 3.00 fr. a month for each child under 13 years of age

(\*) Apprentices.

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Laval	Underground workers ; surface workers	( <sup>2</sup> )	per day 10.75 to 20.80		Local committee	Allowance of 3.00 fr. a month for each child under 13 years of age
		( <sup>2</sup> )	8.50 to 18.50			
Communay	Underground workers ; surface workers	( <sup>2</sup> )	17.90 to 21.20		— do —	Allowance of 0.30 per working day for each child under 13 years of age
		( <sup>2</sup> )	9.35 to 18.25			
Saint-Aubin-de-Luigné	Miners	( <sup>2</sup> )			Arbitration of Ministers of Labour and Public Works at request of the two parties to the local committee	2.00 fr. cost of living bonus; allowance of 0.50 fr. per working day for each child under 13 years of age
Departments of the North and Pas-de-Calais.	Miners		( <sup>20</sup> ) 24.50		Arbitration of the Ministers of Labour and Public Works	Workers paid by the day ; wage equal to that of 1914, multiplied by the coefficient 3.4 (cost of living bonus included)
			( <sup>7</sup> ) 17.52			
— do —	Apprentices 13 years of age	( <sup>2</sup> )	9.50 commencing wage; increase of 0.60 each six months up to the age of 15 years			Allowance of 1.00 fr. a day for each dependent child under 13 years of age; same allowance granted to children who become chief bread-winners, whose fathers have died in the employment of the company
Tarbes			( <sup>7</sup> ) 3.00 to 9.00		District joint committee	

Saint-Michel	16 to 18 ; surface workers from 16 to 18 years	( <sup>2</sup> )	2.00 increase		Local committee	Allowance of 0.30 fr. per working day for wife and each child un- der 18 years
	Pick men ; timber men	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>20</sup> ) 19.00			
Landry	Underground workers ;	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>20</sup> ) 19.00			Allowance of 0.30 fr. per day for each child under 16 years provided that the worker has worked at least 20 days
	skilled surface workers ;	( <sup>2</sup> )	18.00			
	unskilled workers	( <sup>2</sup> )	12.50			
Aime	Underground workers ;	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>20</sup> ) 11.00 to 19.00	Local committee		Allowance of 3.00 fr. a month for each child un- der 16 years of age (reduced if the worker has worked less than 15 days in the month); bonus for stea- dy work
	surface workers	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>20</sup> ) 11.00 to 15.00			
Carmaux-Albi	Pick men ; miners ; timber men	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> ) 16.75	Arbitration of Ministers of Labour and Public Works		Allowance of 0.50 fr. per working day for each child under 13 years of age or dependent
PAPER AND CARDBOARD Paris	Cardboard workers	8	( <sup>2</sup> ) 1.90 to 3.10 per hour	Agreement between employ- ers' association and union		Exceptions to the 8-hour day; overtime; Sa- turday ½-day; permanent joint committee ap- pointed for a year, renewa- ble unless notice is given (six weeks' notice to be given)
— do —	— do —	8	( <sup>2</sup> ) 2.40 to 3.50	1.50 to 2.40	Agreement between employ- ers' association and union	

(<sup>20</sup>) Basic wage.



Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Cognac	Printers	( <sup>2</sup> )	5.00 to 16.50 ( <sup>2</sup> )		Agreement after strike between employers' association and union	Cost of living bonus 0.15 to 0.40 fr.; joint arbitration committee to follow fluctuation in cost of living
Montpellier	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	5.00 to 16.00		— do —	Piece-work rates fixed
Voiron	— do —	( <sup>2</sup> )	13.00 to 21.00 ( <sup>2</sup> )		Agreement between employers and union	Duration of apprenticeship and wages to apprentices; joint committee to revise wages every three months
Orléans	— do —	8	12.00 to 16.00 ( <sup>2</sup> ) (men) 3.00 to 12.00 ( <sup>2</sup> ) (boys)	8.80 ( <sup>2</sup> )	Joint committee	Cost of living bonus for men and boys 2.40; women 1.50
Angers	— do —	8	1.00 to 2.00 ( <sup>2</sup> )		Agreement between employers' association and union	Overtime rates; special work; joint arbitration committee
Clermont-Ferrand	— do —	8	18.00 to 22.80 ( <sup>2</sup> )		— do —	Joint arbitration committee
Méru	— do —	8	2.65		Agreement between employer and union	Overtime rates
Toulon	— do —	8	17.00 to 18.00 ( <sup>2</sup> )		Agreement between employers and local branch of printers' union	Night work 17.00 to 20.00 fr.; joint committee to consider variation in cost of living
Avignon	— do —	8	15.90 to 16.90 ( <sup>2</sup> )		After strike: arbitration award of the Prefect; agree-	Abolition of cost of living bonus

City	Industry	No. of workers	Wages	Hours	Notes	Comments
Paris	Marble workers	(*)	2.90 to 3.45		Arbitration award of the labour inspector	Joint committee
	Glass workers	(*)	(*) 8 to 20		Arbitration award of the labour inspector	Payments in kind
	Pottery workers	(*)	(*) 21.00		Agreement between delegates of employers and union	Travelling allowance
	Cement workers	(*) 48	Labourers (20) 2.25 to 2.75 skilled workers; 2.75		Agreement between delegates of workers and employers	Travelling allowance
— do —	Navvies	(*) 48	(*) 2.25 to 2.75		Agreement between association of employers and union; intervention of departmental labour inspector after strike	Allowances for unhealthy work
	Marble workers	(*)	2.90			
TEXTILES						
Lyon	Weaving and milling	(*)	(*) 12.00 to 18.00		Agreement between employers' and workers' organisations	Conditions for apprentices and elderly workers
Oullins	Weaving	(*)	(*) 16.00 to 17.00		Agreement between employers and union	Minimum output; duration of apprenticeship; in case of dispute obligation to attempt arbitration before the joint committee
TRANSPORT						
Paris	Dredging	8	16.00 to 25.00 (*) 2.00 to 2.25		Agreement between employers and union	Overtime; clothing allowance
— do —	Dockers	8	2.50 to 3.20		Agreement between employers' association and union	Piece-work rates; overtime 50% extra; travelling allowance outside Paris

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Arzew (Algeria)	Dockers and coal men	8	14.00 to 16.00 (*)		Agreement between employers' and workers' delegates	Overtime; arbitration committee in case of disputes
Cognac	Draymen	(*)	375.00 to 450.00 per month		Conciliation after strike before magistrate; agreement between delegates of employers and workers	Travelling allowances; special rates for Sunday; one week's notice of dismissal
Cette	Dockers	8	22.00 (*) (*)		Arbitration award between employers' association and union after strike; (arbitrators appointed by agreement)	Overtime; cost of living bonus and output bonus; joint committee appointed
St-Etienne	Transport	8	350.00 to 450.00 a month		Agreement between employers' delegates and union	Saturday half-day; appointment of workers' delegates
Cherbourg	Dockers	(*)	13.50 (*)		Agreement between employers and union	Special rates for night work, overtime, Sunday work and work on public holidays
Lorient	Coal men	(*)	14.40 to 16.40 (*)		Agreement between employers and workers' delegates, after strike, at the Ministry of Labour	
Lille	Tramways	8	15.05 to 16.80; (*) 1.90 to 2.50		Agreement between company and union	Payment in kind; overtime rates; weekly rest
— do —	— do —	8	Auxiliary workers 2.20-2.65 (*)			
Roubaix	Transport	8	124.30 (*)		Agreement between employers' association and workers' unions	One week's notice of dismissal; extension of hours of work one hour

	Transport (household removals) Carriers	10 maximum	20.00 to 22.00 (*) (*) 475.00 per month		Agreement after strike between delegates of employers and workers (intervention of labour inspector)	6.00 fr. travelling allowance; overtime 50 % extra; weekly rest; Sunday work 100 % extra
Havre	Port	8	22.50 (*)		Agreement between employers' association and union	Overtime; Sunday work; work on public holidays; arbitration committee appointed
Les Sables-d'Olonne	Dockers	(*)	1.85		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers after strike	Overtime 2.50 fr. per hour
WOOD WORKING						
Paris	Basket makers	8	(*)		Agreement between associations of employers and workers	
Morlaix	Carriage makers	8	(*) 10.00 to 19.00 (*)		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers; conciliation proceedings after strike before magistrate	
Bordeaux	Cabinet makers	(*) 48	(**) 23.00		Agreement between employers and union	Duration of apprenticeship three years; permanent joint committee appointed; allowance for tools
Toulouse	Joiners	(*) 48	2.50		— do —	One week's notice of dismissal; suppression of piece-work; appointment of joint committee; overtime
Lunel	Basket makers	(*) 48	(*) 8.00		Conciliation proceedings after strike before magistrate	
Pont-du-Beauvoisin	Furniture makers	(*) 48	1.25 to 2.30		Agreement between employers' association and the union after strike	Joint committee appointed; allowance for tools

(\*) Minimum daily rate. (\*\*) Monthly by classes of workers and establishments.

Industrial group and locality	Occupation	Hours of labour	Rate of wages		Method by which decision was reached	Other conditions of the agreement
			Male	Female		
Saint-Etienne	Carpenters	(*) 48	(*) 2.50 to 2.75		Agreement between employers' association and union after strike	Travelling expenses paid
— do —	Joiners	8	1.90 to 2.50		Agreement between employers and workers	Travelling expenses paid; overtime
— do —	Furniture makers	8	(*) 2.25		Agreement between employers' association and union	
Halluin	Chair makers	8	2.00 to 2.85		— do —	Wages for apprentices; suppression of bargaining and regulations for home work
Lille	Carriage makers; wheelwrights;	8	2.15 to 2.85 (*)		— do —	Apprentice' wages 0.50 to 0.75 fr.; duration of apprenticeship
Roubaix-Tourcoing	Wood turners	(*) 48	0.75 to 2.50		Intervention of labour inspector	Wages for apprentices
— do —	Trunk makers	(*) 48	2.35 to 3.20		Agreement between one establishment and employees' delegates; intervention of labour inspector	Apprentices' wages 1.20 to 2.20
Thiers	Carpenters, joiners	8	2.25		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers; intervention of sub-Prefect	
Le Havre	Furniture makers	8	3.00	1.50	Agreement between delegates of employers and union	One week's notice of dismissal
Rouen	Joiners	(*)	(*) 2.25		Agreement between delegates of employers and workers	
— do —	Carriage makers	8	1.35 to 3.15		Agreement between employers' association and union	

## Minimum Wage Laws of the United States <sup>(1)</sup>

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THE first statute on minimum wage legislation to be enacted in the United States was that of Massachusetts in 1912. Eight other States enacted laws in 1913. However, questions of constitutionality were raised and remained unsettled for a number of years, so that legislative progress was effectually checked. But two laws were enacted in 1915, one in 1917, one in 1918, and three in 1919. In one State, Nebraska, an Act of 1913, which was never made use of, was repealed in 1919. The present status is that there are thirteen States having such laws <sup>(2)</sup>, besides the District of Columbia and the island possession, Porto Rico.

In Colorado, as in Nebraska, the law has remained a dead letter since its enactment, though some steps toward investigations of wages were in prospect in November 1919. In the other jurisdictions the laws are operative, unless it be in Porto Rico, where opposition to the law was quite general. The people of Ohio in 1912 amended their constitution so as to permit the enactment of a minimum wage law, but the Legislature has never acted.

### TYPES AND MAIN PROVISIONS OF LAWS

There are two types of law, one in which the rate is fixed by statute <sup>(3)</sup>, while in the other a board or commission is charged with the duty of investigating industries and determining a suitable rate, either independently or after investigation and recommendation by advisory bodies known as wage boards or conferences. The latter method is by far the most common, being followed in all jurisdictions except three <sup>(3)</sup>. In Arkansas there is a general rate prescribed by the law, but a commission is authorised to determine rates in localities and industries according to discovered needs.

In the matter of enforcement, the Massachusetts law stands alone in failing to provide a penalty for non-compliance.

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(1) We herewith reprint part of an article by Lindley D. Clark in the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1921.

(2) Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin.

(3) Arizona, Porto Rico, and Utah.

Here the power of public opinion is depended upon, the commission being authorised to publish the names of employers not paying the rates fixed. However, such action has never been taken, compliance being generally secured by other measures. In all other States the fixed rate is to be observed, and failure to pay the same entails a liability for the difference between rates actually paid and the fixed minimum, where the latter is higher ; penalties may also be enforced as for a misdemeanour. Practically all of the laws also provide for the protection of employees testifying before the commission, acting on wage boards, or otherwise engaging in activities looking toward the observance of the law.

The law is in all cases restricted to females, so far as adult labour is concerned, though in a majority of the States minors are also included. By the term "minor" is meant persons under 18 years of age in eight States <sup>(4)</sup>, while in one <sup>(5)</sup> the term "minor" is unqualified and in another <sup>(6)</sup> the Act applies to males under 21 and females under 18, those above 18 being regarded as women. The law of Texas applies to minors under 15 years of age.

Practically all occupations in which the persons subject to the Act are employed are covered by it, though domestic service is excluded in the District of Columbia, agriculture and domestic service in North Dakota, and agriculture, domestic service, and nursing in Texas. Arkansas excludes cotton factories and the gathering of fruit and farm products.

In nearly every case the law is based on the necessary cost of living adequate to maintain health and welfare, or "to supply the necessary comforts of a reasonable life". In some States wages of minors need not be adequate for their maintenance, but must be "suitable" or "not unreasonably low". Rates lower than the minimum for experienced workers may be fixed for learners and for women of sub-standard capacity, either physically or mentally. In such cases special licenses are issued by the commission, a few of the laws restricting the number of these licenses to a designated proportion of the total number of workers; in some other cases the commission may determine the proportion.

In Massachusetts an employer may submit evidence to show that his business would be rendered unprofitable by a compliance with the law, and secure an Order against the publication of his name on account of his failure to comply.

Except in Arizona, where the courts are supposed to prosecute violations of the law, a commission, either special or one charged with other functions, administers the law. This commission may be uncompensated <sup>(7)</sup>, may receive

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(4) California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Kansas, Massachusetts, North Dakota, Oregon, and Washington.

(5) Wisconsin.

(6) Minnesota.

(7) Arkansas, District of Columbia.

expenses only <sup>(8)</sup>, or may receive per diem and expenses <sup>(9)</sup>. In the remaining States the law is administered by salaried officers charged with the administration of other laws affecting labour. Of course, where the rates are statutory no advisory body is possible for the determination of rates. Elsewhere such bodies are contemplated, except in Arkansas and Texas. The appointment of such boards is optional in six States <sup>(10)</sup>; in the remainder <sup>(11)</sup> no rate can be established by the commission until after recommendations have been made by an advisory board. As a matter of fact, in all States in which action has been taken at all, with the exception of Arkansas and Texas, advisory boards have been called into being in connection with practically every Order or Decree issued. In some cases the board has served in connection with a number of industries, though the general rule is to appoint a separate board for each industry or occupation. In several States, in which a board must give advice in connection with the wages of women, the commission is authorised to fix rates for minors on its own motion.

## PROCEDURE

### *Administrative Commissions*

As already indicated, the administration of the laws of most States involves the action of two official bodies, one permanent, the other transitory. Some of the permanent bodies are State officials charged with the administration of other labour legislation, the enforcement of minimum wage laws being a comparatively small part of their work. This situation obtains in four States <sup>(12)</sup>, while in North Dakota the duty of administration devolves upon the Workmen's Compensation Bureau. This situation is in part a result of changes from the original plan, a special commission having had charge in Massachusetts, until the organisation in 1919 of the Department of Labor and Industries, when the work of the commission was placed in the hands of this Department; in Utah also the Bureau of Labor originally had charge of the enforcement of the law, as is still the case in Porto Rico.

In but three jurisdictions <sup>(13)</sup> are the minimum-wage commissions restricted to that subject only, the question of hours being also in their hands in Arkansas, while in five States <sup>(14)</sup> the commissions have general power as regards the conditions of employment of women and minors.

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(8) Kansas, Minnesota, Oregon, and Washington.

(9) California.

(10) California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Minnesota, North Dakota, and Oregon.

(11) Kansas, Massachusetts, Washington, and Wisconsin.

(12) Colorado, Massachusetts, Utah, and Wisconsin.

(13) District of Columbia, Minnesota, and Nebraska.

(14) California, Kansas, Oregon, Texas, and Washington.



The most common number of persons constituting these special commissions is three, though there are five in California and in Washington. These commissions are to be composed of representatives of employers, employees, and the public. The same principle controls, either by direct provision or by the action of the Government, in appointing the commissions of other States which are charged with more general duties. This places the public representative somewhat in the position of an arbitrator between the representatives of groups whose interests are supposed to be diverse ; but, so far as appears, the action of the commissions has generally been unanimous, especially where it consists, as it does in most cases, in passing upon recommendations submitted by the advisory boards or conferences.

It is the first duty of these commissions to discover the propriety or necessity of a minimum wage Order in some specific employment or occupation. Use has been made of other surveys, but the most frequent practice is for the commission to institute its own survey of wage records, either by reports from employers or by investigations carried on through agents. If the facts indicate, in their judgment, the propriety of establishing a wage rate, the commissions of two States<sup>(15)</sup> may proceed at once to establish rates on the basis of their own investigation. In the other States, either by compulsion or by choice, wage boards are organised to consider the data submitted and other data that they may collect, and to make recommendations. This, of course, excludes the States of Arizona and Utah and the island of Porto Rico, where the rate is fixed by law.

### *Advisory Bodies*

Like the permanent commissions, the advisory bodies are representative of employers, employees, and the public, except in California, where no public representatives are called in. The number of persons constituting these boards is not fixed absolutely, but the number of employer and employee representatives must be equal ; in some cases an equal number of public representatives must be appointed, though in others it may be smaller. Some laws limit the number to three in each group, others make three the minimum, while still others make no limitation. In Minnesota there are to be from three to ten representatives of employers, an equal number of employees, and one or more of the public, at least one-fifth of the total to be women. The Colorado law requires the labour representatives to be females. One or more of the commissioners must participate in most States, the statute frequently designating a representative of [the commission as chairman of the wage board.

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(15) Arkansas and Texas.

The mode of selection of the representatives of the various groups may be said to rest with the commission, the law simply saying they shall be selected. In common practice, employers' and employees' organisations are requested to nominate a number in excess of the actual appointments contemplated, and from these nominations selections are made. Apparent attempts have been made by employers to dictate appointments by restricting the number of their nominations to the number of persons whose appointment was desired. This situation has been met by the commission refusing to appoint more than a proportionate number of the nominees, proposing to fill up the roster by its own independent action unless a suitable number of nominees should be submitted. Where no organisations exist, ballots have been distributed among workers, meetings called in large establishments, or mass meetings held in some convenient hall, for the purpose of securing nominees. A definite system of balloting has been formulated in some jurisdictions, the commission indicating the qualifications of persons to be voted for, as by requiring that they should have served in the occupation under consideration for a certain length of time, that they should be of the class directly concerned, etc..

In other cases it has been found desirable to accept as representatives of workers persons who are not themselves directly interested in the results of the findings, and who are independent of the attitude or action of the employers concerned. This amounts to an attorney system, but eliminates the possibility of conflict between employers and employees directly concerned, and also affords opportunity to secure more competent representation than would be the case, if workers of the grade affected should be the sole source from which representation could be drawn. Some commissions avoid securing employer and employee representatives from the same establishment. A woman representing labour in one State, in which this attorney system existed, questioned her representative capacity, because she had never worked in the exact atmosphere of the persons affected. However, she questioned also the ability of a woman, who was without sufficient experience or force of character to have advanced herself beyond a sub-minimum status, to meet employers and intelligently discuss the questions involved, and hold her own against the pressure that she would meet in such a conference.

Public representatives are selected by the commission directly. An examination of the names and occupations represented disclosed a wide variety of public men, welfare workers, teachers, club women, and the like, who have given their time to the work devolving upon them with a spirit of interest and devotion to the public welfare.

The public representatives are exposed to a strong possibility of becoming arbitrators or conciliators between rival claimants, and some question has been raised as to the desir-

ability of their appointment at all. In California, where none are made use of, the commission feels that they would be a superfluity, especially in view of the fact that the public is represented by the commission, a member of whom presides as chairman on the wage board. Another claim is that there should be no attempt to adjust by arbitration, but that, as employers and employees have met together to deal with absolute facts, they should arrive at a conclusion on the basis of such facts without the overbidding and underbidding procedure likely to be developed where employers and employees submit rival claims for arbitral consideration. On the other hand, in the much larger number of jurisdictions in which the public representatives are called upon to serve, the opinion was almost unanimous that they render a necessary service, and are practically essential to the functioning of the wage boards.

### *Basis for Determination*

The principal question before these boards is the determination of cost of living, since the principle governing the fixing of rates is that they shall be adequate for maintenance and shall supply the necessary cost of living to maintain the worker in health, or maintain health and welfare, and the like. Recurring to the claim that this question is simply a matter of fact into which no arbitral attitude should be injected, the fact remains that very considerable differences in budgets have developed. In some instances employers have made enquiries of their own workers and of workers in the same class as to their actual expenditures and have submitted these as fairly representative of adequate living costs. Employees, on the other hand, ambitious to secure relief from depressed conditions, have made use of budgets either of their own compilation or secured through agencies friendly to them, which have been far in excess of those submitted by the employers. As to the submission of budgets based on actual expenditures, it must be recognised that a self-supporting woman cannot continuously expend more than her income, so that, if it is not adequate, her standard of living is necessarily depressed; if it is adequate, there is no occasion on her behalf for a minimum wage rate to be established. As to the second method, it is obvious that there is a very great temptation to go beyond real necessity in the determination of desirable expenditures.

The fundamental difficulty connected with the establishment of a budget of living costs as usually conducted was measurably avoided in an investigation carried out by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1919. The customary method of securing a list of individual family expenses was supplemented by a determination of the necessary consumption of the various items making up a budget, thus

developing a quantitative budget to which costs can be applied according to local conditions or market changes. It would seem that such procedure would meet the claim made by some persons that the question was one of fact and not one of an arbitral nature, since the needs of a working woman for certain nutriment, articles of apparel, and other necessities are capable of a fairly accurate determination. With this material in hand, a minimum wage commission would need only to know current prices for the localities to be affected, and would then proceed with reasonable exactness to a determination of a rate. The same practical result is attained by adjusting a rate once determined on an approved budget basis, so as to meet subsequent changes in cost of living.

Where separate boards or conferences are appointed for each industry, there have been differences in their recommendations entirely without basis in the circumstances. Thus in Massachusetts in 1918 rates were established for three industries—muslin underwear, retail millinery, and wholesale millinery; the rates for experienced workers were \$9, \$10, and \$11 per week, respectively. In 1919 four rates were made, ranging from \$11 to \$15, while in 1920 a rate as low as \$13.75 was fixed, and another as high as \$15.50. These rates were general throughout the State, no distinction being made between urban and rural localities. The question arises, therefore, as to what is the basis of compensation, since it cannot be said that a woman in a knit-goods factory requires either less clothing or less sustenance than one engaged in the manufacture of paper boxes; yet there is a difference in their wages of \$1.75 per week.

### *Occupational and Local Variations*

The opinion was practically unanimous, and the question was asked many times, that, where the basis of a minimum wage is the necessary cost of a reasonable living, occupations present slight differences. In laundry work excessive perspiration destroys the underwear, while waitresses in restaurants require an unusual amount of laundered clothing. In the main, however, the necessities of life are practically the same. This is recognised by the standard adopted in California for experienced workers, though it makes some differences for entrance wage and intermediate earnings in different occupations. Annual adjustments of the rates are made on the basis of investigations showing the cost of living, and the action preliminary to the issuance of new orders is not the action of wage boards for the separate industries, but public hearings at which all parties interested are given opportunity to speak.

Apart from occupational variations, local differences have been considered on the ground that costs in smaller places are lower than in cities. The first Oregon Decrees

applied to the city of Portland, rates for other parts of the State being later determined and a lower rate fixed. This method has been abandoned and a uniform rate fixed for practically all industries and all localities. In Minnesota it is assumed that a rate of \$10.25 in places of less than 5,000 population is equivalent to a rate of \$12 in more populous localities. The law of Arkansas was construed to warrant the fixing of rates for localities, the presumption of the Attorney-General being that the wage should be suitable for the locality and industry, though, if conditions should be found to be similar in different places in the State, a general Order could be made applicable to them. The contention was raised that the Industrial Welfare Commission of Texas should withhold action until it was authorised to make local discriminations, but its investigation led it to the conclusion that the differences in costs of living in the different parts of the State were not sufficient to warrant variations in the wage rates, and a general Order for the State was therefore issued. Local differences have therefore not been generally favoured, though there is a recognition of varying conditions in telephone offices in which full-time service is required, and those in which the operator has a considerable degree of leisure. Such distinctions exist under the Kansas law and in Wisconsin, while in Washington the commission retains the power to fix special rates according to the duties devolving upon the operators.

### *Special Licenses*

Besides experienced workers of average ability, it is necessary for the commissions to make provisions for learners and sub-standard workers. The matter of the employment of minors is sometimes in the hands of the commission exclusively, but it has turned out in practice that wage boards and conferences have generally considered the status of young persons, as well as older ones, beginning employment. An important problem involved has been the effect on the employment of children in fixing a lower rate than for adults. If the rate is too low, it tempts the employer to seek to make use of such labour as a feasible means of reducing expenses. On the other hand, a high wage has been said to offer temptation to children to leave school and seek employment instead of securing desirable education.

The problem of the sub-standard worker arises at the other end of the scale, being principally one of the aged woman, though lack of mental or physical ability earlier in life may also give rise to the necessity of conceding lower rates. The matter is in practical control in every State, the laws of California and Wisconsin specifically authorising their respective commissions to regulate the number of licenses of this type, while in three other States<sup>(16)</sup> their number may not exceed 10 per cent. of the workers in any establishment.

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(16) Colorado, Minnesota, and Texas.

*Promulgation of Rates*

Whether with or without the assistance of advisory boards, the work of promulgation is necessarily the duty of the permanent commission. Recommendations before it from wage boards or conferences, if approved, are embodied in a tentative finding, of which notice is usually given and a public hearing announced; in some cases more than one such hearing is provided for. It rarely happens in practice that these hearings result in any change in the tentative recommendations, though the rule is not without exceptions. Opportunity is given for a free and general expression of opinion as to the adequacy or inadequacy of the proposed rates, following which the commission is ready for the final step. This consists in the issuance of an Order or Decree setting forth the rate, periods of employment at learners' rates, and usually a notice that the Order must be posted so as to be accessible to workers; reference to the penal provisions of the law is also common, while some commissions are careful to add the statement that nothing in the Order is intended to prevent the payment of a higher rate.

The time when the Order shall take effect is usually fixed by the law at a given number of days, sixty in several States, subsequent to the promulgation of the Order. In a few cases the time is left to the discretion of the commission, and in such cases it may ask the advice of the wage board. Distribution by mail is directed as a rule, but the binding effect of the Order is not dependent upon such personal communications. The press of the State has generally been found ready to carry as news the essential information, while knowledge of the law is in any case legally presumed.

*Enforcement*

[E]xcept in Arizona, where the only enforcement contemplated is by court action, some administrative organisation has in each jurisdiction a measure of responsibility in this connection. In Massachusetts, as already stated, no penalty attaches for failure to comply with the law; but elsewhere not only the recovery of unpaid balances, but also of penalties for violation, is the rule. Legal procedure has been the exception thus far, the commissions desiring to establish a co-operative spirit and to secure compliance by understanding rather than by compulsion. Quite considerable sums have been recovered as unpaid balances, but almost without exception as a result of presentation of the facts by the commissions rather than by court action; some employers have exhausted patience, however, and conviction for violations as well as the recovery of deficits has followed. The rule is fixed by a decision of the Supreme Court of Washington, that there is no place for compromise in the adjustment of

claims for the difference between wages actually paid and the higher minimum fixed by Decree. The Court held that, inasmuch as there had been an authoritative determination of the fact that the minimum was necessary to the adequate support of the worker, she could not agree with her employer to receive a lower, as the question was one of public concern, affecting the general welfare.

The chief method of discovering delinquency is by inspections of the pay-rolls of employers in the industries covered. The commission may issue a call to employers to submit to it a transcript of their pay-rolls for a given period or day, or may by its own officials and agents make an examination at the office of the employer. Complaints by employees are more numerous in some States than in others, a few officials naming this as one of the important methods of discovering violations. In other cases complaints were said to be relatively few, sometimes being made only when the employee was for any reason leaving employment. Every effort is made to avoid the disclosure of complaints by workers who are to remain in service, lest they be prejudiced in their relations with their employers. An establishment of which complaint has been made may be visited as a matter of routine, and the violation discovered in course of a general inspection, a request from the commission that an adjustment be made naturally following.

### *Orders and Rates*

It has already been made evident that great variety exists in the treatment of the subject of Orders and rates in the different States. In Arkansas, where a general statutory rate was fixed, with authority in the commission to take up separate occupations, but a single Order has thus far been issued, applicable to a single occupation in a single city. This contrasts with the action of the newly functioning Texas commission, which established a rate for the entire State, covering telephone, telegraph, mercantile, laundry, and factory occupations. In Wisconsin, one of the oldest commissions has fixed a single rate for occupations generally throughout the State, while Washington is in a transitional condition. The commission at first fixed separate rates for a number of industries, making use of separate wage boards for the purpose. When the war advanced costs of living, the commission, acting under the authority of the State, to meet emergency conditions established a general rate, with the aid of a single wage board, superseding all earlier schedules with the exception of one relating to telephone operators. This rate was to continue in force for the period of the war, and, inasmuch as no treaty of peace has been concluded, it is still technically valid. However, the commission has proceeded to consider separate industries anew, wage boards having been organised and initial steps taken with regard to various

occupations, though a conclusion has been reached only in regard to public housekeeping.

In Minnesota all workers of ordinary ability receive the same rate in all occupations. In the other States and the District of Columbia occupational rates are fixed with varying degrees of refinement and coverage. Thus in California there are ten Orders, but with a single standard rate for experienced workers; in one of these beginners' rates are not recognised, while as to the rest three different entrance rates are provided for young learners, though inexperienced adult workers are on a general footing regardless of occupation. The four rates established in the District of Columbia up to the date of writing differ as to entrance rates, though for two the standard for experienced workers is the same. In Kansas two of the four minimum rates are alike, as are two of the rates for inexperienced workers, but it is not the same groups that are thus brought into parallelism—facts which again illustrate the lack of uniformity or of a scientific basis for the finding of rates, when the divergent attitudes and indeterminate personal equations of separate wage boards dominate the situation. Massachusetts, the oldest minimum wage State, presents the greatest range and variety of rates and the narrowest classifications of employments. Rates dating back to 1914 and 1915, amounting to \$8 or less, exist alongside of rates in excess of \$15 determined in 1920. There are fifteen Orders in all and thirteen different rates. North Dakota, all industries taking an even start in 1920, has eight different Orders and five different rates.

In Oregon the situation resembles that in California, seven separate Orders fixing the same weekly rate for experienced workers; however, the situation differs from that in California in that entrance rates are the same in all occupations. A separate Order with a slightly higher rate covers office occupations, though entrance rates are uniform with other occupations under the law.

From the foregoing general account it would appear that the tendency in the older minimum wage States, with the exception of Massachusetts, is to adopt a standard of practical uniformity for experienced workers in all occupations, this conclusion being supported by the examples of California, Oregon, and Wisconsin; in Washington the uniform war emergency rate has been varied in but a single instance, so that it was impossible to forecast either uniformity or lack of uniformity in future determinations. In Massachusetts, on the other hand, diversity rules, though with a hint at approximate uniformity in the fact that the three rates fixed in 1920 are \$15.25, \$15.40, and \$15.50, these being the three highest rates ever fixed by the commission of that State.

The opposite table shows the principal features of the laws of various States, together with standard rates and entrance rates for inexperienced workers and for young learners.



The considerable diversity in the length of learning periods and the rates of increase from time to time are not shown, being too complicated readily to yield to tabulation.

### RESULTS OF THE LAW

As has been already intimated, the full consequences of legislation of this type, assuming as it does the supersession of the old system of bargaining presumed to be controlled by the law of supply and demand, can be determined only by experience extending over a complete range of economic and industrial conditions. In but few cases were Orders in existence at so early a date as to affect conditions of employment during the period of depression following the outbreak of the European war; experience mainly accrued during the period of highly stimulated wartime production. Commission reports covering the period since the war are available in but few instances.

The experience in the time of increasing demand for labour is not without a large measure of significance, in view of the fact that this increase was paralleled by an equivalent, or even more rapid, increase in costs of living; and though it was found that, where low fixed rates remained unchanged, the economic conditions rather than the commission's Orders controlled the situation, the fact remained that wage rates in many cases lagged behind the advance in cost of living. Therefore, the work of the commission that was current with these movements was effective in securing better terms of employment for the women and children involved than were available as a result of the condition of the labour market.

One question that is often asked is whether or not the fixing of a rate supposed to be a living wage debarred women from opportunity for employment. Under the conditions of labour scarcity prevalent during the war, when many factory office windows kept continuously displayed the sign "help wanted", it is obvious that the answer must be in the negative. The rates required for women were not sufficient to tempt male labourers to compete in the lines of employment covered, even if there had been a sufficient number of them to have performed all work required. However, the reports of those commissions, whose Orders were in force prior to that time, are unanimous in their testimony that no such condition has existed at any time, and the few reports that have become available recently are to the same effect. Indeed, the latest report received, that of Wisconsin, indicates a continuing full demand for woman labour, which "has increased rather than decreased and has at all times far exceeded the supply", even with the transfer from war work to peace-time pursuits. A few employers interviewed spoke of some dismissals on the incipency of the Orders, but added that nothing of the kind had taken place recently though "it might be necessary when

the labour supply became more abundant." Of course, with the general prevalence of unemployment that is reported in the industries, the discharge of women could not be laid to the requirement that a minimum living wage should be paid, but rather to the general industrial condition.

The commissions generally expressed a willingness that the fixing of a standard minimum for children should have the effect of reducing employment, especially for the younger classes, and such results were believed to have followed in some States. The standards contemplated in the laws differ somewhat, some requiring that the minor must receive a living wage, as well as the adult, at least after he ceases to be a learner. Other States only require that minors' wages shall be "not unreasonably low" or "suitable". If one may judge by the statements of a considerable number of employers, young workers are not regarded as desirable, many of them saying that they would not take girls in stores at all below 16 and preferably not below 18. It is obvious that the value of the older worker, more mature and stable, is greater, and the declared unwillingness of employers to take on the younger workers at an approximately equal rate is most natural.



# INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

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## Industrial Health: Its Value in the Public Health Service <sup>(1)</sup>

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**D**URING the last hundred years, changes have taken place in the life of civilised nations far greater than during the previous four thousand years. These changes are the direct or indirect outcome of what is known as the industrial revolution: the outcome of applying mechanical power to perform work previously done for the most part by manual labour. For the most part we hold that the race has benefited, but we cannot be surprised if in some respects it is found to have suffered.

The industrial physician is aware that reaction to environmental conditions as represented by occupation is to be read in figures of mortality, figures which show, as might be anticipated, far wider divergencies with regard both to mortality from all causes and to mortality from special causes, than are to be found distinguishing the mortality rate of one country from that of another, of one city from that of another, or of a city from that of a rural population. The position may be maintained that study of the health of the productive section of the community is of immense importance with two objects in view: first, to ascertain how human health is affected by subjection to variations in environment, and secondly, to discover how best the health of those industrially employed can be ensured and maintained.

### METHODS OF RESEARCH

Investigations may be carried out into the effect of different influences, as exemplified by industrial conditions, by enquiring into records of (a) industrial birth, as reflected in labour turnover, i.e. the tendency of workers to leave their place of employment, a tendency which may have a psychological foundation due to dislike of the work, or a physiological foundation due to feelings of ill-health since commencing the

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(1) Extracts reprinted from a paper by Edgar L. COLLIS, M. A., M. D., M. R. C. P., in the *International Journal of Public Health*, Vol. II, No. 2, March-April, 1921.

work ; (b) industrial life, the adequate maintenance of which may be indicated by (i) time lost by different groups of workers which may be due to accidents, ill-health, or other ill-defined causes, (ii) the results of industrial activity, that is to say, output, (iii) the presence of industrial fatigue, and (iv) the presence of industrial unrest ; and (c) mortality data, taken as a measure of the final results of the stress and strain of life.

### INDUSTRIAL BIRTH

Industrial birth commences on engagement, even though the worker may have passed through a previous incarnation at some other establishment. The earlier life of the individual industrial prenatal existence, which is at least as important to industry as is prenatal life to the next generation, has until quite recently been taken no account of by industry. The child leaves off attending school for five hours a day one week, to enter the next week upon all the unfamiliar whirl of industrial work for eight hours a day. No training has been given in the process which is to be undertaken, no effort made to break the new worker in gradually. Little wonder that investigation<sup>(2)</sup> has shown that the length of time boys stay varies with their age, thus :

Boys leaving factory at age 14	had stayed	0.830 units of time
" " 14½	" 4.149	"
" " 15	" 9.543	"
" " 15½	" 12.034	"
" " 16	" 15.767	"
" " 16½	" 16.182	"

But the same observer also noted, by comparing the records of three factories, that betterment of conditions made for more continuous employment. In one factory boys stopped on an average 67.6 units of time, in another 21.3 units, and in a third 11.1 units ; these lengths of time corresponded with the amount of health supervision carried out at the different factories. Consideration is here called for as to what is the normal amount of labour turnover, and what reasons terminate it.

### LABOUR TURNOVER

An enquiry<sup>(3)</sup> made in America revealed that to increase a personnel consisting on 1 January 1912 of 38,668 persons to 46,796 persons on 31 December 1913, that is to say, to add 8,128 persons, there were engaged 44,365 persons ; in other words

(2) WELCH, W. R. : *Welfare Records and their Inference*, in *Journ. Roy. San. Inst.*, 1920, Vol. XLI, p. 251.

(3) GREENWOOD, H. : *A Report on the Causes of Wastage of Labour in Munitions Factories employing Women*; Medical Research Committee, Special Report Series, No. 16, 1918.

about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  times as many people had to be engaged as constituted the increase of forces attained. A not unusual way of stating labour turnover is to consider the personnel of a factory as stationary during twelve months, and to calculate, in the form of a percentage, the number of workers engaged during the year. Thus a labour turnover of 100 per cent. means that, to maintain a personnel of 100, it was found necessary to engage 100 new workers during twelve months. A careful enquiry made in America <sup>(4)</sup> at two engineering plants, disclosed a labour turnover of 30 per cent. at the better organised plant, and of 176 per cent. at the other. Other records indicate that a turnover of 30 per cent. is unusually low, and that one of 400 per cent. is by no means exceptional. Intensive investigations in England <sup>(5)</sup> have shown that the great majority of workers leave without any sufficient reason, and that only from 10 to 25 per cent. give ill-health as the reason for leaving. Labour turnover is certainly an important matter for the industrial hygienist, but it is clearly a more important matter for the industrial sociologist. Labour drift is a sign of unrest ; it is expensive to the employer and to the employed. The employer incurs expense in engaging a new worker; he loses, due to the inexperience of the new-comer, both in the quantity and quality of output and in spoilt material ; his accident liability is greater and so is the disorganisation due to lost time, both of which are experienced by new-comers to a higher degree than by more experienced workers. The worker loses by change of occupation ; he may be out of work for a time; he earns less while gaining experience ; he suffers more sickness and is more prone to sustain accidents.

The causes of leaving are difficult to ascertain. Even where careful records are kept, workers are found just to disappear without reason given. Investigation has established that (a) the rate of labour turnover is highest during the early weeks and months after engagement ; in this respect its course in an exaggerated way resembles that of infant mortality in vital statistics ; (b) the rate varies with age, juveniles leaving more rapidly than adults, and persons of advanced years more rapidly than younger adults ; (c) the rate varies with sex; it is higher for women than men ; and (d) the rate varies with married state ; it is higher for married women than for single. When enquiry is being made into labour turnover at any special process, the above influences must be allowed for ; a process at which married women or young boys are employed would normally experience a higher labour turnover than one at which men are employed.

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(4) U. S. A. PUBLIC HEALTH BULLETIN, No. 106: *Comparison of an Eight-Hour Plant and a Ten-Hour Plant* ; Gov. Print. Off., Washington, 1920.

(5) LOVEDAY, T. : *The Causes and Conditions of Lost Time*. Health of Munition Workers Committee, Interim Report (Cd. 8511), 1917.

Labour turnover may be diminished in three ways :

(1) Through *selection of workers*, which should be carried out by medical examination to ascertain that they are physically and physiologically capable of the work to be undertaken ; and by vocational selection to ascertain that they possess the necessary aptitude.

(2) Through *attention to conditions of work*, such as ventilation, lighting, temperature, exposure to dust, acids, fumes, and dirt; the provision of overalls, washing accommodation, canteens, rest-rooms and recreation, and well-planned hours of work with adequate wages.

(3) Through *close personal touch with the workers*, which may be established through what is known as welfare supervision ; this is usually carried out by a special branch of the management, to whom is delegated the human (as contrasted with the technical) side of industry. The selection of workers is frequently carried out by this branch, which thereafter keeps in friendly touch with the progress of each worker.

Action on these lines has been found capable of reducing labour turnover to 30 per cent. per year, and probably, when fully developed, even better results may be anticipated. Reduction of labour turnover to 30 per cent. throughout the occupations of the United Kingdom would mean an annual saving of some £ 70,000,000.

## INDUSTRIAL LIFE

Steps taken to minimise labour turnover react beneficially on the whole of industrial life, just as steps taken to minimise infant mortality react on the whole health of the community. Lightening the strain of introduction to industrial life produces healthier workers, more suited to their work and more contented. Industrial life itself provides special opportunities for investigating the reactions of the human organism to its surroundings.

*Lost time.* Various causes lead to lost time, such as breakdown in transport, bad weather, personal laziness, and lack of work ; but the one of most immediate interest is sickness, even though it does not always bulk largest among the recorded causes. Other causes tend to be distributed evenly throughout the year ; sickness shows well-marked seasonal variations, being highest in January and February and lowest in July, August, and September. Difficulties arise in attempting to distinguish accurately between causes of lost time ; the simplest plan to adopt is to take all together as a measure of sickness experienced. The minimum of the summer may be subtracted from the amount lost at any time, to obtain more definite information as to the amount due to sickness alone.

Influences similar to those affecting labour turnover also affect sickness. The rate varies for men and women ; women experience more during the years of menstrual life. The rate varies with age ; a group of males 45 years of age experience twice as much sickness as a group aged 25 years, and a group aged 55 nearly four times as much ; for females the age differences are rather slighter, a group of females between 41 and 55 years of age experience nearly twice as much sickness as a group between 21 and 25, and a group aged 61 and 65 four times as much. More sickness occurs among newly engaged workers than among the more permanent staff. Distribution of hours of work is also be an important factor.

### INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITY AND FATIGUE

Life depends upon two forms of chemical action, katabolism and anabolism, which, although now one, or now the other, may for the moment be in the ascendant, balance one another ; the correctness of the balance constitutes health. In everyday life katabolism is represented by activity or work, anabolism by recuperation or rest. The fact is emerging that, taking the week as a unit of time, human activity is at its best when the output of articles, on commencing work on Monday morning, quickly attains a height which is steadily maintained and slightly increased hour by hour as the day proceeds ; when the output of Tuesday morning starts slightly higher than on Monday and increases throughout the day ; and so on throughout the week <sup>(6)</sup>. A tendency for the output to fall during the afternoon of Monday is found associated with a tendency for the output of Friday to fall below that of Thursday, and that of Thursday to fall below that of Wednesday. The earlier on Monday the level of output begins to decline, the earlier in the week the daily output begins to decline. Associated with these falls of output, and proportional to them, occur such indications of impaired health as high labour turnover and increased lost time due to sickness and accidents.

Much work remains yet to be done, but certain points are becoming clear. Atmospheric conditions have been found to be of first importance <sup>(7)</sup> ; a temperature for physical work varying between 55° F. and 65° F. is associated with greatest output and fewest accidents, the lower limit for more active, and the higher limit for less active, work ; the temperature should not be uniform, but should vary within a few degrees ; the air should not be still, but be moving at

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(6) INDUSTRIAL FATIGUE RESEARCH BOARD, Report No. 10, 1920 : *Preliminary Notes on the Boot and Shoe Industry*. (Other Reports of the Board should be consulted.)

(7) HUNTINGDON, E. : *Civilisation and Climate*. Yale University Press, 1915.

a rate of about 10 feet per minute and the direction and rate of movement should be variable. Other influences, though important, are subsidiary to atmospheric conditions; lighting, for instance, should not fall below an illumination at the work of 2 foot candles<sup>(8)</sup>, even for rough work, and should always reach from 10 to 15 foot candles for fine work, such as engraving and watch-making; exposure to dust and fumes should be such that the composition of the air is the same as that outside. The relation of noise to work has not yet been ascertained; and much remains still to be done in mating workers to their work by the provision of adjustable seats and improving methods of work. Improvements in all these various directions have their influence upon the curve of output; and the task before industry is to improve each one of these influences until no further effect can be produced on the output curve in that way. Investigations into industrial activity and fatigue give great promise of establishing the rules and laws which concern the maintenance of health. Meanwhile they are of great value in supervising the health of the individual worker; for, if the output of a worker (of which the wage earnings are a good measure) is noted to be diminishing, especially if it is found to be falling away from the ideal curve, then enquiry should be made to ascertain the reasons, which may be extra-factorial and not associated with work, so that steps may be taken to put things right before the breakdown, which is impending, occurs, and the services of a good employee are lost. For this purpose the wage-list of workers should be kept in graphic form.

### INDUSTRIAL UNREST

Industrial unrest is a physiological reaction to unfavourable environment, just as diminishing output is a sign of lack of physical energy. Enquiry into the amount and kind of morbidity experienced by industrial groups most liable to unrest might show the way to lessen the liability to that prolific form of economic loss—strikes. An instance may be given. Agriculturalists and coal miners both appear among occupations with an unusually low mortality from all causes. The former, though indifferently housed and working long hours for low pay, seldom strike; the latter, who work short hours for higher pay, frequently strike. The ballot taken among miners in England and Wales which preceded the general strike of 1920 showed that the desire to strike varied on the different coal-fields. The result is shown in the following table, which also contains some data relating to the mortality experienced on the different coal-fields.

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(8) "Foot candle" is the unit generally employed in Great Britain. On the continent of Europe the "metre candle", with a value roughly one-tenth of a "foot candle", is used almost exclusively.



## COAL MINERS

Coalfield	Comparative mortality, 1910-1912 due to				All causes	Ballot 1920 Percentage in favour of strike
	Respiratory diseases			Accidents		
	Phthisis	Bronchitis	Pneumonia			
Nottingham	53	25	40	66	570	55.1
Derbyshire	70	39	34	73	591	71.8
Durham and Northumberland	70	33	54	83	635	69.9
Yorkshire	81	45	69	117	758	51.1
Monmouthshire and South Wales	70	66	69	131	777	77.9
Lancashire	107	88	100	183	941	90.6
Occupied and retired miners	142	38	67	—	790	—

With one notable exception—Yorkshire—the order of the fields arranged by the two methods is nearly identical ; but the miners on the Yorkshire field indulged by themselves in a six weeks' strike or holiday in 1919, the effect of which appears to have still affected them. If the exception of Yorkshire be disregarded, the miners are found to have voted for a strike in proportion to their general mortality. The application of medicine to social problems probably has great possibilities.

## MORTALITY

Some indications have already been given of the way in which not only mortality from all causes, but also mortality from special causes, differs in an extraordinary way according to occupation. Much work awaits the doing in this field of enquiry. Here an effort will only be made to indicate the method which may be pursued by taking three typical instances: phthisis, a disease due to definite microbic invasion; cancer, of which the origin is not determined ; and accidents, the cause of which is clear.

*Phthisis.* Enquiries in special industries, such as printing, tailoring, and bootmaking, show that phthisis may occur in excess without any other cause of death being above the normal. Consideration of these industries suggests that the conditions of employment expose the workers to two possible adverse influences, aggregation of individuals, which increases the possibility of infection, and an environment, especially with regard to ventilation, which is physiologically injurious. The latter is probably the more important.

Certain other industries are associated with an excessive mortality from phthisis, an excess which is accompanied by an excessive mortality from other respiratory diseases. These industries are those which expose workers to the inhalation of dust containing fine particles of silica<sup>(9)</sup>. The inhalation of

(9) COLLIS, E. L. : *Industrial Pneumoconiosis*. H. M. Stationery Office, 1919.

silica dust is followed by the occurrence of pulmonary fibrosis or silicosis ; those so affected readily fall victims to pulmonary tuberculosis. Statistically the type of disease which results coincides with the middle-age type.

Industry would appear then to be a retarding influence in the fall of the death-rate from phthisis, and to exert its influence by lowering either the general resistance to disease, or the local resistance ; in each case the statistical type of the disease is the middle-age type. From which it follows that the resisting power of the individual, so far as occupational phthisis is concerned, is at least as important as exposure to infection. This conclusion is an important one in relation to the general prevalence of tuberculosis.

*Cancer.* The influence of occupation upon the mortality from cancer has not been so closely investigated as that of phthisis; nevertheless the matter is important<sup>(10)</sup>. The death-rate from cancer is increasing rapidly in all civilised countries, in other words, it is most prevalent where industrialisation is most marked. It is higher in great towns, e. g. in London, than in England and Wales ; it is higher in urban districts than in rural areas ; it is higher in England and Wales than in Ireland ; it is higher in industrial Ulster than rural Connaught. In relation to social status, cancer is rather more prevalent among poorer classes than among the well-to-do. Evidence, then, points to cancer being affected by some influence associated with civilisation, and to this influence being more powerful under industrial conditions. Although we are still far from being able to isolate what the influence is, industry presents a few instances in which definite reasons for the occurrence of cancer can be determined. The best case is probably exposure to products resulting from distillation of vegetable matter ; thus chimney-sweeps' cancer is caused by soot ; epithelioma among pitch workers is due to coal-tar pitch ; cancer among shale-oil workers is due to paraffin ; and cancer of the buccal cavity, which is rare among women, is generally ascribed to the male habit of smoking. Roentgen-ray cancer and Kangri cancer in Afghanistan follow upon exposure to heat and light rays.

These, however, are only instances, which may be likened to the influence of trauma in determining the onset of tuberculosis ; they can hardly be held to indicate the determining influence of cancer. But they do suggest the value of much closer investigation into the prevalence of cancer, distributed according to the part affected, among those industrially employed, with their diverse and intensified exposure to a variety of influences. In this way one link in the chain of cancer causation, i. e. predisposing influence, may be determined and then broken.

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(10) HOFFMANN, F. L. : *The Mortality from Cancer throughout the World*. Newark, New Jersey, the Prudential Press, 1915.

*Accidents.* Considerable attention has been paid to the incidence of industrial accidents <sup>(11)</sup>, and material is available relating both to morbidity and mortality. Examination of the data shows that accidents occur, month by month and year by year, with a regularity with which examination of statistics of disease has familiarised us ; even the incidence when distributed by causes or by parts of the body affected shows the same regularity. Consideration of the causes points to some 80 per cent. of industrial accidents being due to causes under the control of the workers, that is to say, they are due to what is generally called "carelessness". But when the prevalence of accidents is considered in relation to what may be called physiological environment, it is found to be influenced by such things as temperature, light, and hours of work, which are known to affect activity and health ; the temperature, for instance, at which fewest accidents occur, coincides closely with that for maximum output, while hours of work long enough seriously to reduce output are associated with an increase in accidents. Accidents, like sickness, are more prevalent among new workers, and indeed seem to depend more upon health and alertness than any other influence <sup>(12)</sup>. There appears even to be a predisposition to accidents, analogous to predisposition to disease <sup>(11)</sup> ; this is sufficiently marked for the number of accidents, which may be expected to occur in any group of workers during a given period, to be calculated with approximate accuracy if the number which occurred to individual members of the group is known for a period immediately preceding. Accidents, then, depend, like the occurrence of disease, upon health and aliveness.

The prevalence of accidents may be minimised in two ways, first by improving the general health of the workers through the means which will keep their activity at a maximum while avoiding over-fatigue, and, secondly, by educating the workers to understand the dangers associated with their work, since the possession of health alone cannot enable its owner to be aware, for instance, that a boiler with a safety valve out of order may burst, or that a piece of bare metal is a live electric cable fatal to touch. Analogy justifies us in concluding that the prevalence of sickness and disease may also be minimised by improving general health and teaching individuals how to avoid risk.

Much remains to be ascertained as to the best means for improving general health, as to what are risks and the means for avoiding them. Nevertheless, study of industrial conditions provides means for ascertaining these things, and indicates the way in which the knowledge, when obtained, must be made known.

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(11) *Annual Reports of Chief Inspector of Factories.* H. M. Stationery Office. *Passim.*

(12) U. S. A. PUBLIC HEALTH BULLETIN, No. 106: *Comparison of an Eight-Hour Plant and a Ten-Hour Plant* ; Gov. Print. Off., Washington, 1920.

## The Campaign against Miners' Nystagmus in the Colliery District of Liège <sup>(1)</sup>

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**I**N 1906, in spite of a large number of works published on the subject, our knowledge of the aetiology and pathogenesis of miners' nystagmus was rather confused. After the somewhat disappointing results obtained from an examination of this question by a Commission on Industrial Diseases for the province of Liège, Dr. Stassen was deputed to make an enquiry into the frequency of this disease and its aetiology. In the course of his enquiry Dr. Stassen was able to examine: (1) the personnel of one iron mine; (2) the personnel of one zinc mine; (3) the personnel of one coal mine where naked lights (candles and lamps) were used; (4) the personnel of nineteen coal mines where safety-lamps were used; and (5) the men on day-shifts at six coal mines where the majority of the miners had used portable electric lamps for three years; Dr. Stassen also made an examination of the personnel of several slate quarries. The total number of miners examined was 20,000, of whom 8,000 were seen twice in the course of one day, i. e. just before going down into the mine, and immediately on coming up after finishing the day's work.

In the course of his enquiry, Dr. Stassen followed the miner step by step in all his movements, and arrived at the conviction, confirmed by the majority of English oculists who have studied the question, that the real cause of miners' nystagmus resides, not in the position of the eyes which the miner is compelled to adopt at his work (upward look), but in the faulty conditions of lighting at the bottom of the mine. This defective lighting produces a fatigue of the visual apparatus, which is ultimately transformed into a nervous syndrome characterised by non-co-ordination and exaggeration of ocular reflexes. In fine, occupational nystagmus, previously considered to be a well-defined morbid condition, is, in reality, only a pathognomonic symptom of overstrain of the nerve centres controlling the muscular equilibrium of the eyes.

The enquiry proved that, of the 20,000 miners examined, 5,000 (25 per cent.) exhibited in various degrees definite signs of ocular fatigue (hemeralopia, defective retinal recept-

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(1) Based on information contained in a paper read by Dr. STASSEN at the Congress of the Royal Institute of Public Health, held at Brussels May 1920, and published with the author's consent in the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Boston, April 1921

ivity, nystagmus, blepharospasm). This 25 per cent. may be sub-divided into five groups:—

(1) In 8 per cent. the ocular fatigue was temporary, the symptoms disappearing after twelve hours' rest.

(2) In 12½ per cent. the ocular fatigue was slight.

(3) In 3 per cent. the ocular fatigue was pronounced.

(4) In 1 per cent. there was distinct ocular strain, with an appreciable amount of diminishing occupational capacity.

(5) Finally, 2 per thousand were found afflicted with a definite neurosis and nervous troubles, which incapacitated them from all work, or at least from all work down the mine.

As to preventive measures (<sup>2</sup>), attention must, above all, be directed to the lighting of workings. Thus, in combating nystagmus, the campaign must be carried on with two definite objectives: (1) to seek out the preventive measures which will render miners immune from attacks; and (2) to treat workers affected with occupational eye trouble.

*Preventive measures.* It is only by improved lighting that the number of cases of nystagmus will decrease. It is comparatively easy to effect this in metalliferous mines; but it is not easy to attain the same results in coal mines, owing to difficulties of working and the presence of inflammable gases. The intensity of light in a coal mine is permanently limited by those provisions for safety, which cannot for one moment be set aside. It is, however, worth asking whether in practice the quality of the light used in mines could not be improved. This could perhaps be done by providing safety-lamps of increased power and carrying a light of sufficient steadiness and of a colour agreeable to the eye, and eliminating glare and flickering. Portable electric lamps constitute a distinct step forward; but their lighting power is still poor, and they also have the great disadvantage of not warning the miner of the presence of fire-damp; in several collieries employing electric lamps it has been absolutely necessary to provide the colliers with safety-lamps as gas detectors.

In any case, improvements must be effected in the lighting at the bottom of the mine, and without jeopardising the safety of the workers. Here it is interesting to recall the researches which were made in 1911 and 1912 among the under-surface personnel of the Hasard collieries. In 1911, following out the view that visual troubles must be due to the over-brilliant glare of the flame on the glass of the lamp, Mr. Henry, technical manager of the Hasard collieries, supplied all the workers of the Fleron pit with safety-lamps fitted with uranium glass of a greenish-yellow shade. The light was more pleasant to the eye than that of ordinary lamps, and the

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(2) At the end of this article we give a table, showing the influence of the different varieties of safety-lamp on the development of nystagmus.

glare from the flame was less troublesome. Unfortunately, the outbreak of the war interrupted these experiments.

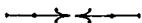
*Treatment of eye trouble among miners.* In 1908 a clinic for miners' nystagmus was established in the Rue S. Gilles, Liège. It was originally intended to be a treatment clinic, but very soon developed into a medical research centre as well. On the suggestion of the Commission on Industrial Diseases, the Provincial Council decided also to take up the matter of providing pecuniary assistance to workers attacked with nystagmus (establishment of grants-in-aid). Finally, with a view to concentrating efforts to combat miners' nystagmus, so that its cause might be established, while the necessary medical attention might be secured for the sufferers, the province of Liège organised a medical service; this service was to study the physical conditions under which the miner works and the diseases to which those conditions exposed him. This provincial organisation acts as a liaison service between management and workers. It insists on securing that the worker be employed on work suitable to his ocular condition at the moment; it also advises the management as to proper methods for the improvement of unhealthy underground conditions.

From 1908 to 1920 over 500 patients attended the miners' nystagmus clinic. They were not all incapable of work; indeed, many had their occupational capacity unaffected. On the other hand, it was not uncommon to find, stranded at the clinic, unfortunate workers, who had succumbed to amblyopia and neurosis, resulting from that nervous exhaustion which is an inevitable effect of the cumulative fatigue, which severe cases of nystagmus impose upon the worker's nervous system by reason of his efforts to finish the day's work in some fashion. It is to these industrial wrecks that the clinic has been most helpful, for, after many months of treatment, it has restored their health and frequently their full working capacity.

## INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS TYPES OF SAFETY-LAMP ON MINERS' NYSTAGMUS

Method of lighting	Illuminating power (Heffner unit)	Illuminating power at end of day's work (Heffner unit)	Steadiness of light	Colour of light	Discomfort from glare	Severe cases of nystagmus per 10,000 workers	Marked cases of nystagmus per 10,000 workers	Cases of nystagmus per 10,000 workers on regular daily shifts	Frequency of nystagmus among workers using one method of lighting exclusively during occupational career
Oil safety-lamp	0.50	0.28	flickering; affected by air currents and humidity	reddish-yellow	considerable, particularly at end of day	35	570	3,100	very numerous
Benzine safety-lamp	1.01	0.80	flame fairly steady; flickering caused by draught	yellowish	considerable, particularly at end of day	12	440	2,100	less numerous than among workers using oil safety-lamps
Candles and lamps with naked lights	0.70	0.70	flame affected by moving air and humidity	yellowish	noticeable when miner does not fix candle overhead	0	130	2,800	a few cases
Electric lamps with accumulators	1.75-2.00	1.50-1.75	steady	white	appreciable, but less severe than with other methods	8	120	1,540	no cases recorded; period of enquiry too short
Acetylene lamps	8.00-15.00	8.00-15.00	steady; scarcely affected	white; agreeable to eye	none, owing to reflector	0	0	0	no cases

## Memorandum on Lead Poisoning <sup>(1)</sup>.



THE Home Office have issued a Memorandum on Industrial Lead Poisoning <sup>(2)</sup>, of which the following is a brief summary.

The susceptibility of women to lead poisoning is usually regarded as greater than that of men, and there is no question as to the baleful influence exercised by lead on the uterine functions of women. Disorders of menstruation are common, and the tendency to miscarriages in some lead workers is pronounced. It was for this reason, more especially, that the International Labour Conference at Washington dealt with the question and gave a list of professions to which women and adolescents below 18 should not be admitted; the recommendations of the Conference have been embodied in the Women and Young Persons (Employment in Lead Processes) Act 1920.

The number of cases of lead poisoning during the last twenty years was given in the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories; the figures showed that there had been a very marked reduction, save only in the electric accumulator industry. In fact, the average number of cases for all the lead industries was as follows:—

	1900-1904	1905-1909	1910-1914	1915-1919
Cases	753	599	548	279
Deaths	27	28	34	21

The present Memorandum contains figures showing not only a reduction in the number of cases, but also in their severity and in the proportion of chronic cases. The principal figures are as follows.

	1900-1904		1910-1914	
	cases	per cent.	cases	per cent.
Severe	1,157	31.8	477	17.4
Moderate	768	21.1	907	33.1
Slight	1,597	43.9	1,325	48.3
Total (including cases not defined)	3,636	100.0	2,742	100.0
First attack	2,438	67.0	2,123	77.4
Second attack	549	15.1	322	11.7
Third attack (or chronic)	486	13.4	259	9.5
Total (including cases not defined)	3,636	100.0	2,742	100.0

(1) Reprinted, with additional matter, from the British *Labour Gazette*, March 1921.

(2) Home Office, Factory Department : *Memorandum on Industrial Lead Poisoning*; London, Jan. 1921; Form 324.



It may be mentioned that two-fifths of all reported cases occur during the first eighteen months of employment.

The symptoms mentioned in the reports as of most frequent occurrence were gastric troubles, anæmia, headache, paralysis, encephalopathy, and rheumatism; the most serious of these are paralysis and encephalopathy (epilepsy and epileptiform attacks, mental defect, and optic neuritis). Paralysis is more common in men than in women, while the reverse is the case with encephalopathy. The number of cases of paralysis in the years 1910-1914 was 606, of which 102 were cases of complete paralysis of both forearms, 100 were cases of partial paralysis of both forearms, 161 were cases of weakness of, or loss of power over, muscles in both forearms, and 72 were cases of paralysis, or weakness, in the right forearm.

Cases of encephalopathy fell from 97 in the years 1905-1909 to 17 in the years 1915-1919. It should be noted that many cases are not reported, either because they are latent forms, or are in-correctly diagnosed, or are neglected.

Fatal cases numbered 27 on the average of the five years 1900-1904, 28 in the next five years, 34 in 1910-1914, and 21 in 1915-1919. It will be seen that the number of deaths from lead poisoning does not show a diminution corresponding to the diminution in the number of non-fatal cases. This is due to the fact that, following on the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906, lead poisoning is more frequently mentioned, as an associated cause, on the death certificates of lead-workers suffering from chronic nephritis and its sequelae. Bright's disease, cerebral hæmorrhage, paralysis, or chronic lead poisoning, either alone or as a combination of symptoms, account for the great majority of fatal cases.

The attack rate per thousand can be given for a certain number of industries. The figures for the year 1914 are as follows.

	Approximate no. of persons employed in lead processes	No. of reported cases	Attack rate per thousand
White lead	1,119	29	26
Vitreous enamelling	768	11	14
Tinning of metals	492	10	20
Electric accumulators	1,543	41	27
Paints and colours	1,287	21	16
Pottery	4,661	28	6
Smelting of metals	2,827	36	13
Coach painting	29,308	57	2
File cutting	5,556	11	2
Printing	58,777	23	0.4

The Memorandum also contains a detailed statement of the processes in each industry in which lead poisoning is most commonly found, of the measures which have led to the great

reduction in lead poisoning that has taken place, and of symptoms and diagnosis. There are also paragraphs dealing with the requirements as to periodic medical examination; with notification, suspension from employment in lead processes, etc., and with the instructions which have been drawn up by the Home Office for the guidance of certifying and appointed surgeons.

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# SOCIAL INSURANCE

## The Swedish Act on Pensions Insurance and its Application.

**S**PECIAL interest attaches to the Lindstedt Act of 30 June 1913, relating to pensions insurance, on account of the admirable features which it contains.

Generally speaking, before the war only the working class population benefited by old age insurance in the countries in which it was in force; the Swedish Act provides compulsory old age insurance for all citizens between the ages of 15 and 66 years without distinction of sex. The annual report which has just appeared shows the scope of this legislation.

### SCOPE OF INSURANCE

The Directorate of Pensions keeps a record of all persons subject to the Act. Every insured person receives a form on which is indicated, year by year, the premiums due from, and the amounts of payments made up to date by, the beneficiary. In 1917 the Act affected 3,547,600 persons, 1,715,300 men and 1,832,300 women. The number of persons compulsorily insured was at that period 61.6 % of the total population of 5,757,600. By virtue of the nature of their employment, 236,900 persons were exempt from payment of premiums, being civil servants, or employed in the army administrative services, elementary school teachers, ministers of religion, employees on telegraphs and railways, together with their wives. The number of persons actually insured, therefore, was 3,310,700, or 57.5 % of the population.

The conditions of insurance are as follows.

Every insured person pays a fixed annual premium of 3 kronor <sup>(1)</sup>; in addition, persons whose annual income exceeds 500 kronor pay a supplemental premium at the following rates:—

for an income from	500 to	800 kronor	. . .	2 kronor.
” ” ” ”	800 to	1200 ”	. . .	5 ”
” ” ” of	1,200 and upwards		. . .	10 ”

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(1) At par 1 krona = ls. 1 ½d.

During the years 1914 to 1918 registered insured persons were distributed between towns and country districts as follows.

TABLE I

	towns	country	Kingdom of Sweden
1914	890,000	2,349,500	3,239,500
1915	907,300	2,347,000	3,254,300
1916	923,100	2,341,800	3,264,900
1917	950,100	2,360,600	3,310,700
1918	969,100	2,385,600	3,354,700

It is tempting to see (table II<sup>(2)</sup>) in the constantly rising numbers of insured persons with an annual income exceeding 800 kronor an evident sign that the prosperity of the Swedish population is increasing. This would be a hasty inference. In Sweden, as elsewhere, the value of money has sunk, so that it would be rash to draw too favourable conclusions at present. The same applies to the rise in average contributions. The following analysis shows the amount of this rise between 1915 and 1917:

	1915	1916	1917
for towns	5.7	5.8	6.2 kronor
for country districts	4.3	4.5	4.8
for the Kingdom of Sweden	4.7	4.9	5.2

The high percentage of the class of insured persons whose income is below 500 kronor is due to the fact that married women, having no personal income exceeding 500 kronor, are included in this class. The report for 1917, which gives more detailed statistics than the others, shows that in 1915 this first class numbered 1,553,020 women and 658,800 men. The following table shows the classification of the whole number of insured persons, in all four classes, according to income.

TABLE III

income	men	all women	married women
under 500 kr.	658,800	1,553,020	785,100
500- 800 "	315,800	53,740	5,660
800-1200 "	332,430	38,550	3,700
1200 & over	273,530	27,850	3,240
Total	1,580,560	1,673,160	797,700

The report for 1919 gives some interesting details relating to the average 1916 contribution, analysed according to age and class.

(2) See p. 106

TABLE II

TOWNS								
income in kronor	1914		1915		1916		1917	
	persons insured	percent. of popul.	persons insured	percent. of popul.	persons insured	percent. of popul.	persons insured	percent. of popul.
under 500	515,100	57.8	523,400	57.8	531,300	57.6	527,600	55.5
500-1800	71,400	8.0	74,900	8.3	72,000	7.8	63,300	6.7
800-200	144,900	16.3	149,800	16.6	144,400	15.6	141,200	14.9
1200 and over	159,100	17.9	157,900	17.3	175,400	19.0	218,000	22.9
							505,200	52.1
							47,100	4.9
							120,900	12.5
							295,900	30.5
COUNTRY DISTRICTS								
under 500	1,690,200	71.9	1,688,400	71.9	1,657,100	70.8	1,610,900	68.3
500-800	290,700	12.4	294,600	12.5	281,000	12.0	248,700	10.5
800-1200	218,600	9.3	221,500	9.4	225,500	11.3	245,000	10.4
1200 and over	150,200	6.4	144,800	6.2	178,200	7.6	256,000	10.3
							1,547,600	64.9
							184,400	7.7
							285,400	11.1
							388,200	20.4
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN								
under 500	2,205,300	68.1	2,211,600	68.0	2,183,400	67.1	2,138,500	64.6
500-800	362,100	11.2	369,500	11.0	353,000	10.3	312,000	9.4
800-1200	363,500	11.2	371,300	12.0	369,900	11.3	386,300	11.7
1200 and over	109,100	9.5	302,700	9.0	353,600	10.8	474,000	11.3
	3,239,900		3,255,300		3,264,900		3,310,700	
							2,052,800	61.2
							291,500	6.9
							380,300	11.5
							684,100	20.4

In towns the average contribution for men was 3.1 kronor at 16 years of age. This rose rapidly and reached

8 kronor at 25 years  
9 " at 27 "  
10 " at 30 "

The maximum contribution of 10.3 kronor was paid between the ages of 36 and 44. From the 45th year it sank appreciably until it reached

10 kronor at 50 years  
9 " at 59 "  
8 " at 66 "

For women the difference was less considerable. The average contribution was

3 kronor at 16 years  
4 " at 24 "  
4.1 " at 25 " (max.)  
4 " at 30 "

For persons above that age the contribution underwent only insignificant modifications.

In suburban communes of a semi-rural character the maximum for men amounted to 8.5 kronor and for women to 3.3 kronor. In essentially rural communes the average contribution for men rose from 3 kronor at 16 years of age to

4.2 kronor at 24 years  
5.4 " at 30 "  
6.0 " at 35 "  
6.3 " at 42 "  
6.4 " at 49 "  
6.3 " at 51 "  
5.3 " at 66 "

For women the contribution was

3 kronor at 16 to 20 years  
3.1 " " 21 to 47 "  
3.2 " " 48 years and upwards

The average 1916 contribution throughout the kingdom per insured person was as follows.

TABLE IV

	towns		semi-rural communes		strictly rural communes		Kingdom of Sweden	
	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women
Kronor	8.2	3.9	6.7	3.2	5.2	3.1	6.4	3.4

It is important to consider the question as to the extent to which contributions are actually paid. The communal authorities collect the basic contribution of 3 kronor at the same time as they collect the local taxes, unless it is provided by Decree that the national fiscal authorities shall be the collectors in certain communes expressly indicated. It is incumbent upon the communal authorities to prepare a list of persons liable to insurance, together with an indication of their contributions. The communes are liable to the insurance authorities for the sums which they fail to collect. The insured person stands as debtor to the commune and contributions in arrear are deducted in calculating the amount of the pension eventually payable. The supplemental premiums of 2.5 to 10 kronor are collected by the national fiscal authorities.

The following table analyses the general and supplemental contributions paid by insured persons for the years 1914 to 1917.

TABLE V

	towns	country districts	Kingdom of Sweden
1914	percent. of maximum contrib.		
General contributions	73	89	84
Supplemental contributions	82	92	88
1915			
General contributions	71.0	88.4	84.3
Supplemental contributions of 2 kr.	69.9	86.8	83.4
"                    "          5 "	70.5	90.6	84.5
"                    "         10 "	88.6	94.7	91.6
Amount paid of total contributions due	77.8	89.7	85.7
1916			
General contributions	71.0	88.2	84.0
Supplemental contributions of 2 kr.	70.3	87.2	83.7
"                    "          5 "	69.7	90.3	82.3
"                    "         10 "	87.2	94.6	91.0
Amount paid of total contributions due	77.5	89.8	85.7
1917			
General contributions	71.0	88.8	84.4
Supplemental contributions of 2 kr.	69.8	88.2	84.5
"                    "          5 "	68.6	88.7	81.4
"                    "         10 "	85.6	93.3	89.8
Amount paid of total contributions due	77.5	90.1	85.8

The country districts show a greater regularity in the payment of contributions than the large towns. This becomes still more evident on a comparison of the figures for the latter with those for the strictly rural communes. For the year 1917 the figures were as follows.

TABLE VI

	towns	strictly rural communes
General contributions	71.0	93.4
Supplemental contributions of 2 kr.	69.8	92.4
"                    "          5 "	68.6	95.0
"                    "         10 "	85.6	97.7
Amount paid of total contributions due	77.5	94.5

For 1915 the figures, analysed according to sex and marriage, were as follows.

TABLE VII

income	status	Stockholm	towns	semi-rural communes	strictly rural communes
under 500 kr.	married men	48.4	55.6	82.7	94.3
	single men	61.3	59.9	73.8	88.3
	married women	71.7	78.2	87.4	95.4
	single women	74.1	70.5	78.6	91.5
500-800 kr.	married men	60.6	68.4	86.9	95.2
	single men	56.5	59.4	75.0	88.1
	married women	75.4	76.6	84.0	95.7
	single women	79.7	80.2	86.5	95.1
800-1200 kr.	married men	65.6	74.1	91.6	98.0
	single men	50.5	57.6	75.9	91.2
	married women	82.7	83.9	75.9	91.2
	single women	87.8	88.6	90.1	98.5
1,200 kr. and. over	married men	88.9	90.0	93.7	98.9
	single men	77.9	81.1	85.9	95.6
	married women	94.3	95.3	94.2	97.5
	single women	96.9	97.6	96.3	99.3

The above table shows how much more careful the rural districts are in paying their contributions than the urban districts. It also shows that women are more regular in their payments than men, and older persons more regular than the young.

In towns, the percentage of contributions paid is

by men	of 20 years of age	48.9%
" "	" 66 " " "	87.9%
" women	" 19 " " "	70.0%
" "	" 66 " " "	85.2%



In the mixed communes, i.e. communes partly rural, the percentage is

by men	of 20 years of age	60.5%
" "	" 65 " " "	95.2%
" women	" 21 " " "	76.8%
" "	" 65 " " "	90.6%

In purely rural communes the minimum percentage is

by men	of 21 years of age	82.4%
" "	" 54 " " "	98.3%
" women	" 22 " " "	90.8%
" "	" 65 " " "	96.6%

The conclusion to be drawn from these figures is that a system based on the deduction of contributions from wages, provided such deduction is guaranteed by adequate penalties gives better results than a system based on the collection of contributions by the fiscal authority, as provided by the Swedish law. The latter system is bound to be proved inadequate as soon as contributions come to be collected among the poorer classes. Again, young workers are constantly moving from one industrial centre to another, thus escaping the tax collector or at least obstructing him. Unfortunately, deduction from wages can only be applied to a certain proportion of those covered by a system of general insurance.

### PENSIONS

While the collection of contributions is entrusted to the communal and national fiscal authorities, the payment of pensions is undertaken by the postal authorities. The two organisations are linked up by means of a Directorate of Pensions and local committees <sup>(3)</sup>. The latter bodies receive the assistance of an official, appointed by the Directorate of Pensions, who has a consultative voice, but no vote. At the end of 1919 the local committees numbered 2,643. They are constituted of a president and two, four, or six members according to the number of administrative units. Presidents and their substitutes are nominated by the King for a period of four years; ordinary members by the communal councils for the same period; one half of the members retire at the end of every two years. Apart from their general supervision over the application of the Act, local committees are entrusted with very important functions for its detailed execution. All demands for payment of pensions must be addressed to them, and it is their function to allot the right to a pension and to prepare the case of the insured person.

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(3) In important districts several committees have been set up; in some cases, on the other hand, several villages are united under a single committee.

The Directorate of Pensions fixes the amount of a pension and passes the certificate to the committee, who hand it to the beneficiary. The jurisdiction of the Directorate of Pensions extends to all disputes arising between beneficiaries and committees. It is further entitled and bound to supervise the decisions of the committees even when uncontested. Where the Directorate exercises its judicial powers, two of its members must assist in hearing the case, of whom one must possess a judge's qualifications.

Insured persons may demand payment of pensions on account of total incapacity for work, or on attaining the age of 67 years. For men the pension is annually 30 % of the total contributions paid, and for women, 24 %.

A smaller pension is due to those insured persons who, at the time of the coming into force of the Act, had attained the age of 25 years. In such cases it is calculated on the following basis.

<i>Insured persons aged</i>	<i>men</i>	<i>women</i>	
25 to 30 years	27.5%	22%	of total contributions
30 to 35	25%	20%	
35 to 45	22%	18%	
over 45	20%	16%	

Those insured persons who are permanently incapacitated for work have a right to a supplementary grant, if their annual income is less than 300 kronor in the case of men and 283 kronor in the case of women. This supplementary grant depends on the extent of incapacity and must not exceed 150 kronor in the case of men or 140 kronor in the case of women. In addition, every beneficiary who has paid all his contributions will be entitled to have his pension augmented by an additional benefit equal to 8 % of his total contributions.

The Lindstedt Act gives a right to relief to every person who, after attaining the age of 15 years, may become permanently incapacitated for work, even where no contributions have been paid for the purpose of obtaining a pension; the same applies to all persons who, at that age, are already permanently incapacitated; the amount of relief is determined on the same principles as govern the allocation of the supplementary grant mentioned in the last paragraph. A temporary provision excluded incapacitated persons who had attained the age of 67 years, and also all persons over 15 years of age who, during 1913, had been entirely supported for more than four months by public or private relief. A Decree of 8 June 1915 abolished this exception, save only in the cases of incapacitated persons supported by public or private relief. It stipulates, however, that, in the case of the groups newly admitted, the relief grant must not exceed half the supplementary grant, and further that this relief shall only be paid from 1 January 1916. Where supplementary grants, relief grants, or increases of pensions

became operative before the end of 1918, their amounts were to be determined *pro rata* to the standard pension. They were fixed as follows :—

in 1914 at	50%
in 1915 at	60%
in 1916 at	70%
in 1917 at	80%
in 1918 at	90%

Since 1 January 1919 married couples where both husband and wife are incapacitated, also widowers or widows of incapacitated persons, have received a special supplementary grant. Should they have dependent children under 15 years of age, this grant may amount to 75 kronor annually for each child, provided that the income is below 300 kronor in the case of men and 283 kronor in the case of women.

The State provides three-fourths of the moneys expended on supplementary and relief grants; the remaining fourth is charged to the General Councils and communes.

The Lindstedt Act also introduces voluntary insurance. Every Swedish citizen is entitled, from the age of 15 years upwards, to pay an additional premium, which shall not exceed 30 kronor per annum. The State adds a subsidy of one-eighth of the total voluntary payments made in the course of the year. The payment of an additional premium confers the right to a proportionate pension. The annual pension thus acquired is, in the case of men, equal to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of each voluntary premium, multiplied by as many complete years as there are between the date of the first premium and the first pension payment. Women's pensions are five sixths of those payable to men. The conditions which govern compulsory insurance also govern the payment of these voluntary pensions. Except in the case of permanent incapacity for work, they cannot be claimed before the age of 67 years. A legal enactment dated 14 June 1917, however, created an exception, where collective additional insurance had been organised for the staff of any establishment; this class of insured persons may obtain the old age pension from the age of 55, 60, or 65 years. The same enactment abolished the provision which limited voluntary premiums to a maximum of 30 kronor. These new regulations have not, however, produced any considerable increase in voluntary insurance. This will appear more clearly from the following table, showing the number of voluntarily insured persons and their contributions.

TABLE VIII

	insured persons			contributions paid
	men	women	total	kronor
1914	352	276	628	10,849
1915	309	229	538	11,509
1916	314	231	545	12,103
1917	339	273	612	14,161
1918	460	328	788	27,484
1919	417	310	727	31,809

Claims for pensions were filed as soon as the Act came into force. During the first year individual demands numbered 41,478 and demands on behalf of married couples 2,121. These claims were for the most part filed by incapacitated persons between the ages of 15 and 67 years, whose income did not reach the minimum mentioned in the Act <sup>(4)</sup>. After disallowing the claims of about one hundred persons, who were over 67 years of age and consequently excluded by the temporary provisions of the Act, there remained 43,495 persons, on whose behalf claims were filed in the course of 1914; of these claims 32.4 % were presented by men and 67.6 % by women.

A comparison of the ages of the claimants shows that in older groups over 70 per cent. are women, whereas in the younger groups the percentage of men is equal to that of women, and even somewhat exceeds it. The number of claims filed in 1914, nearly 44,000, was in reality very much smaller than what had been expected; a careful estimate had put them at about 80,000. The considerable discrepancy between the estimate and the facts is explained by the ignorance of a great many persons as to the provisions contained in the Act, and by the fact that a certain number of insured persons deferred their applications for pensions to a later period, under the belief that by so doing they would increase the amount to which they were entitled. By the end of 1919 the Directorate of Pensions had issued, under the terms of the Act, 139,774 certificates for supplementary and relief grants, 48,187 for men and 91,587 for women. The average grant was 73.80 kronor for a man and 67.72 kronor for a woman. At the end of 1917, in consequence of changes and deaths <sup>(5)</sup>, there remained 35,119 men and 76,844 women admitted to the benefit of additional and relief grants; the average grant was 77.63 kronor for a man and 72.41 kronor for a woman.

(4) 300 kr. for men; 283 kr. for women.

(5) At the end of 1919, the deaths of 12,721 men and 14,452 women beneficiaries had been registered.

The Act of 8 June 1915, which conferred the right to relief on incapacitated persons over 67 years of age whose income was below 300 kronor, has had the effect of multiplying the number of claims for payment presented to the Directorate of Pensions; these numbered 138,339 during the last six months of 1915; the total number of certificates issued was 183,724 up to the end of 1919. During this period 58,254 pensioners died and various circumstances put an end to the right to a pension in the case of 278 persons.

The position, therefore, at the end of 1919 was as follows.

TABLE IX

insured persons		total annual assistance to all beneficiaries	average annual benefit
		kronor	kronor
men	46,248	2,795,878.49	60.37
women	125,192	7,514,138.58	59.82

During the years 1914 to 1919, 76,690 persons acquired the right to pensions in virtue of having paid premiums. Of these, 12,316 pensioners died in the course of the period, and for various reasons 234 pensions were suspended. At the end of 1919 the total number of pensioners was 64,140, of whom 21,562 were men and 42,578 women.

Finally, during the year 1919, relief for children in 1,014 cases, of which 526 were incapacitated, absorbed the sum of 72,451.80 kronor.

The total sums paid in pensions during the years 1914 to 1918 were as follows.

TABLE X

	supplementary grants under the 1913 Act	grants under the 1913 Act	relief grants under the 1915 Act
	kronor	kronor	kronor
1914	1,640,139.56	—	—
1915	11,342,387.75	9,098.03	—
1916	6,467,644.60	33,284.27	8,670,000
1917	6,986,112.12	51,818.26	9,576,156.94
1918	7,859,689.56	74,461.33	8,996,165.24

This analysis of the various classes of pensions largely shows that the Lindstedt Act, during the first years of its application, has served for purposes of relief rather than of insurance. Nor is this result inconsistent with the purpose of the Act. Where the legislator is justified in instituting incapacity and old age insurance there is also an implied obligation on him to assent to various measures of relief on behalf

of those sections of the population which, at the moment when the insurance regulations come into force, have passed the age limit or, by reason of premature incapacity, are excluded from insurance properly so called.

A system of old age and incapacity insurance, so wide as effectually to protect the family of the insured person against the vicissitudes of life, demands financial sacrifices which the majority of workers are unable to make.

Normally, the relief grants should in course of time decrease in number, while pensions acquired in virtue of the payment of premiums should increase. It is, however, doubtful whether pensions equivalent to premiums paid can ever constitute a sufficient income. Pension accruing out of compulsory insurance should be considered a minimum which provident persons will endeavour to augment by the payment of additional premiums; it must, however, be admitted that but few persons avail themselves of this means of adding to their pensions.

The Directorate of Pensions is handling its task in a broad and generous spirit. It does not exclusively confine its operations to insurance problems; it is also attempting to deal with the problem of incapacity, and for this purpose can draw on an annual credit voted by Parliament. The competent authorities employ the moneys at their disposal, in order to meet the demands of insured persons for special medical treatment, and also with a view to providing, on the advice and under the direction of the local committees, the necessary medical attention to persons who are threatened with incapacity. A start in applying preventive measures was made in 1915 with the granting of sanatorium treatment, sea bathing, and various special cures. From the beginning of 1919 onwards, persons affected by pulmonary tuberculosis have been entitled to treatment at the expense of the communes. At that period the preventive activities of the pensions service were concentrated principally on cases suffering from rheumatism, nervous maladies, general exhaustion, anaemia, tuberculosis of the bones, arthritic maladies, etc. A generous attempt has been made to introduce vocational re-education of the blind and the incapacitated in general. Homes and technical schools have been established. The following table gives some interesting figures.

TABLE XI

	Cases applying for treatment or grants			Cases where treatment or grants initiated by D. of Pens.			Total cases assisted	Cost of assistance given
	men	women	total	men	women	total		
1915	753	738	1491	331	357	688	761	15,713
1916	1280	1287	2567	185	291	476	2222	108,972
1917	1296	1238	2534	82	108	190	2127	236,376
1918	1534	1419	2953	56	74	130	2527	313,712
1919	1304	1316	2620	75	106	181	2087	498,090

The following table gives some indication of the expenses of administration, calculated separately for the Directorate of Pensions and the Post Office Savings Bank, the latter of which is entrusted with the payment of the pensions.

TABLE XII

	Directorate of Pensions	Post Office
	kronor	kronor
1913	77,897	—
1914	406,682.83	18,321.84
1915	617,912.47	73,701.63
1916	688,168.97	256,472.83
1917	720,591.07	272,020.93
1918 <sup>(1)</sup>	747,734.42	362,220.93
1919 <sup>(2)</sup>	771,839.27	292,243.02

(1) Excluding war-time allowances, 365,963.89 kr.

(2) " " " " " " 679,941.98 kr.

# INDUSTRIAL REHABILITATION

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## The Industrial Training of Disabled Men in the United Kingdom

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### HISTORY OF THE MOVEMENT

INDUSTRIAL training <sup>(1)</sup>, as at present organised, was begun during the war under the stress of an intensive demand for the manufacture of munitions. Not the least of the difficulties with which the Ministry of Munitions was confronted in 1915 was the shortage of skilled and semi-skilled labour. Dr. Addison, at that time at the head of the Department in charge of the manufacture of munitions, conceived the idea of using the existing technical schools for the industrial training of unskilled workers. His idea was to train them as semi-skilled workers, and thus reserve the most difficult operations for the skilled men. A small section was set up in the Ministry of Munitions (Labour Supply Department), to encourage and direct the efforts of the local education authorities. The first attempts made were on a small scale and were often directed by inexperienced persons; they were constantly hindered by the inertia of some of the employers and by the opposition of local trade unions, which did not understand that a factory, where intensive production was being carried on, could also train apprentices. No great success was therefore obtained.

Towards the end of 1916 the shortage of semi-skilled labour became still more acute. Mr. Montagu, who was at the head of the Munitions Ministry, gave instructions that the organisation of industrial training should be pushed on with all speed, with a view to having ready as large a number of skilled workers as possible in the shortest space of time. Plans which had already been under consideration were put into final form, and the most vigorous efforts were made to carry them out. Industrial training was given in existing technical schools under the local education authorities; these

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(1) Cf. *Industrial Training*: a paper read before the Royal Society of Arts, London, on 25 February 1920, by Sir James Currie, K.B.E., C.M.G., Director of the Training Department, Ministry of Labour.



were subsidised and inspected by the Ministry of Munitions. Training was also given in special instructional factories set up by the State and directly controlled by the Ministry, and in special instructional workshops attached to private firms. A lecture campaign was launched with the assistance of a certain number of technical experts belonging to the Ministry, heads of technical schools, and leading manufacturers, in order to convince workers of the absolute necessity of training a large number of skilled men as quickly as possible. These lectures were very successful, and by the end of 1918, when the Armistice was signed, the Ministry of Munitions had fitted up about a hundred technical schools, and owned a dozen very large instructional factories, which had trained more than 50,000 skilled or semi-skilled workers.

Another problem of industrial education now arose, the training of disabled men. The natural course was to use for this purpose the vast training organisation set up by the Ministry of Munitions.

The industrial training of disabled men, which had at first been entrusted to the Ministry of Pensions, was transferred to the Ministry of Labour by an Order in Council of 9 May 1919. It was carried out on a new system, known as the "Industrial Training Scheme of the Ministry of Labour 1919".

### THE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHEME (2)

#### *Objects*

The purpose of industrial training is to make the disabled man capable of carrying on a manual occupation and of becoming a skilled worker in possession of permanent employment, fulfilling all the conditions required for admission into his appropriate trade union.

#### *Men entitled to training*

Disabled men are entitled to training if they fulfil the two following conditions.

(1) Their disability must be attributable to, or aggravated by, war service, or at least must have been shown to exist at the date of their discharge from the forces.

(2) Their disability must make them unfit to resume their former trade, or at least to resume it without diminution of earning capacity.

The fact of unfitness to resume a trade owing to disability must be attested by a certificate from the medical experts of the Ministry of Pensions.

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(2) From a handbook published by the Ministry of Labour: *Conditions governing the Industrial Training of Ex-Service Men*; H.M. Stationery Office, 1920, Cmd. 947.

It was estimated that on 1 August 1919 the number of disabled men entitled to industrial training was not less than 80,000, and might even be as great as 100,000. On the same date 11,000 men had been trained and 10,000 were in process of being trained. Arrangements had, therefore, to be made to provide for the admission to training courses of at least 50,000 disabled men within a short space of time.

### *Administrative Bodies*

The administrative organisation includes:—

- (1) a central authority, the Training Department of the Ministry of Labour;
- (2) seventeen district organisations with a Divisional Director at the head of each;
- (3) about twenty National Trade Advisory Committees and about 350 Local Technical Advisory Committees, which are not administrative bodies, but which play an extremely important part in the training of disabled men.

The Training Department is entrusted with the organisation of industrial training in all trades and with control throughout the United Kingdom.

Each Divisional Director is responsible for deciding what men are eligible for training and for carrying out the practical organisation of training courses in his district, as well as for supervising their working in collaboration with the Local Technical Advisory Committees.

The National Trade Advisory Committees were set up by the Ministry of Labour, to give advice as to the general conditions under which training can best be given in those trades known as "Special Trades". These committees determine the methods of training which they consider the best, the places in which training centres should be set up, and the obligations which in their opinion are incumbent on the Government, the employers, and the disabled men. Each Committee deals with a single trade and consists generally of an equal number of representatives from employers' and workers' associations. The conclusions reached by the Committees are embodied in special reports published by the Ministry of Labour and known as *Reports upon Openings in Industry suitable for Disabled Ex-Service Men* <sup>(3)</sup>.

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(3) As an example, we summarise very briefly the report of the National Trade Advisory Committee for the building trade, which was issued in January 1920; (*Reports upon Openings in Industry suitable for Disabled Ex-Service Men: The Building Trade*. No. XIV, January 1920).

(a) Present situation in the building trade; numbers of workers in the different crafts; possibilities of finding employment for disabled men; owing to the almost complete stoppage of house building operations during the war, great activity to be expected in the next few years and employment for a considerable number of disabled men; (b) list of disabilities which are compatible with each occupation; (c) special conditions of training

There are about twenty National Committees, which have drawn up reports of this kind for the following "Special Trades".

#### Special Trades

Tailoring (Retail, Bespoke)  
 Furnishing  
 Leather Goods  
 Hand-sewn Boot and Shoe Making and Boot and Shoe Repairing  
 Gold, Silver, and Allied Trades  
 Dental Mechanics  
 Tailoring (Wholesale)  
 Boot and Shoe Manufacture  
 Basket Making

Note 3—*continued*.

in each occupation ; period of training for full course and for each part course; various forms which training may take; wages and allowances to be received by men undergoing training at each period. Conditions of training for bricklayers, for example, are shown in the following table.

#### BRICKLAYERS

Length of training course : 3 years

Length of period	Place of training	Weekly rate of wages payable by the employer during workshop training	Weekly maintenance allowance for a single man	Weekly total
<i>1st period : training with maintenance</i> 6 weeks	technical school	nil	40/-	40/-
4 "	workshop	nil	40/-	40/-
16 "	"	10/-	30/-	40/-
13 "	"	15/-	25/-	40/-
13 "	"	20/-	20/-	40/-
26 "	"	35/-	5/-	40/-
<i>2nd period : training without maintenance</i> 1½ years	workshop	minimum of 40/- at commencement; the wages to be fixed every three months by agreement with Local technical Advisory Committee	nil	minimum of 40/- at commencement, plus pension.

Similar tables lay down the conditions of training for stone-masons, plumbers, plasterers, joiners, painters and decorators, etc. ; (d) list of places where it would be desirable to set up Local Advisory Committees and special training centres for the building industry ; (e) conditions of training in Government instructional factories ; these conditions are shown by tables for each occupation in the same way as in the case of training in technical schools and private employers' workshops.

Building  
Engineering  
Printing  
Picture-Frame Making  
Brush Making  
Electricity (Power and Light)  
Distributive Trades  
Sign Writing  
Musical Instruments  
Vehicle Building  
Glass  
Cotton  
Pottery  
Lace  
Clog Making  
Surgical Boot Making

The Local Technical Advisory Committees<sup>(4)</sup> are set up by the Minister of Labour, acting on the advice of the National Trade Advisory Committee for the trade in question. In principle, they are composed of an equal number of representatives from employers' and workers' organisations nominated by their respective local associations. They generally include two representatives of the Divisional Director of Training and two representatives of the local education authorities; the four last-named members are only present in a consultative capacity. Each Committee may also co-opt, as technical advisers, representatives of certain highly specialised branches of the trade, which are not represented on the Committee, when questions concerning these branches are being discussed.

• Local Committees have no powers with regard to finance. Their functions are :

(1) to advise the Divisional Director of Training on the selection of candidates, having regard to their suitability for training in any particular trade on account of the nature of their disability, on the suitability of the training offered in technical schools and similar institutes or in the workshops of private employers, on the wages to be paid to disabled men under training, taking local conditions into account, and on all questions arising out of the training of disabled men;

(2) to advise upon any matters referred to them by the National Committees to which they are attached. In general, the National Committees have delegated the following functions to the Local Committees: to determine the number of disabled men who may be admitted to training in each trade and in each district, having regard to the known capacity of an industry to absorb fresh labour; to arbitrate in disputes which may arise between employers and disabled men concerning the carrying out of training agreements.

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(4) *Memorandum to all Local Technical Advisory Committees*, issued by the Ministry of Labour, August 1919, M.L.T. 26.

*Main Features of the Scheme*

The organisation for the training of disabled men is characterised by two features: great decentralisation, and the preponderant part played by the National and Local Committees.

The Divisional Directors have very extensive powers in their own districts. They are responsible for investigating and deciding on the claims of disabled men to receive training. This method makes it possible to examine the men on the spot, simplifies the system of files and correspondence, and results in comparatively rapid decisions. In the United States and in France the work was originally much more centralised; admission to training could only be granted by the Federal Board for Vocational Education at Washington and by the *Office National des Mutilés* in Paris; district and local authorities acted merely as forwarding agents, and the central offices were overwhelmed by the enormous number of cases which were referred to them; decisions had therefore to be made on documentary evidence. Errors and delays occurred, which led to strong protests from the disabled men's associations. A certain amount of decentralisation was adopted to meet these criticisms and the system in both countries is now operating more successfully.

The work of the National and Local Committees is a still more characteristic and important feature. The general conditions of training for each trade are laid down by the National Committees, while their local application is controlled by Local Committees. These consist of representatives of employers and workers in the industry in question, i.e. of men who are thoroughly acquainted with the physical qualities which the work requires, with the state of the market and the labour situation, who can estimate the number of disabled men who are likely to obtain permanent employment, and who know the most suitable methods of training and the wages which can be paid during the training period. The collaboration of really qualified men gives the training schemes drawn up by the National Committees an undeniable value, so that they are important documents, not only from the point of view of the training of disabled men, but from that of industrial training in general. It is perhaps the first time that employers and workers in the principal industries have ever analysed their own methods in order to obtain skilled workers in the shortest possible time. This investigation has resulted in definite conclusions on the best methods of training for each industry; these conclusions have been applied over a period of several years to tens of thousands of disabled men; they have been continually modified as experience has proved it necessary, and the result is a definite progress, which cannot fail to exercise a considerable influence

in developing the training of men disabled in industry and the apprenticeship of young persons.

The system of allowing National and Local Committees composed of trade representatives to determine the numbers of those to be admitted to each industry, and to draw up the regulations governing their training, has not only an undeniable technical value, but also considerable social importance. Disabled men are drafted into industries which are not overcrowded and in which they can be certain of permanent employment. An essential and extremely close connection is thus established between training and the providing of employment. The admission of the disabled to trade unions will be facilitated by the fact that they became skilled workers in obedience to rules drawn up, or accepted by, the unions themselves; and this is calculated to avoid very serious disputes in a country where the workers are strongly organised.

It is for these reasons that the Ministry of Labour set up this vast organisation of National Trade Advisory Committees and Local Technical Advisory Committees and undertook to see that agreements were strictly carried out. The training of disabled men in the "Special Trades" is as much and more the work of the employers and workers than of the Government, which in the last resort only intervenes to direct the discussions and to provide the practical means of execution, plant, maintenance allowances, and so forth.

### *Admission Regulations*

Claims for admission to training must be made to the Divisional Director either directly or through the Local War Pensions Committees or the Local Employment Committees. The Divisional Director collects the documents relevant to the case, and investigates the origin of the disability. If the latter is attributable to, or aggravated by, war service, or if it can, at any rate, be shown to have existed at the time of the man's discharge from the forces, the claim for training is admitted.

When his claim has been admitted by the Divisional Director, the disabled man has to appear before a medical expert, who gives a certificate stating:

(1) The consequences of the disability as regards the man's trade; whether he is capable of carrying on his former trade, or of carrying it on without diminution of earning capacity.

(2) The kind of work which is compatible with his disability. The doctor does not state definitely for what trade the disabled man should be trained, but merely makes recommendations of a general character, for example, whether he should do indoor work, or whether he is unfit for an occupation which

demands severe physical effort; the doctor's remarks are not decisions, but simply suggestions for the guidance both of the disabled man and of the authorities responsible for his training.

If training is recognised as useful and possible, one of two cases may occur:

(1) The disabled man may wish to be trained in one of the "Special Trades". His case must then be submitted to the Local Technical Advisory Committee for the trade in question, which makes the final decision. In deciding the question the Committee takes into account not only the nature of his disability, but also his former trade and the labour situation in the industry into which he desires admission. If the decision is favourable, the disabled candidate is entered on a waiting-list and begins his training as soon as there is a vacancy in a training centre or with an employer.

(2) The disabled man may wish to be trained in a trade which is not classed as a "Special Trade". His case is then decided by the Divisional Director without reference to a Committee; his name is at once entered on the waiting-list, and he begins his training, as in the previous case, as soon as there is a vacancy.

### *Training Facilities*

Training may be given in three ways :

- (1) in private employers' workshops;
- (2) in technical schools;
- (3) in special centres set up by the State for the training of disabled men.

Training in private employers' workshops is the most economical method from the point of view of the State, and the one which can be the most rapidly organised. The workshops are already in existence, the foremen and the fit workmen serve as instructors, the man under training uses the same tools and machinery as he will use later, he is constantly working on the manufacture of useful objects, and he comes into direct contact with the exigencies of production and the normal conditions of factory life. These are certainly valuable advantages; nevertheless, this method of training is open to one serious criticism: the disabled man is too often regarded as an ordinary apprentice. It is forgotten that, owing to his disability, he requires more gradual and systematic instruction, and the instructors, whose chief concern is production, pay less attention to the technical training of the disabled man than to his output. In these circumstances it is very difficult for him to become a skilled worker.

Training in technical schools is especially suitable for men who already have a good general education and who wish

to become foremen or overseers. Technical schools are generally accused of giving training which is too theoretical and takes no account of actual factory conditions, thus failing to provide complete instruction.

The special training centres for disabled men, both schools and workshops, were set up in order to combine the advantages of the technical school and of the ordinary workshop. The aim of the instructors in these centres is not to produce goods rapidly at commercial prices, but to train the worker. They give much more attention to providing methodical instruction suitable to the needs of disabled men than to obtaining a large output. Disabled men who are working all together are not discouraged by seeing themselves continually surpassed by their fit companions, as must happen if they are employed in the ordinary way among normal workers from the first. In spite of its undoubted advantages, however, the special training centre is not exempt from criticism. It is often found that a scholastic atmosphere prevails, and that the theoretical side is too much emphasised; at the end of their training the disabled men find it very difficult to adapt themselves to working among fit workers, and an additional training period in an ordinary workshop is, if not absolutely indispensable, at least generally very desirable.

These three forms of training have been organised not only in England, but also in the United States and in France. It is interesting to note, however, that each of the three countries has given the preference to a different form. In the United States the Federal Board for Vocational Education has decided to make almost exclusive use of already existing institutions for technical education and of private employers' workshops; it has made arrangements with about 1,700 technical institutions and 8,000 employers<sup>(5)</sup>. In France industrial training was at first mainly organised in the ordinary institutions for technical education; subsequently the disabled men were sent to special centres established for the purpose. At present there are 60 schools controlled by the *Office National* and attended by about 6,000 disabled men. Since the beginning of 1920, however, at the request of the disabled men's associations, training in private employers' workshops has been organised on a wider basis<sup>(6)</sup>. In England the Ministry of Labour, though it makes use of the training facilities offered by private employers and technical schools, tries to organise the training of disabled men in special centres, and especially in Government instructional factories, at any rate during the first period of training. The Ministry of Labour considers that this policy is dictated by experience in the United Kingdom and other countries.

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(5) *Fourth Annual Report to Congress of the Federal Board for Vocational Education*, 1920; p. 282.

(6) Information supplied to the International Labour Office by the *Office National des Mutilés*, January 1921.



*Distribution of Disabled Men Among various  
Kinds of Institutions (7)*

The following table shows the general development of industrial training and the distribution of disabled men among the various types of training institutions.

	Special Government centres			Other institutions		Private enterprises		Total no. of men in training
	No. of centres	No. of men in training	% (1)	No. of men in training	% (1)	No. of men in training	% (1)	
1 Aug. 1919	10	1,000	10					10,000
1 Jan. 1920	33	2,064	12.5					16,500
1 June "	47	4,080	18.0	10,161	43	8,950	39	23,191
1 Jan. 1921	59	9,084	36	6,584	27	9,335	37	24,967
1 March "	62	10,277	41	5,957	24	8,588	35	24,822

(1) Percentage of total number of men being trained

The above figures show that the number and importance of the Government training centres increased rapidly, while the number of men being trained in other institutions decreased to an ever greater and greater extent and the number in private enterprises remained nearly stationary. This increasing tendency to concentrate training in special Government centres is due, first of all, to the application of a deliberately adopted system, but also to the necessity of restoring the technical schools to the education authorities, who needed them for the instruction of young persons, and, finally, to the fact that the possibility of placing men with private employers for training has grown less and less as the general prevalence of unemployment has led to the discharge of skilled workers. Moreover the Government instructional factories are being more and more appreciated on account of their eminently practical character; the preliminary exercises which are usually gone through in technical schools are replaced by the manufacture of simple but useful objects, carefully chosen to fulfil the purposes of training. The hours of work are at least 40 per week, and the time of arrival and departure of the men under training is checked in the same way as in an ordinary factory. The articles manufactured are sold at commercial prices, and some of the factories are even entrusted with the carrying out of relatively important contracts either for the State or for

(7) The figures in this table are extracted from a report sent by the British Government to the International Labour Office (August 1920), and from the British *Labour Gazette* of 1920 and 1921,

private customers. This system gives the training centres an atmosphere of reality, increases the interest which the men take in their work, and gives them an excellent preparation for becoming skilled workers employed in industry at ordinary rates.

### *Training Allowances*

In principle, training consists of two periods : a preliminary period lasting from six to eighteen months, during which disabled men receive the maximum state allowance, and a period of improvement lasting on an average eighteen months, during which they receive a progressively increasing wage and a proportionately decreasing allowance from the State. At the end of this second period the allowance ceases and the disabled man receives only his pension and his wages.

The maintenance allowance during training varies according to the number of his dependents. The allowances paid during the first period of training are as follows.

#### *Ex-privates*

Allowance for disabled man . . . . .	40s.	per week
Allowance for wife . . . . .	10s.	per week
Allowance for one child under 16 . . . . .	7s. 6d.	per week
Allowance for each additional child under 16 . . . . .	6s.	per week
Allowance for a widower or divorced man with one child under 16 . . . . .	10s.	per week
Allowance for second child under 16 . . . . .	7s. 6d.	per week
Allowance for each additional child under 16 . . . . .	6s.	per week

#### *Ex-warrant officers and non-commissioned officers*

Ex-warrant officers and non-commissioned officers, who are entitled to a pension, receive the following allowances in addition to those granted to ex-privates :—

Warrant officers, Class I . . . . .	20s.	per week
Warrant officers, Class II, and N. C. O.'s Class I . . . . .	13s.	per week
N. C. O.'s, Class II . . . . .	10s.	per week
N. C. O.'s, Class III . . . . .	6s. 8d.	per week
N. C. O.'s, Class IV . . . . .	3s. 6d.	per week

Men who, for the purpose of training, have to live apart from their dependents and hire a separate lodging, receive a special lodging allowance of 5s. per week.

Men who, before their training, supported their dependents and who have to live apart from them, receive a dependents' allowance varying from 2s. 6d. to 1s. per day.

Men who live more than two miles from their place of training and men suffering from leg disabilities living within that distance, receive an allowance for their daily travelling, which may not exceed 10s. 6d. per week for single men and 17s. 6d. for married men.

Men whose training has given satisfactory results may also receive, at the end of their training, a bonus not exceeding 5s. per week. The period for which this bonus is payable is the time during which the recipient was in receipt of a weekly allowance from the State. The disabled man may also receive a grant of not more than £10 for the purchase of tools.

### RESULTS

The industrial training of disabled men was transferred from the Ministry of Pensions to the Ministry of Labour on 1 May 1919 ; but the real work of the Training Depart-

ment of the latter Ministry did not begin till 1 August 1919, when the Divisional Directors entered on their functions. On that date 11,000 men had been trained, and 10,000 were in process of training.

The results obtained since 1 August 1919 are shown in the following table( <sup>8</sup>).

	No. of men in training	No. of men awaiting training	No. of men completely trained since 1 Aug. 1919	No. of new men admitted to training during the preceding week
1 Aug. 1919	10,000			
1 Jan. 1920	16,500	27,000		
1 May "	23,252	26,604	9,653	
2 June "	23,388	24,310	10,740	562
7 July "	24,048	22,445	12,640	500
1 Aug. "	24,905	22,013	13,430	600
1 Sept. "	24,391	20,065	15,613	500
6 Oct. "	25,049	17,326	17,744	550
2 Nov. "	24,943	17,262	19,426	
7 Dec. "	25,044	16,264	21,196	
4 Jan. 1921	24,964	16,248	23,292	326
1 Feb. "	25,185	16,180	24,990	389
1 Mar. "	24,822	16,160	27,220	438
29 Mar. "	24,477	16,428	28,953	205

At the end of March 1921, the total number of men who had been trained either by the Ministry of Pensions or the Ministry of Labour was thus nearly 40,000; of these 29,000 had been trained within a period of twenty months under the direction of the Training Department.

The Select Committee on Pensions <sup>(9)</sup> and the Commission on Re-employment of Ex-Service Men <sup>(10)</sup> consider that, on the whole, the training of disabled men has been well carried out and that the results are satisfactory. The table which we have just given shows, however, that the number of disabled men in course of training increased rapidly and regularly from August 1919 to October 1920, and that it then became stabilised in the neighbourhood of 25,000; the number of men awaiting training, however, which had risen to 27,000 in January 1920 decreased progressively until November 1920, and then remained in the neighbourhood of 16,000, with a tendency to increase slightly at the end of the first quarter of 1921. The rapid increase in the number of men undergoing training and the corresponding reduction in the number on the waiting list in the first part of 1920 are explained by the rapid increase in the number and size of the Government

(8) The figures in this Table are extracted from the sources mentioned in Note (7).

(9) Report of the Select Committee on Pensions, 9 Aug. 1920. H. M. Stationery Office, P. IX, No. 185.

(10) Committee on Re-employment of Ex-Service Men: *Interim Report*; 12 Aug. 1920, p. 5. H. M. Stationery Office, London.

training centres, which had room for only about 1,000 men on 1 August 1919, but will be able to accommodate about 20,000 when their equipment is complete.

Since the end of October 1920 the development of industrial training has suffered a definite check, which is not attributable to lack of organisation or shortage of equipment, but to the general industrial situation. The capacity of industry for absorbing labour is decreasing owing to unemployment and the attitude of the trade unions.

At first the collaboration of National and Local Committees, consisting of representatives of workers' and employers' organisations, produced very good results. It is true there was a great deal of delay in setting up some of the National Committees, and others were very slow in working out their training schemes. This further prolonged the period of waiting for the disabled men. Some of the Local Committees opposed the application of the schemes drawn up by the National Committees and refused to modify the trade union rules regulating apprenticeship, so as to allow of the admission of disabled men. Most of the opposition was, however, local, and in the majority of cases it was overcome after negotiations undertaken by the Ministry of Labour with the help of representatives of the central workers' organisations.

Between November and March the situation became much more difficult; unemployment became widespread, and even fit skilled workers could not always find work. The trade union representatives on the Local Technical Advisory Committees thus became more and more opposed to the further admission of disabled men to training. The result was that the waiting lists grew longer; they consist of men, sixty per cent. of whom wish to enter one of the "Special Trades"; yet only twenty-five per cent. have been admitted by the Local Committees. The Committee on Pensions came to the conclusion that, though in some cases the opposition of the Local Committees is justified by a real shortage of work, in others it would appear to be possible to admit more disabled men, particularly in the building trade. The Committee also pointed out that the distribution of the disabled men among the different districts and the different trades was quite irregular. Each National Committee and the Local Committees for each trade have to decide on the admission of disabled men to their own trade. Some have acted in a very liberal spirit, while others have been principally anxious to limit the supply of labour, so as to maintain present wages and prevent unemployment, and have therefore admitted a number smaller than could actually have been absorbed. The result of this lack of uniformity is that some industries bear an unduly large share of the burden, and that the problem of the national training of the disabled has not been considered as a whole. The Committee on Pensions states that it cannot believe that in a country, in which there are fifteen or sixteen millions of workers, it is

impossible to find employment for the 75,000 to 100,000 disabled men who have been, or are to be, trained. It proposes a national conference consisting of representatives of trade unions and of employers' organisations, which would examine the decisions of the various trade committees, distribute the disabled men evenly between industries and districts, and thus provide for the solution of the national problem as a whole. Meanwhile the National Federation of Discharged and Demobilised Sailors and Soldiers, realising that the development of training is closely bound up with the possibility of finding employment, asks that both questions should be solved by the adoption of the principle of compulsory employment of disabled men in public services and private enterprises, as has been done in Germany and Austria and proposed in France <sup>(11)</sup>.

The national conference proposed by the Select Committee on Pensions has not met; no Bill for the compulsory employment of disabled men has been brought into Parliament; the causes which are at present hindering the training of disabled men still exist, and will probably continue to exist as long as the present industrial crisis lasts.

The work of training disabled men in the United Kingdom may be said to have attained, as far as circumstances permitted, its immediate object, which was the preparation of a considerable number of men for industrial work in a comparatively short space of time. The attempts which have been made and the results obtained are interesting, not only as the solution of a war problem, but also as a contribution to the study of the permanent question of the industrial training of fit workers. A vast organisation has been set up by the Government with the collaboration of the employers and workers, who are called upon to present proposals and even to make important decisions on questions of training; valuable research work has been undertaken; training methods have been adopted after experiments on a large scale; a considerable body of instructors has been formed; special establishments involving large expenditure have been constructed. In one year, or two at the most, the training of men disabled in the war will be complete, and the problem will then arise of utilising the experience which has been acquired in the training of disabled men, and the institutions which have been established, for the industrial training of young persons, of men disabled in industry, and of workers who are obliged for any reason to change their trade.



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(11) Cf. Inter. Lab. Off. *Studies and Reports*, Series E, No. 2: *the Compulsory Employment of Disabled Men*.

# AGRICULTURE



## Agrarian Reform in Hungary

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### INTRODUCTION

THE history of Hungary, as of every other agricultural country, has always been closely bound up with the history of the ownership of land. All the most important events of Hungarian political history (the Tartar invasion, the wars of the Turks, etc.) were accompanied by changes in agrarian conditions and in the system of land tenure. Thus the new Act, No. XXXVI of 7 December 1920, which is undoubtedly the most important and far-reaching piece of legislation passed by the National Assembly, is the final step in a process which began with the liberation of the peasants and the adoption of the new constitution in 1848, and was abruptly interrupted by the war and by post-war Revolutions.

The history of this Act in many ways recalls the history of the abolition of serfdom and the history of the laws abolishing the servitudes on landed property (*Grundentlastung*). This process, which in Hungary followed the 1848 Revolution, was much later in that country than elsewhere in western Europe. Similarly, the agrarian reform which is the subject of the present article was not undertaken until the effects of the war and the Revolution Act made it an international necessity. Although the law in question seems to be in many ways a radical measure, it takes great precautions to safeguard the interests of those owning large and medium-sized properties. The freeing of landed property from servitudes under the absolutist régime (1848-1867) was carried out entirely under the influence of the Conservative party. This resulted in an unsatisfactory system of land distribution. The best pieces of land, and especially those situated near the villages, were allotted to the landowners. For half a century the Government did hardly anything to modify these conditions of land tenure, which were the cause of the financial ruin of tens of thousands of small farmers. In pre-war Hungary a third of the land was in the possession of 4,000 large landowners, holding estates averaging in size 3,158 cadastral yokes (1); there was an even larger proportion

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(1) 1 cadastral yoke = 1.422 acres.

of land held under entail or mortmain. The small-holders, i.e. those owning estates of less than 5 yokes, though they numbered about a million and a half persons, yet only owned all in all a relatively tiny proportion of the cultivated land, namely 5.84%, their average holding being as low as 1.69 cadastral yokes.

There were millions more of landless agricultural workers, farm servants, and cottagers. The consequence of this was that, ever since the '70s, emigration to America had taken place in a continually increasing stream. The emigrants, who in 1900 to 1914 numbered more than 1.2 millions, were principally drawn from those districts where the rigid system of land tenure prevented them from satisfying their desire to own land and where the large-scale system of grain culture prevented the labouring population from being able to find adequate employment throughout the year. Demands for a rise in wages were forcibly suppressed, nor was any sufficient legislation introduced for the protection of labour. Progressive opinion in Hungary had for decades been pointing out the urgent necessity of undertaking a juster distribution and a more scientific exploitation of the land. Towards the end of this period, the Minister of Agriculture, Darányi, proposed a few measures of agricultural reform. With the exception, however, of an Act for the housing of agricultural workers in 1906, these measures were rejected as too expensive.

The losses in man power sustained by the country in consequence of the war made it even more urgently necessary to provide land for the returned soldiers. Four years of war had, moreover, greatly encouraged the spirit of democratic independence in the country population, and this population was also enormously excited by the example of what had happened in Russia. The Lex Buza (National Law XXV) of the Government of Count Michael Karolyi popularised the cry "10 yokes for every landless man". This Act proposed to indemnify the landowners at the prices current in 1913, and limited the amount of land they might hold to a maximum of 500 yokes. The results of this agitation have not quite ceased to affect the minds of the Hungarian rural proletariat, although they now know that, even in pre-war Hungary, the available land would have been several million yokes short of what was required in order to carry out agrarian reform on such lines. The Hungarian Bolsheviks, instead of increasing the number of small-holders, vainly tried to convert the Hungarian rural population to the idea of immense Communistic producers' associations. It was this plan which aroused the most obstinate passive, and sometimes even active, resistance to the dictatorship of the proletariat on the part of the peasants. The parties representative of the new "Christian" tendencies won their victories in the National Assembly elections, principally by promising radical agrarian reform. The representatives of the parties in the National

Assembly were never tired of emphasising the fact that this was the last opportunity for carrying through a better distribution of land, while at the same time paying a just respect to the interests of the possessing classes. It was pointed out that not only had the number of independent landholders in Russia been increased by several millions in the last twenty years, but that in other countries of western Europe great sacrifices had been made with a view to internal colonisation. It also seemed very important to prevent the agrarian policy of neighbour states from affecting the Hungarian rural population. Even after the fall of the dictatorship of the proletariat in August 1919, there were many signs of a tendency to direct action on the part of the agricultural population and of a desire to take possession of estates or to extort leases by force. All these reasons made it most desirable to settle the question of land reform.

As a matter of fact, the conditions of land tenure in the present restricted territory of Hungary are no more satisfactory than they were in pre-war Hungary. It has been calculated, on the basis of the statistics of 1895, that the area of cultivated land still remaining to the country is about 9,143,808 cadastral yokes. Of this, according to later statistics of landed property, made in 1915, no less than 964,000 cadastral yokes are occupied by estates of over 10,000 yokes. The number of agricultural workers in Hungary as at present constituted is calculated at 1,095,863 <sup>(3)</sup>; for a certain time the more energetic of this agricultural proletariat will be unable to emigrate, partly on account of material difficulties, and partly in consequence of the policy of exclusion which has lately been adopted by America and to a large extent also by countries bordering on Hungary itself. Hungarian industry, again, is at the moment offering fewer chances of employment. Finally, although Hungary has now a much smaller area <sup>(3)</sup> than before the war, it has to

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(2) The comparative classification of the agricultural population in pre-war Hungary and Hungary as established by the Peace of Trianon is as follows. The figures are on the basis of the 1910 census.

	<i>before the peace</i>	<i>after the peace</i>
Landholders owning over 100 cadastral yokes	0.4	0.6
Landholders owning 10-100 cadastral yokes	11.3	10.7
Landholders owning under 10 cadastral yokes	23.1	20.1
Other independent persons	0.6	0.7
Members of families of above classes who assist in work	26.8	21.9
Agricultural officials	0.2	0.3
Farm servants	11.0	14.7
Agricultural workers	26.6	31.0
	<hr/> 100.0	<hr/> 100.0

(3) The area of pre-war Hungary was 325,000 sq. Km.; by the Treaty of Trianon this was reduced to 82,000 sq. kilom. The population of pre-war Hungary was 18,264,533, and is now, taking the provisional estimate of the 1921 census, 7,840,832.



find room for men disabled in the war and the relatives of the fallen, as well as for an increasing number of fugitives from the annexed provinces and returned emigrants from all part of the world. These must, as a rule, find employment in agriculture.

#### THE ACT OF 7 DECEMBER 1920

The situation, therefore, was that hundreds of thousands of landless persons had to be provided for. Their needs, again, had to be reconciled with the general economic interests of the country, i.e. with the requirements of the food supply and of national finance ; and here an increase in production was called for. It must be remembered that the average yield of corn per cadastral yoke was 30 quintals in America, 14 in Germany, 9 in Austria, but only 6 in Hungary. No less than 80 % of the cultivated area of Hungary was given up to the cultivation of maize and grains. This exclusive cultivation of cereals exhausts the land ; during the last fourteen years the crop yield has only been increased on an average by 15 %. Hitherto large estates have produced 2 to 5 more quintals of corn per yoke than small estates. This has only in part been attributable to the extremes of temperature which prevail in different parts of Hungary ; in part it has been due to the insufficient capital and knowledge at the disposal of the small farmer. Even if large-scale farming in Hungary were not in any case called for at the present moment in order to provide supplies for the urban population, for the army, and for export, there would still remain one hard fact in the way of a complete satisfaction of the hunger for land, and that is, that there is not enough available land to go round. It has been calculated that it would require 3,630,000 cadastral yokes even to increase the smallest holdings from 5 to 10 yokes, and to give 3 yokes to every independent male agricultural worker. According to the 1895 statistics, in Hungary, as at present constituted, only 1,617,757 cadastral yokes are held by large landowners in the strict sense, i.e. by those owning more than 1,000 cadastral yokes ; even estates of 500 to 1,000 yokes, which may be reckoned as medium-sized estates, account for no more than 864,141 yokes.

Again, it is argued that large-scale farming is best adapted to make good that decrease in production, standing at 30-40 %, which has been a consequence of the war and the Revolutions, owing to the destruction of live stock and machinery. It is not at present desirable in the public interest to increase the number of small-holdings, above all not in the neighbourhood of the towns, unless at the same time a surplus of produce could be grown on behalf of the urban populations and for export ; this could be managed by rearing small stock, by increasing the head of cattle, by market gardening, and by other smallscale intensive cultivation. Nevertheless, it became unavoidable

to divide up some of the large estates, more especially those which followed non-intensive systems of cultivation, so as to induce or enable them to improve their organisation and to work on more intensive methods. There was an additional advantage in the fact that thereby an increased amount of more regular and more remunerative employment was provided.

The upshot is that the new Act does not recognise the right of the individual to land. The existing system of land tenure is simply to be modified where the general interest requires it. Definite state intervention is proposed only in cases where large estates bar whole villages from all chance of development, or where other vital social interests compel the community to put forth a demand for some part of the large properties.

The general intention of the Act is to provide land for agricultural workers at most to the extent of three yokes, and to small-holders at most to the extent of fifteen yokes; this is only to be done if their experience and financial position fit them to cultivate the land properly. Certain departures from this principle have been made in the case of persons who deserve special consideration, e.g. disabled soldiers and families of men who have fallen in the war, even when not previously engaged in agriculture; here, up to a maximum of three cadastral yokes may be assigned; further, landless artisans and industrial workers may receive up to a maximum of one cadastral yoke, and civil servants, persons in receipt of pensions, and former regular officers up to a value corresponding to their pension on retirement (Section 2). All these persons may also receive a site for a house if they do not already own a house or site, and cannot obtain one from a member of their family. Finally, model farms and medium-sized undertakings may be established in the vicinity of small-holdings, in order to help capable small landholders, farmers who hold a diploma, and agricultural managers. Generally speaking, the principle of the free sale of land is maintained, and the State only reserves the right to ensure that the proper persons are selected as future owners of land. In cases where this cannot be arranged by amicable agreement, the State may exercise a right of pre-emption within thirty days of the announcement of the proposed transfer (Sections 16-26); this was a right which had already been in operation under a war-time Order from 1 November 1917 onwards. In pre-war Hungary about 600,000 properties changed hands yearly; it is therefore probable that normal Sales will continue to provide a large reserve, on which the state can draw, either by amicable agreement or by the exercise of the right of pre-emption.

One of the provisions of the Act which constitutes an innovation is that establishing a special right of expropriation; this is the right of the State to buy up large estates (Sections 27-48), where the landowner, being able to exercise control over a whole district, has acted contrary to the public interest and where neither an amicable arrangement nor the exercise

of the pre-emption right pertaining to the State has sufficed to satisfy the legitimate requirements of the agricultural industry. The Act definitely regulates the classes of persons who shall benefit by state expropriation, the size of the estates which may be allocated to any group of owners, and, finally, the order in which estates shall be expropriated. The first estates liable to expropriation are estates, which were acquired during the war and amount to about 500,000 yokes of arable land ; such new properties are mostly regarded solely in the light of an investment by their owners. Then come estates of limited liability companies and of persons guilty of criminal acts contrary to the public interest. Then come estates subject to entail and mortmain. Only in the last resource will the Act be applied to old-established estates, in particular to large estates which have remained in the same hands during the fifty years ending on 28 July 1914. In fixing the order in which estates shall be partitioned, account shall be had of the standard of cultivation reached, and care shall also be taken that the productive quality of the remaining portion of an estate be unaffected. Certain crops and certain branches of agriculture shall remain entirely exempt.

A plot of land of three yokes at most is undeniably insufficient for the maintenance of a family, even where the owner receives in addition a site for his house. The owner would have to hire himself out as a labourer in order to supplement the income received from a plot of this size. Unless root crops only were grown, it would generally be necessary to hire draft animals and give labour in exchange. One difficulty in the way of an actual purchase of land constituting an independent economic unit of any size is the extremely high price of land in general, due to the depreciation of the currency; on an average this runs to 10,000 crowns per cadastral yoke. The rise in prices of the necessary plant and stock is a still more serious problem. In January 1921 the price of a pair of oxen ran from 70,000 to 100,000 crowns, a pair of horses cost from 150,000 to 200,000 crowns, a cow from 50,000 to 60,000 crowns, a cart 50,000 crowns, a plough 5,000 crowns, and a roller 4,000 crowns. In addition, allowance must be made for sowing and for the expenses of maintaining a family for a year; the smallest cottage of one room and a kitchen costs at least 100,000 crowns, even when groups of houses have been put up. The Act does not give any facilities for the purchase of land or of site on credit. The complicated financial arrangements on this head, contained in the original draft of the Bill, were abandoned at the wish of the Minister of Finance. Exceptions are made only in the case of disabled men, of families of the fallen, and of soldiers who have been decorated for services in the field. These classes of persons will be assisted to purchase land by means of the Land Acquisition Fund, which will be drawn from various public sources. The cash prices of land are to be fixed by voluntary

agreement where possible; where no such agreement can be reached, the price will be fixed by a mixed committee on the basis of the current market prices. As prices rule at present, most people will hesitate to acquire a new holding or enlarge their present one. They will prefer to replace or add to their live stock and machinery. « Most of those anxious to purchase land will probably be returned emigrants from America. The average savings of such persons are estimated at \$2,000. Before the war Hungary used to send numbers of small-holders to America, who saved money and returned as soon as they could, either in order to pay of debts or to buy farms. From 1908 to 1913 the number of Magyar emigrants who returned from America was 49,387 <sup>(4)</sup>, having on an average spent four to five years in America; the number of persons of Magyar birth at present living in America may be estimated at about 300,000. As these emigrants have been away from home since before 1914, and during this period great changes have taken place in their family and financial circumstances, a great stream of returning emigrants may be expected, provided that the agrarian reforms are carried out and that general social conditions definitely improve. In order to attract emigration from the United States, children of Hungarian-born persons, as well as such persons themselves, are allowed to purchase land on condition that they present a request for naturalisation.

Other provisions of the Act, however, promise greater practical results than the direct purchase of land. In particular, it is permissible to postpone fixing a definite purchase price of land for ten years, in order to avoid the risk involved both for buyer and seller in the uncertain value of the currency. During these ten years rent is paid and, in accordance with the practice of recent years, this may be fixed in kind. This system makes it possible for the purchaser to use some of his capital to buy seed and stock. A person renting land according to this provision (Sections 61 to 69) cannot be given notice to quit, but he can at any time free himself from the obligation to pay annual rent by paying out the remainder of the purchase price. A still more important provision from the point of view of rapid internal colonisation is that large estates, which are liable to partition and are let, may be allocated on lease by the State to persons entitled to benefit by the distribution of estates (Sections 49 to 53). Suitable parcels of land under entail or mortmain may also be treated in this way, if they have not already been leased out. Finally, certain large tenants can be compelled to lease out part of their holding to third parties in small plots; in such cases approved financial institutions of a philanthropic type will act as general leaseholders, and will constitute themselves

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(4) According to the estimate of the National Statistical authorities, an estimate which, however, is very incomplete.

guarantors towards the owner in respect of all obligations of the small lessees.

In all probability the only processes which will at first afford any practical relief to the land-hungry masses will be the assignment of house sites, the distribution of small rented holdings, and (granted that the necessary financial arrangements can be made) the assignation of leases.

Apart from the parcelling out of land by public financial institutions the State will control the sale and purchase of all land and the drawing up of leases (Sections 54 to 60). The Act protects a certain type of estate (the homestead type), acquired in virtue of the Act, against unrestricted sale, mortgage, or lease (Sections 70 to 77) ; it also provides against the division of an estate among the owner's heirs, a practice which has greatly encouraged the one-child family.

### CONCLUSION

Though the Act makes allowance for the financial and economic difficulties of the post-war period, it nevertheless attempts to give the rural population, as far as possible, immediate and progressive access to the land, while at the same time never neglecting the public interest. Its temporary provisions should suffice to prevent emigration on a large scale; they should thus ensure a sufficient supply of labour for large and medium-sized estates, the existence of which is at present an absolutely necessity from the point of view of the financial and economic interests of the country. At present the State is not in a position to provide credit, and still less capital, for the purchase and organisation of self-sufficing peasant holdings; the help it can give leaves much to be desired. In many districts agricultural workers may prefer to hold a part lease or to gain a secure living as farm servants, rather than to acquire house sites and small leasehold plots. If they do take advantage of the opportunities afforded to them by this Act, they will certainly look on these opportunities only as instalments; they will refuse to regard them as barring their own subsequent rise into the next highest class of landowners.

The new reform leaves the present system of land tenure untouched in principle; it even strengthens it by adding to the number of medium-sized estates. As already mentioned, where required by the demand for a more intensive production, existing properties may be enlarged to cover an area exceeding 15 yokes, and this at the expense of certain large estates, as long as these are not hereditary property of long standing. Indeed, even medium-sized estates of long standing, sold during the war, can be bought back from their present possessors by their original owners at a lower price, i.e. one

calculated on the elimination of war profits. Finally, large freehold estates of long standing which have remained in the same hands during the last fifty years cannot be touched except in the very last resort and under reservations. From the standpoint of agricultural economy the Act is calculated to encourage more intensive cultivation and to increase Hungary's exportable surplus of agricultural products and live stock. In this way it may be expected to contribute to the raising of the national financial resources.

The execution of the Act is entrusted to a mixed Supreme Land Court for the regulation of land tenure (Sections 4 to 15), constituted of thirty-nine members. Nineteen of these are judges of the Supreme Court; the rest are all representatives of landed interests, or Government representatives, or members of impartial financial bodies; the masses of landless claimants are only slightly and indirectly represented by delegates from the central chambers of agriculture. By the terms of the Act this Supreme Land Court is endowed with very great powers, and is, in fact, set up as the controlling authority for the whole surface of the soil of Hungary. The reform was welcomed by the National Assembly with unanimous approval; the big landowners and local authorities, however, show a tendency to obstruct the carrying out even of the initial emergency provisions, touching even the more modest part of the reform, namely, the assignation of housing sites and of small leasehold plots <sup>(5)</sup>.

Since the beginning of 1920 the Government has succeeded in inducing a large number of landowners and landlords of their own free will to lease plots of 1 to 2 yokes, with a view to satisfying the most urgent requirements of those in need of land. The Harvest Order of 1920 has given the Agricultural Sub-Committees of the counties a certain amount of authority on the subject. Subsequently, in the autumn, the National Assembly was compelled, even before the passing of the great Agrarian Reform Act which had already been laid before it, to empower the Minister of Agriculture by a short Emergency Act (No. XXIX 1920) to take the necessary steps for the distribution of housing sites, and also for the urgent creation of small leasehold plots, on the basis of the principles laid down by the main Act. This resulted in the leasing out of at least 50,000 small plots, up to the present mostly as a result of amicable arrangement; all parties seem anxious to avoid the complicated and expensive legal proceedings established by the emergency Act. The Provisional Order of 15 January 1921, moreover, puts the execution of the state right of pre-emption and of the right to be informed of transactions concerning the transfer of agricultural property, as well as the granting of leases, into the hands of the Agricultural

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(5) Hardly a week passes but that complaints are brought in the National Assembly by representatives of the peasant proprietors against large landowners and the local authorities as to the carrying out of the new Land Act.

Sub-Committees of the county Administration Committees, until such time as the Supreme Land Court shall be set up. On the proposal of the Commission for the Regulation of Land Tenure, which has been in existence since 1917, appeal was allowed to the Minister of Agriculture. The Provisional Order will automatically go out of operation when the Supreme Land Court is constituted.

When normal conditions are re-established, this long awaited agrarian reform may produce important results. The actual terms of the Act somewhat diminish the prospects, seeing that the claims of the State can only be enforced five years after the Act has come into operation. Indeed, landed proprietors may already make application to the Supreme Land Court, when they are proposing to make necessary improvements, for a ruling, stating that their estates shall not come under the provisions of the Act. The intention is to give agriculture a certain necessary security and to encourage land development. Even housing sites, on which the purchaser fails to erect a building in the course of the next five years, can be claimed back by their original owners, in spite of the notorious difficulties which are at present obstructing building (Section 86). In any case land reform in Hungary on the basis of this Act can hardly be energetically taken in hand until after the next five years, which are bound to be exceptional, though it is not impossible that more radical reforms may be instituted even before the end of this period <sup>(6)</sup>.

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(6) The Premier of the new Ministry, Count Stephen Bethlen, stated in the National Assembly on 18 April 1921 (*Pester Lloyd*, 19 April 1921): —

“Land policy, again, is important, because agriculture is the principal national industry. In strengthening the farmer's position we shall strengthen the position of the whole country. Our agrarian reform is the first step in this direction. We propose to carry out this reform with all the forces at our disposal, and we shall overcome all hindrances; the solving of this problem will establish national harmony. If you interfere with private property, you must do so in such a way that it will not be necessary to repeat the process. We hope to link up land reform with the levy on capital; and with the help of this levy to obtain enough land to ensure the execution of our agrarian reform.”

Touching on the subject of local government reform, the Premier stated that one of the reasons for urging that reform was the fact that the present local government system was said to be “a hindrance in carrying out agrarian reform.” He added: “It is true that the Government has at its command the power by which it can ensure the execution of the Act. The Government will carry out its agrarian reform with all energy and will see that it is executed, no matter what the consequences may be.” The Premier then quoted as another reason for the reform “the constitutions of the councils of the counties, of the towns, and the communes, which do not correspond with present day democratic ideas.” (The councils of the municipalities are the bodies which elect the local government officials for definite periods).

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# BOOK NOTES

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## OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

### INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

*Trade Union Conditions in Hungary. Documents presented by the Mission of Enquiry of the International Labour Office (August to September 1920).* 189 pp. Geneva. 3s.

This is a collection of documents procured by the Mission of Enquiry which was sent by the International Labour Office, at the request of the Hungarian Government, to investigate trade union conditions in Hungary. Part I gives the data of the enquiry, namely, information on trade union organisations, documents as to current legislation and its application, and further documents illustrating "the atmosphere with which the Hungarian workers' organisations are surrounded". Part II contains the texts of communications and statements specially supplied to the Mission. These texts were supplied by various authorities, Government, employers, and workers. A large number of documents have been collected and are presented with the strictest impartiality.

*Labour and Production in the Ruhr Coal Field from 1919 to 1920.* 109 pp. Geneva, 1921. 2s.6d.

This report calls attention to the steady increase in the production of coal in the Ruhr basin during 1919; the causes of this are stated as an increase in the number of workers and the lengthened working hours agreed to by the miners in return for a more plentiful supply of food. The report then describes the reorganisation of the Ruhr industries during November 1918 into great combines, covering every branch and all stages of the mining and metallurgical industries. The demands of various workers' organisations touching the cost of living and socialisation of mines are also noted.

*A Demand for Workers' Control in Industry in France.* Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 8. 31 March 1921. 23 pp. 10d.

As a result of the demand addressed by the French Federation of Metal Workers to the employers' Association of Metallurgical and Mining Industries for the establishment of trade union control of industry, correspondence was exchanged between the two organisations, which indicates clearly the workers' point of view and the present tendencies among French employers. This study contains translations of the letters exchanged on the subject, together with the circular issued by the National Federal Committee of the Federation of Metal Workers and the draft Bill proposed by the Federation.

*The Reform of the Supreme Council of Labour in Italy: towards a Technical Parliament of Labour.* Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 9. 14 April 1921. 38 pp. 10d.

This study traces the antecedents of the proposal at present under consideration for the reorganisation on a new basis of the Supreme Council of Labour. The successive stages are the constitution of the Council by the Act of 1902; the first criticisms and demands for reform; the reform

scheme of 1910; the action of the trade unions and of Parliament since the war; the results of the investigation undertaken by Mr. Nitti in 1919; the Abbiate scheme; and the Labriola report and scheme. At the end of the study we have a sketch of the attitude of the organisations and of the chief criticisms made against the Government proposal.

*The Compulsory Employment of Disabled Men.* Studies and Reports, Series E, No. 2. 25 April 1921. 34 pp. 10d.

After dealing with the general considerations involved in the employment of disabled men, this study gives an account of the Brussels Conference of September 1920, including the proposals of the Italian delegation and the recommendations adopted by the Conference. Then follow in turn outlines of the main provisions of the British National Scheme, the German and Austrian Acts, and the French proposals for the employment of disabled ex-Service men.

*The Regulation of Labour in Agriculture in France.* Studies and Reports, Series K, No. 6. 23 April 1921. 21 pp. 10d.

A previous publication of the International Labour Office (1) gave the text of a Bill for the application of the 8-hour day to agriculture, introduced into the French Chamber of Deputies by the Socialist group, together with the report of Mr. Mercier proposing the rejection of the Bill. The International Labour Office has decided to supplement these two documents by reproducing the minutes of the Commission set up at the Ministry of Agriculture by the Order of 10 June 1919, as the discussions on this Commission served as a basis for the Socialist Bill.

## BELGIQUE

MINISTÈRE DE L'INDUSTRIE, DU TRAVAIL ET DU RAVITAILLEMENT : ADMINISTRATION DES MINES ET INSPECTION DU TRAVAIL. *La situation des industries belges en décembre 1920.* (MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY, LABOUR, AND FOOD: DEPARTMENT OF MINES AND LABOUR INSPECTION. *The State of Belgian Industries in December 1920.*) 77 pp. Brussels, Weissenbruch, 1921.

This volume contains the results of a statistical investigation undertaken in December 1920 by the Department of Mines and Labour Inspection, and analysed by its Statistical Section. Although "the investigation did not meet with the reception from all manufacturers for which the Department had hoped", it has produced interesting statistics on the increase in employment in December 1920, the percentage of increase in each class of industry, the percentage of total production in December 1920 as compared with that in 1913, the classification of work and factories in 1920 and, 1913 according to their relative importance, and on the principal factors obstructing increased employment in December 1920.

MINISTÈRE DES AFFAIRES ÉCONOMIQUES : INSPECTION DE L'INDUSTRIE. *La lithographie, la gravure et leur industries connexes.* (MINISTRY FOR ECONOMIC AFFAIRS: INDUSTRIAL INSPECTION DEPARTMENT. *Lithography, Engraving, and Allied Industries.*) 292 pp. Brussels, J. Lebègue & Co., and A. Dewit, 1920.

This very informative work forms one of a series of industrial monographs issued since 1903 by the Industrial Inspection Department. It begins with

(1) *Studies and Reports*, Series K, No. 5: *The Eight-Hour Day in Agriculture before the French Chamber of Deputies.*

an historical sketch, and includes a series of articles on the lithographic industry, which handle general principles, raw materials, plant, technical processes, and allied subjects. The book ends with a list of lithographic firms specialising in different processes.

## CANADA

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR. *Report of the Department of Labour for the Fiscal Year ending 31 March 1920.* 170 pp. Ottawa, 1921.

This report opens with a discussion of the activities of the One Big Union; and also includes notes on the constitution and work of the Royal Commission on Industrial Relations, the National Industrial Conference, and the first International Labour Conference at Washington. The thirteenth annual report of proceedings under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act 1907, a report of the work of the Fair Wages Branch of the Department of Labour, the second annual report of the Director of Coal Operations, the record of strikes during the year, the report of the Employment Service, and the report of the first years' proceedings under the Technical Education Act may be noted as other items of interest.

## UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR: *Eighth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1920.* 269 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office.

The principal features of this report are a sketch of the creation, history, and functions of the Department of Labor; the reports for 1920 of the different Divisions and Bureaus; accounts of the International Labour Conference at Washington and the National Industrial Conference; the report of the President's Industrial Conference; and recommendations to the present and future Congresses.

The report points out that "through its Bureau of Labor Statistics the Department has kept the intelligence of the country in touch with the nation's industrial life. Through its Bureau of Immigration it has carried the growing burden of administering accumulations of laws affecting immigrants. Through its Children's Bureau it has made almost unhopedefor advances in the conservation of child life and the protection of little children from the ravages of industrial demands. Through its Bureau of Naturalization, now fully engaged in qualifying worthy applicants for citizenship as well as weeding out the unworthy, it is strengthening the industrial morale of the wage-earners of the country and thereby the American policy of honest pay for honest work and equal opportunity for all. Through its Women's Bureau it is conserving the interests of wage-earning women on a parity with wage-earning men. Through its Division of Negro Economics it has sought to minimize the deplorable consequences of racial disturbances in the industrial field. Through its Employment Service it has given to employment a nation-wide fluidity, which, though far from complete, owing to the crippled financial condition of the service, is nevertheless far advanced. Through its Conciliation Service—an agency which has but seldom failed to produce industrial peace whenever both sides to an industrial dispute have made it their intermediary—it has promoted non-coercive adjustments of disputes between employers and wage earners".

Among the recommendations submitted to Congress for legislative action are some of general interest, such as the organisation of a system of employment exchanges, legislation relative to adjustment of seasonal to non-seasonal industries, training of wage-earners, the protection of the children of wage-earners, statutory perpetuation in the Department of Labor of the Division of Negro Economics, proposals relating to problems of naturalisation, immigration, and the residence of foreigners in the United States.

## URUGUAY

MINISTERIO DE INDUSTRIAS: OFICINA NACIONAL DEL TRABAJO. *La contribucion de los gobiernos departamentales a la solucion de los problemas obreros. Organizacion del mercado del trabajo* (MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY: NATIONAL LABOUR DEPARTMENT. *Contribution of Government Departments to the Solution of Labour Problems: the Organisation of the Labour Market*). 31 pp. Montevideo, January 1921.

This is a Memorandum of the Legislative Section of the National Labour Department on the Draft Conventions and Recommendations on unemployment adopted at the International Labour Conference at Washington. The Memorandum points out that the most effective means of discharging international obligations and putting a stop to unemployment is to be found in joint action by the Government and the municipalities. The national administration should centralise and distribute information regarding the labour market; with the co-operation of the municipalities an extensive system of municipal exchanges could be established; this organisation would facilitate the solution of the problem of labour supply. After a summary of foreign experiments, a description of the organisation of employment exchanges, and an examination of the principles which should govern their establishment, the Memorandum sketches a scheme for the organisation of the labour market in Uruguay. An appendix gives the text of a Bill for establishing labour exchanges in Uruguay, prepared by the Legislative Section.

## NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ASOCIACIÓN DEL TRABAJO; OFICINA DE PUBLICACIONES. *Consejos industriales mixtos*. (INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION; PUBLICATIONS DEPARTMENT. *Mixed Industrial Councils*). 58 pp. Buenos Ayres. 1921.

The object of this pamphlet is to give precise information to business men and manufacturers as to new organisations set up in various countries of the world, with a view to introducing more harmony into the operations of capital and labour. The first part of the pamphlet consists of a detailed Memorandum by the National Labour Department on works councils of the Whitley type, dealing first with the origin and work of these councils and then with the possibility of setting up similar institutions in the Argentine. This is followed by the reply of the workers' federation and the circular addressed by this federation to its affiliated organisations. This circular states that the present state of industry and of the trade union movement in the Argentine makes the establishment of works councils of the English type impossible; nevertheless, other steps must be taken to bring about co-operation of worker and employer. An appendix gives the results of some previous experiments in mixed works councils made by employers.

BERNHARD, Dr. Ernst. *Die gesetzliche Regelung der Arbeitslosenversicherung im Ausland (Unemployment Insurance Legislation Abroad)*. Beilage zum Reichsarbeitsblatt No. II, Jahrgang I (Neue Folge). 24 pp., Berlin. Verlag des Reichsarbeitsblattes, 1921. 2 marks.

This publication, issued under the auspices of the German Ministry of Labour, consists largely of a systematic analysis of the steps taken in various countries to deal with problems of unemployment insurance. All the main facts for the period from 1916 to 1920 are discussed; temporary legislation is discussed in an appendix.

BUSSON H., FEVRE J., HAUSER H. *La France d'aujourd'hui et ses colonies* (*Contemporary France and her Colonies*). 692 pp., Paris, Félix Alcan, 1920. 14 francs.

This is a general description of present-day conditions in France, stressing characteristic economic features of the different natural divisions of the country. An interesting chapter is that on ethnography, dealing with emigration, immigration, the rural exodus to the towns, the present conditions and future prospects of French agriculture and industry. The authors draw the conclusion that the peasants should "give up their individualism and organise themselves in trade unions, producers' and consumers' co-operative societies, mutual aid societies, etc.", but that, on the other hand, "association is as necessary for industrial as for agricultural interests".

CAILLARD. C. *Chambres de métiers et conseils de métiers*. (*Trade Chambers and Trade Councils*). 324 pp., Paris, Librairie de l'enseignement technique, 1920.

We have here an exhaustive study of the problem of the organisation of trade chambers in France and of the necessary functions which they have to perform in connection with apprenticeship and vocational education. The author, who is Inspector-General of technical education, handles in turn, with remarkable skill and accuracy, the present position of trade chambers in France and particularly in Alsace-Lorraine; provisions affecting them in the Astier Act and in the various Bills on apprenticeship, premiums, and trade chambers; and various suggestions included in the proposals for the future work of the chambers. The author discusses his complex subject in great detail and adds his own text of a draft Bill on trade chambers; if not final, this text at least puts before the parties concerned the elements for discussion. The book also contains a series of appendices, quoting, together with other matter, the texts of the Bills on the trade chambers.

CENTRALE DES MÉTALLURGISTES DE BELGIQUE. *Rapports présentés au Congrès national des 11 et 12 juin 1921* (BELGIAN FEDERATION OF METAL WORKERS. *Reports presented to the National Congress on 11 and 12 June 1921*). 287 pp. Brussels, Imprimerie populaire, 1921.

This report describes the work of the Belgian Metal Workers' Federation in 1920. It includes the texts of the various manifestoes issued by the National Committee, and discusses the international relations of the Federation and the negotiations it has been conducting with various associations. There is a financial and an administrative report, a series of statistical tables to illustrate the present position of the Federation, and reprints of the reports sent in by district and provincial branches.

COLLIS, Edgar L., M.D., M.R.C.P., and others. *The Industrial Clinic: a Handbook dealing with Health in Work*. 239 pp. London, John Bale Sons and Danielsson, 1920. 10s. 6d.

This handbook is a compact summary of present-day knowledge of the infant science of the application of health principles to employment conditions. Its purpose is to give factory medical officers and welfare workers an account of what there is to do and how it may be done. There are chapters by experts on the Medical Examination of the Worker, Choosing the Worker, Industrial Efficiency and Fatigue, Hygiene of Working Conditions, Hygiene of the Individual, Food Values in relation to Occupation, Food at the Works, the Ambulance Room, and Industrial Employment of Women. Much of the material is taken from Government publications issued during the last ten or eleven years; the contribution made by these publications to the whole science of industrial medicine is hardly yet generally recognised, and this book performs a useful task in making available a great deal of valuable information, which is not easily accessible in its original form.

DEUTSCHÖSTERREICHISCHE GEWERKSCHAFTSKOMMISSION: *Denkschrift an den Internationalen Gewerkschaftskongress, abgehalten im November 1920 in London, enthaltend eine Darstellung der wirtschaftlichen Verhältnisse von Deutschösterreich unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Lage der Arbeiterklasse dieses Staates* (TRADE UNION COMMITTEE OF GERMAN AUSTRIA: *Memorandum to the International Trade Union Congress held in London in November 1920, including a Description of the economic Condition of German Austria*), with special Reference to the Position of the working Classes of that Country. 20 pp. Vienna, Vorwärts, 1920.

This Memorandum, which was drawn up by the Trade Union Committee of German Austria, representing more than 750,000 organised manual and non-manual workers, is a study of present conditions in that country, especially of industrial conditions, unemployment, public health, the problem of coal and raw materials, and the state of commerce and transport. The Memorandum concludes by suggesting solutions of these problems.

FYFE, Cleveland. *The Agricultural Act 1920 in brief: a Synopsis prepared by the Parliamentary Secretary to the National Farmers' Union and approved by the Union's Legal Adviser, Mr. Alfred Ellis, J.P.* 24 pp. London, the National Farmers' Union, 1921. 2d.

HAMBRECHT, George P. *The Responsibility for Industrial Accident Prevention; the Wisconsin Safety Review*, January 1921. Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

In this article, the chairman of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin deals with the suggestion that the Commission should comply with employers' requests for certificates, stating that their plants conform to all the safety requirements laid down by the Commission. The Wisconsin Workmen's Compensation Act provides for 15% increased compensation where the injury is caused by failure on the part of employers to comply with the safety regulations laid down by the Industrial Commission, and it is as a safeguard against this provision that such certificates are sought. The conclusion reached is that the Commission, by freely supplying copies of the safety code, by advice, and by drawing attention to specific infractions of the code, must do its utmost to help the employer to observe the law, but must decline to issue certificates shouldering what is essentially the employer's responsibility.

LEGER, Augustin. *La Régression des salaires (The Reduction of Wages)*. 43 pp., Paris. Société d'études et d'informations économiques and Marcel Rivière, 1921.

Attempts have been made, by cutting wages, to reduce the costs of production, in order to remedy the crisis of under-consumption from which industry is at present suffering. The author studies this tendency in the countries in which it has successively appeared, Japan, the United States, Great Britain, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. He emphasises the great complexity of the problem as it has appeared in these countries, and also analyses causes; in spite of their apparent multiplicity, they all derive in reality from the economic chaos left by the war. He infers that a universal cause will have universal effects; the economic crisis is world-wide, therefore the reduction of wages will also be world-wide.

PAUL, Eden and Cedar. *Communism*. Labour Booklets No. 3. 20 pp. London, Labour Publishing Co, 1921. 6d.

A short account of the history, methods, and aim of Communism, by the authors of *Creative Revolution*.

POTULICKI, Michel. *Constitution de la République de Pologne du 17 mars 1921* (*Constitution of 17 March 1921 of the Polish Republic*). 81 pp. Warsaw, Société de publications internationales; Paris, éditions Bossard, 1921.

This is a French translation of the text of the new Polish constitution. Texts of the minority amendments are also given and include the proposals of the National Labour Party on the institution and functions of a chamber of labour for "the representation and defence of the needs of all citizens whose livelihood is dependent on wage-earning labour". The pamphlet also includes the Socialist Party proposals on the legal protection of labour, factory laws, strikes, insurance, the relations between capital and labour, and the establishment, functions, and activities of a chamber of labour.

SCHIFFEL, Max. *Zum Kommunalisierungsgesetzesentwurf. Erläuternde und kritische Bemerkungen. Veröffentlichungen der sächsischen Landesstelle für Gemeinwirtschaft. (The Bill for the Municipalisation of Industry: critical and explanatory Commentary. Publication of the State Department for Public Ownership, Saxony)*. Pamphlet XI, 29 pp., Dresden, von Zahn & Jaensch, 1921. 3 marks.

This study on the municipalisation of industry is the most recent of the publications of the State Department for Public Ownership in Saxony; it is one of a series of pamphlets, which have appeared at irregular intervals since 1919. These publications are intended as an aid to the discussion and solution of all the social and industrial problems of the present day, such as socialisation, municipalisation, the organisation of the economic system, and nationalisation of production. The hope is thus to create a body of public opinion in favour of such autonomous organisations as co-operative societies and mixed industrial associations. These pamphlets discuss the position in Germany, and also various developments abroad. The first of the series includes a translation of the Report of the British Coal Commission of 20 June 1919, a document of outstanding importance for the discussion of nationalisation of mines in Great Britain. No. IX translates the British Whitley Reports, dealing with the problem of joint industrial councils, works councils, and co-operation. Other numbers deal with the reform of labour conditions (No. II), dispensaries and community control (No. V), socialisation in the building trade (No. VI), socialisation of the water supply in Saxony (No. VII), industrial hygiene as the basis of the reform of labour conditions (No. VIII), and the development of community control over the economic system in Saxony (No. V).

SCHWEIZER VERBAND "VOLKSDIENST". *Erster Jahresbericht für das Jahr 1920* (SOCIAL SERVICE ASSOCIATION OF SWITZERLAND: *First Annual Report for 1920*). 34 pp. Kilchberg, 1921.

This institution, which now issues its first annual report, grew out of the *Soldatenwohl* (Soldiers' Welfare) society, founded during the war, and is carrying on the work and endeavouring to spread the influence of that society. Its activities include the running of temperance canteens, people's kitchens, workers' lodging-houses, and welfare institutions. The Social Economics Section, which was established on 1 July 1920, proposes to conduct systematic enquiry into means for removing class inequalities and furthering social unity; it undertakes to make an objective study of working class conditions and draw up proposals for improving them; it has so far devoted its principal attention to sickness and old age insurance problems. Public lectures have also been organised by the society.

SERWY, Victor. *La coopération et la vie chère (Co-operation and Cost of Living)*. 20 pp., Brussels, Office coopératif belge, 1921. 1 franc.

The author is the head of the Belgian Co-operative Bureau; he gives the history of the Belgian co-operative movement by quoting tables of figures. He describes, with concrete examples, the important rôle played

by the co-operative society in preventing prices from rising, in selling below the level of commercial prices, and in preventing the practice of any deception as to weight or quality of goods; by selling for cash only it saves the consumer from the open sore of credit; it also tries to raise its members to a higher moral and intellectual level. The co-operative society is an institution existing in the interests of the community, to the exclusion of all private interests.

SOLANO, John E. *Labour as an International Problem. A Series of Essays, comprising a short history of the International Labour Organisation and a Review of General Industrial Problems.* LX+345 pp. London, Macmillan & Co., Ltd. 1920.

This book was written with the object of explaining the constitution, functions, procedure, and policy of the International Labour Office. The authors of the different chapters are almost all closely associated with the International Labour Organisation. Mr. G. N. Barnes and Dr. Shotwell deal with the constitution, functions, and procedure of the Commission on International Labour Legislation of the Peace Conference. Mr. Appleton contributes a chapter on the policy of the International Federation of Trade Unions with regard to the International Labour Organisation. The situation in Japan and Belgium is dealt with by Mr. Oka and Mr. Vandervelde respectively. Mr. Arthur Fontaine traces the various movements which arose for the equalisation of labour conditions in the different countries. The industrial reforms on the agenda of the Washington Conference, now the subject of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by that Conference, are described by Miss Sanger. One chapter, by Mr. H. B. Butler, is devoted to the Washington Conference and the prospects of the movement set on foot by that Conference. In the concluding chapter, Mr. Albert Thomas writes of the task before the International Labour Office, and explains the reasons for the confidence felt both by workers and employers in the beneficent influence of the new organisation. A number of appendices are given at the end of the book.

*The Building Guild: its Principles, Object, and Structure.* 24 pp., Manchester Co-operative Agency, 1921. 6d.

The history of the Manchester Building Guild is briefly told in this pamphlet, from its origin in January 1920 to the National Conference of October 1920. An account is given of the constitution of the Guild, of the functions of local guild committees and their relations to the Central Guild, of the action of the Co-operative Wholesale Society in support of the Guild, and of the underlying principles on which the promoters of the guild movement base their claim to provide an alternative to the existing capitalistic system. The negotiations with the Ministry of Health, leading up to the signing of the Model Contract on 6 August 1920, are described, and particulars of the Contract are given.

UNION INTERPARLEMENTAIRE. *L'Union interparlementaire, son œuvre et son organisation (The Interparliamentary Union: its Work and Organisation).* 24 pp., Geneva, Bureau interparlementaire, 1921.

This pamphlet sketches the institution; development, and work of the Interparliamentary Union. One chapter deals with the relations between the Union and the League of Nations and International Labour Office. "For the resolutions of the Assembly to take their full effect, the states must ratify them, or take the necessary legislative and other steps to put them in force. In this work the Interparliamentary Union can be of the greatest value, working through its constituent groups. The same applies to the International Labour Office attached to the League. This new



institution can be considerably assisted by the Union and its groups, by the latter undertaking to press for the carrying out of the Recommendations and the ratification of the Draft Conventions passed by the Annual Conferences organised by the Office”.

WIESENER, G. *Midlertidig lov om Arbeiderutvalg i industrielle bedrifter m. v. (Provisional Act on the Establishment of Works Councils in Industrial Undertakings)*. 31 pp. Christiania, Steenske Forlag, 1921.

The author is Departmental Head in the Norwegian Department for Social Affairs. He summarises the development of the Works Councils Act, which became law in Norway on 23 July 1920. The provisional nature of the Act is a proof of the difficulties encountered during the consideration of the Bill in Committee. Three points in particular prevented the adoption of a permanent legislative measure, namely the questions of wages, discharge, and the workers' share in the management of factories. Under the Act, the employer retains the entire management of his works, but in certain clearly-defined cases he may not come to a decision without consulting the works council. The second part of the book gives the actual text of the Act, with a commentary on each section.

WOOD, Sir Kingsley, M P. *The Law and Practice with regard to Housing in England and Wales*. 769 pp. London, Henry Frowde and Hodder & Stoughton, 1921.

Sir Kingsley Wood, who was Parliamentary Private Secretary to Dr. Addison when Minister of Health, gives in this volume a summary of the complicated legislation at present in force regarding working-class housing in Great Britain. After an explanation of the powers of local authorities, county councils, and philanthropic societies, in connection with the building of working class houses, the improvement of insanitary areas, and town-planning, he gives the full text of the chief Acts on the subject, from the Housing of the Working Classes Act 1890 down to the two important measures passed in 1919. The book is strictly objective in character, and entirely refrains from comment but is one of the most recent and complete résumés of British law on housing.

ZIMAND, Savel. *The Open Shop Drive*. 61 pp. New York, Bureau of Industrial Research, 289 Fourth Avenue, 1921. 50 cents.

This book is the most complete statement so far issued of the present development of the “open shop” movement in the United States, a movement which is acknowledged by all sides to be the most significant factor in American industrial relations. The book is made up almost entirely of quotations from statements, resolutions, letters, etc., coming from employers' associations, individual employers, or their agents, and of “moral judgments” delivered by men and organisations of independent standing, the whole selected to demonstrate the accuracy of the labour point of view as to the objects and methods of the employers.